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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

THIRTY-FIFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

HELD IN

TORONTO

ON THE 7th, 8th AND 9th APRIL, 1896.

TORONTO:
C. BLACKETT ROBINSON, PRINTER.
1896.

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.,
Professor, and Director of the Anatomical Department.

H. WILBERFORCE AIKINS, B.A., M.B., Tor.,
Associate Professor of Anatomy.

F. N. G. STARR, M.B., Tor.,
Senior Assistant Demonstrator of Anatomy.

W. B. THISTLE, M.D., Tor.,

A. R. GORDON, M.B., Tor.,

F. WINNETT, M.D., Tor.,

B. E. McKENZIE, B.A., M.D., McGill,

G. BOYD, B.A., M.B., Tor.,

B. C. H. HARVEY, B.A., Tor.,
Assistant Demonstrators of Anatomy.

W. T. AIKINS, M.D., Tor., LL.D.,
Professor of Surgery.

I. H. CAMERON, M.B., Tor.,
Professor of Clinical Surgery.

G. A. PETERS, M.B., Tor.,
Associate Professor of Surgery and Clinical Surgery.

JOHN CAVEN, B.A., M.A., Tor.,
Professor of Pathology.

J. AMYOT, M.B., Tor.,
Demonstrator of Pathology.

J. E. GRAHAM, M.D., Tor.,
Professor of Medicine and Clinical Medicine.

A. McPHEDRAN, M.B., Tor.,
Associate Professor of Medicine and Clinical Medicine.

W. P. CAVEN, M.B., Tor.,
Associate Professor in Clinical Medicine.

JAMES M. MacCALLUM, B.A., M.D., Tor.,
Professor of Pharmacology and Therapeutics.

C. F. HEEBNER, Phm. B., Tor.,
Demonstrator of Materia Medica and Elementary Therapeutics.

UZZIEL OGDEN, M.D., Tor.,
Professor of Gynecology.

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.,
Associate Professor of Ophthalmology and Otology.

G. R. McDONAGH, M.D., Tor.,
Associate Professor of Laryngology 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.,
Associate Professor of 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.

A. B. MACALLUM, B.A., M.B., Tor., Ph.D., Johns Hopkins,
Professor of Physiology.

R. R. BENSLEY, B.A., M.B., Tor.,
Assistant Demonstrator in Biology.

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 in Chemistry.

F. J. SMALE, B.A.,
Lecturer in 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.

R. A. REEVE, B.A., M.D.,
Dean

A. PRIMROSE, M.B., C.M., Edin.,
Secretary

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1896-1897.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

THIRTY-FIFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

The opening meeting of the Convention was held in the Lecture Room of the Chemical Building of the University of Toronto, April 7th, 1896.

HON. DR. ROSS, Minister of Education, and DR. JAMES LOUDON, President of the University of Toronto, delivered addresses of welcome.

ALFRED BAKER, M.A., President of the Association, replied, and in concluding his remarks said: "I have pleasure in reading a cablegram which has just been placed in my hands. Just at this moment the teachers of England are meeting at Brighton, and they have cabled to us: 'The National Union of Teachers sends fraternal greetings and good wishes'—signed by the Secretary."

PROF. PIKE then threw upon the screen diagrams showing the location of the various rooms in the Chemical Building for the guidance of the audience who visited the various departments, and afterwards the Biological Building, under the leadership of Prof. Ramsay Wright.

WEDNESDAY EVENING, APRIL 8TH, 1896.

The evening session was held in the Public Hall of the Education Department, PRESIDENT BAKER in the Chair.

REV. CHANCELLOR BURWASH read the 28th chapter of Job and led in prayer.

Roll of Officers was called, and the Minutes of last meeting, having been printed, were taken as read, on motion of MR. W. J. HENDRY, seconded by MR. R. H. COWLEY.

SECRETARY DOAN read a communication from Dr. Bourinot, stating that, on account of Parliament being in session, he could not be present to read his paper. A communication was read from the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales inviting delegates to their meeting.

MR. HENDRY read his report as Treasurer, and moved its adoption and reference to an Auditing Committee to be named by the President.

THE PRESIDENT named as the Auditing Committee, Messrs. S. B. Sinclair, A. McIntosh and W. Atkin.

THE PRESIDENT then read his address.

The Association was addressed by MR. J. L. HUGHES, on the subject of "The Influence of Kindergarten Methods on Higher Education."

On motion of REV. CHANCELLOR BURWASH, seconded by MR. ARCHIBALD MACMURCHY, a vote of thanks was tendered to Prof. Baker and Mr. Hughes for the addresses delivered.

CHANCELLOR BURWASH moved, seconded by MR. F. F. MANLEY, that the constitution be amended to read: "Four Directors from the College and High School Department to be appointed by and from the Councillors of that Department." Carried.

MR. HUGHES moved, seconded by MR. MACMURCHY, that the Executive of this Association be requested to consider the question as to whether the constitution will admit of the organization of a Physical Culture Department, and, if not, to consider the desirability of so amending the constitution as to admit of the organization of said Department, in concurrence with the valued suggestion of the President. Carried.

MR. R. H. COWLEY gave notice that he would move on to-morrow evening to reconsider the motion amending the constitution passed at this meeting.

MR. F. F. MANLEY moved, seconded by INSPECTOR KNIGHT, that the hearty thanks of the Association be tendered to the University authorities and to Profs. Pike and Wright and their staff in connection with the reception held in the University Buildings yesterday evening, and that a copy of the resolution be forwarded to the authorities and to those gentlemen. Carried.

MR. GEO. A. AYLESWORTH gave notice that on to-morrow evening he will move so to amend the constitution that to nominate the President, Secretary, Treasurer and the Auditors shall be the duty of the Board of Directors.

In answer to the objection of a delegate, the PRESIDENT ruled that Mr. Aylesworth's notice was in order, and that the word "meeting" in the constitution should be interpreted as referring to the daily sessions of the annual convention.

MR. MCALLISTER moved, seconded by MR. STRANG, that the Executive appoint a sub-committee to revise the constitution. Carried.

MR. JOHN R. BROWN, of Madoc, moved, seconded by MR. N. M. CAMPBELL, of St. Thomas, that Mr. John Dearness, Public School Inspector of East Middlesex, be President of this Association for the ensuing year.

MR. ANDERSON, of Arthur, moved in amendment that Mr. Allan Embury, Inspector for Peel, be President.

THE PRESIDENT appointed Messrs. Manley, Munro and Smith as Scrutineers, and the election proceeded.

MR. R. W. DOAN was re-elected as Secretary by acclamation.

MR. W. J. HENDRY was re-elected as Treasurer by acclamation.

The Scrutineers reported the election of Mr. Dearness as President.

THE PRESIDENT then declared the session closed at 10.30 p.m.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9TH, 1896.

This session was held in the Public Hall of the Education Department, PRESIDENT BAKER in the Chair.

MR. A. MCINTOSH read the Auditors' Report, and moved its adoption, seconded by the SECRETARY. Carried.

DR. PARKIN then addressed the Association on the subject of "Canadian Schools and Their Relation to National Sentiment and National Character."

DR. WILLIAM KINGSFORD then addressed the Association on the subject of "Some Considerations on the Advantages We May Hope to Derive from Education."

REV. CHANCELLOR BURWASH, seconded by MR. THOMAS KIRKLAND moved that the thanks of the Association be tendered to Dr. Kingsford and Dr. Parkin for their presence at the meeting and for the addresses delivered. Carried.

DR. KINGSFORD replied briefly on behalf of himself and of Dr. Parkin, who had been obliged to leave the meeting owing to another engagement.

MR. R. W. DOAN moved, seconded by MR. W. H. FRASER, that the next meeting be held in Toronto. Carried.

MR. AYLESWORTH then introduced the motion of which notice had been given at the meeting of the previous evening.

On motion of MR. W. H. FRASER, seconded by MR. J. J. CRAIG, Mr. Aylesworth's motion was referred for consideration to the committee to be appointed by the Board to report on the revision of the constitution.

MR. J. C. BROWN expressed the opinion that the publication of the proceedings of these meetings should be expedited, so that the volume could be issued in three or four weeks from the close of the Convention.

MR. W. H. FRASER, as one of the Editorial Committee, testified to the zeal of the Secretary in pushing the publication, but with such a large number of persons with whom dealings must be had, who hold manuscripts, reports or proofs, and who cause numberless delays, he considered that the proceedings were issued with great promptitude.

MR. W. F. CHAPMAN asked the Vice-President to take the Chair while he moved a vote of thanks to the President for the manly, able, dignified and courteous manner in which he had presided over the meetings during the year. The motion was carried.

THE PRESIDENT replied that the office had been one of the most pleasant he had ever occupied in his life. On the part of everyone with whom he had come in contact there had been a desire to facilitate any business that he had in hand, and committees had heartily co-operated in the despatch of the business. He had enjoyed the work, and was exceedingly obliged for the vote of thanks.

The thanks of the Association were also tendered to the Press for publishing full and accurate reports of the proceedings, and to Dr. Ross, Minister of Education, for the use of the Education Buildings.

The session closed by singing the National Anthem.

MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 8TH, 1896.

The annual meeting of the Department was held as above in Mr. Scott's lecture room of the Toronto Normal School, at 10 a.m.

The President, DR. BURWASH, took the Chair.

The Minutes of the last annual meeting were read and confirmed.

In accordance with notice duly given, MR. WILBUR GRANT moved, seconded by MR. J. A. WISMER, that Article 2 of the Constitution be amended to read as follows :—

"All persons engaged in teaching in any of the Universities, Colleges or High Schools of Ontario, who have registered and paid their fees to the Ontario Educational Association for the current year, and such other persons as may be elected by this Department on the recommendation of its Executive, may become members of this Department." Carried.

That Article 3 shall read as follows: "The officers of this Department shall consist of a President, a Vice-President and a Secretary, who, with a representative from each of the Associations forming an integral part of this Department, shall be the Executive of the Department." Carried.

That Article 4 read as follows: "The Representatives on the Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association from this Department shall be the President and the Secretary, *ex officio*, and four other members, to be elected annually by ballot by this Department."

It was moved in amendment by MR. HARSTONE, and seconded by MR. STRANG, that the words after the word "annually" be struck out, and the following inserted in lieu thereof, "from and by the Executive of the College and High School Department."

The amendment was carried.

The President and Secretary were appointed a Committee to bring these amendments before the General Association, in order that its Constitution might be amended accordingly.

The PRESIDENT then read his address on "The Work and Wants of the Provincial University."

After some discussion as to the best means of bringing the views of the President prominently before the country, Messrs. Strang and Embree were requested to consider and prepare a resolution on the subject, and submit it to the meeting to-morrow.

It was moved by MR. GRANT, and seconded by MR. FLETCHER, "That whereas the Commercial Section of this Department has unanimously approved of the principle that Bookkeeping and Commercial Transactions should be obligatory on all First Form pupils for one year.

"Be it resolved, That this Department concur in this action and recommend to the Minister of Education that the regulations relating to the subjects of the First Form be amended on these lines, and that a copy of this resolution be forwarded to the Minister." Carried.

It was moved by MR. SQUAIR, and seconded by MR. COWLEY, "That in view of the fact that an agitation seems to exist to modify the conditions for entrance into the High Schools of the Province, this Department appoint a Committee to take the matter into consideration and to report as promptly as possible, said Committee to consist of Dr. Burwash, Professor Hutton, Messrs. Strang, Steele, Henderson, Ellis, MacMurchy, Carscadden, Embree, Merchant and the mover." Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

TORONTO, APRIL 9TH, 1896.

The Department resumed at 10 a.m., the President, DR. BURWASH in the Chair, and about 150 members present.

The CHAIRMAN read a letter from Professor Dale, of Queen's College, Kingston, regretting his inability to be present, and requesting permission to withdraw his paper.

MR. SQUAIR presented the report of the Committee on High School Entrance :—

"That Professor Squair, Messrs. MacMurchy, Merchant and Dr. Burwash be a committee to prepare a presentation on the subject of High School Entrance, the same to be printed and circulated; and that the Executive be hereby instructed to bring the matter before the Minister of Education, and to give attention to any movement or legislation affecting the question."

The report was adopted.

On behalf of the Committee on the President's Address, MR. STRANG reported :—

"That the Executive be requested to prepare a system of newspaper communications during the coming summer on the wants of the Provincial University."

The report was adopted.

The Department then elected the following officers for the ensuing year :—

President ..... H. I. Strang, M.A.
Vice-President ..... W. H. Fraser, M.A.
Secretary. ..... Fred. F. Manley, M.A.

It was moved by MR. STEVENSON, seconded by MR. ELLIS, that this Department disapproves of the recent regulations of the Education Department in giving to the Public School Inspector the sole authority to enquire into complaints from the decisions of the Board of Entrance Examiners, and recommends that all such appeals should be laid before the Board of Entrance Examiners. Carried.

It was moved by MR. A. W. WRIGHT, and seconded by MR. W. W. TAMBLYN, that the Executive suggests to the Minister of Education, that when circulars affecting High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are issued by the Department, a sufficient number be sent to each school to supply each member of the staff with a copy. Carried.

MR. LEVAN then read his address on the "Ontario School of Pedagogy."

The subject was continued by Messrs. Robertson, Strang, Ellis, Manley and Burt.

Mr. Laing, the inventor of "The Planetarium," then exhibited it to the members.

The meeting then adjourned.

A meeting of the Executive was held at 4.30 p.m., April 9th, 1896.

Present—The President, the Secretary, Messrs. Crawford, DeLury, Squair, Robertson.

It was moved by MR. MANLEY, seconded by MR. DELURY, that Messrs. Fraser, Robertson, Hill and Wismer be the representatives of the Department on the Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association. Carried.

The meeting adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

Tenth Meeting.

TUESDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1896.

The Association met in its Tenth Annual Convention, at 10 o'clock a.m., on Tuesday, 7th April, 1896, in the Normal School Building, Toronto, MR. D. R. KEYS, President, in the Chair.

On motion, MR. J. H. CAMERON was appointed to act as Press Reporter.

THE PRESIDENT then delivered his inaugural address on the subject of "Our Debt as Teachers to Matthew Arnold."

MR. MAURICE QUENEAU, Toronto, then read a paper in French, on "Octave Feuillet."

Adjournment.

TUESDAY, APRIL 7TH, 2 P.M.

The Association assembled at 2 p.m., when MR. T. A. BROUGH, Owen Sound, read a paper on "Shakespeare's Kings."

Papers were then read by MRS. B. KIRKMAN, Seaforth; MISS M. E. T. ADDISON, Stratford, and MISS H. CHARLES, Goderich, on "Examination Tests in French and German." Discussion followed by Messrs. Shaw, Van der Smissen, Hogarth, Fraser, Squair, Ferguson and Radcliffe.

On motion of MR. J. SQUAIR, seconded by MR. W. H. FRASER, the subject of examination tests in French was re-committed to Mrs. Kirkman, Miss Addison and Miss Charles, with the request that they embody their views as to such tests in examination papers suitable for the Primary and Junior Leaving Examination, to be presented at the next annual meeting.

On motion, Messrs. T. A. Brough and S. J. Radcliffe were appointed Auditors.

MISS ELLA GARDINER, Belleville, then read a paper on "The German Lyric since Goethe."

Adjournment.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8TH, 2 P.M.

The Association assembled at 2 p.m., when MR. W. S. MCLAY, Toronto, read a paper on "Ibsen." Discussion followed by Messrs. Squair, Fraser and Lane.

On motion of MR. F. H. SYKES, seconded by MR. W. J. ALEXANDER, it was resolved, That this Association views with favor the possible

opportunity of having a meeting of the Modern Language Association of America in Canada, and asks the Executive Committee of this Association to consider the question of inviting, in co-operation with the Minister of Education and the University of Toronto, the M. L. A. A. to meet in Toronto during the Christmas vacation, 1897, and to take such action in the matter as seems to the Executive desirable.

On behalf of MR. F. J. A. Davidson, Stanford University, who was absent, MR. W. H. FRASER then read a paper on "Fixed Forms of French Verse." Discussion followed by Messrs. Squair, Cameron and Chase.

The Auditors reported that the books and financial statement of the Treasurer had been examined by them, and found correct and satisfactory in every respect.

On a motion of MR. J. SQUAIR, seconded by MR. G. A. CHASE, the Auditors were thanked for their services.

The following officers were elected for the year 1896-97:—

President.....Mr. A. W. Wright.
Vice-President .....Mr. F. H. Sykes.
Sec.-Treasurer .....Mr. W. H. Fraser.
Councillors: Mr. D. R. Keys, Mr. J. Squair, Mr. Geo. E. Shaw, Mr. A. W. Burt, Mrs. B. Kirkman, Miss E. Balmer, Mr. W. S. McLay, Mr. S. J. Radcliffe.

On motion of MR. J. SQUAIR, seconded by MR. J. C. ROGERS, the Secretary was appointed to represent the Association on any body in which the Association may require to be represented.

Adjournment.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9TH, 2 P.M.

The Association assembled at 2 p.m., when a paper was read by MR. W. PAKENHAM, Brockville, on "Keats—his Growth and Promise."

Papers were then read by MR. M. F. LIBBY, Toronto; MR. A. STEVENSON, Arthur, and MR. W. A. PHILLIPS, Listowel, on "The Teaching of English Composition." Discussion followed by Messrs. Chase, Fraser, Tamblyn and Embree.

On motion of MR. J. N. DALES, seconded by MR. S. J. RADCLIFFE, it was resolved, That, in view of the fact that Mr. W. H. Fraser has been appointed Vice-President of the College and High School Department, Mr. J. Squair represent this Association on the Executive of that Department, in order that the Association may have its due representation.

The Association then adjourned, to meet at the call of the Chair.

MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

The Association met in Mr. McIntosh's room, Model School, at 2 p.m., Tuesday, April 7, 1896. PRESIDENT TURNER occupied the chair. About forty-five people were present.

The Minutes of last meeting were read, and, after a small addition, were approved.

Upon motion of Messrs. HILL and LENNOX, Mr. G. W. Morden was appointed Press Reporter for this year's sessions.

The President, MR. J. B. TURNER, B.A., of Hamilton, then delivered his address. He dealt with several general points in a very practical manner. No education is complete which aims only at mind-training. Deductive reasoning has been cultivated at the expense of inductive reasoning. Courses of study should be arranged for the needs of the many, *i.e.*, for the Public Schools. The rest of the system should be modified by these needs. In Public Schools, some inductive study, such as Botany, should be taught, and should have an early place in the Public School programme, before the pupil has become too strongly moulded to the other line of study. Geology and Mineralogy should be introduced, in this country of great mineral wealth.

Dr. Hare, Messrs. Stevenson, Spotton, Hill, Stevens, and Cowley also contributed to the discussion.

MR. T. H. LENNOX, B.A., of Woodstock, then read a paper on Text-books in Science. He pointed out some of the defects in the present text-books, and showed the errors into which pupils are liable to fall by the use of text-books. His valuable paper called forth vigorous discussion, which was participated in by Messrs. Copland, Hamilton, Gundry, McEachren, Cole, Cowley, Merchant, Ellis, and others.

Mr. Lennox also exhibited some apples, which showed a peculiarity of combination of "Greening" and "Tallman-Sweet," in sections.

The second session was held Wednesday, April 8th, at 2 p.m., in the large lecture room of the Biological building. President Turner in the chair.

Mr. Jenkins presented an account of $7.50 of expenses of himself and Mr. Turner in connection with interviewing the Minister, etc. Upon motion, this was ordered to be paid.

The election of officers was then proceeded with. The following were unanimously chosen for 1896-7 :—

Honorary President.... Mr. E. C. Jeffrey, B.A., Toronto.
President.....Mr. W. H. Jenkins, B.A., Owen Sound.
Vice-President.....Mr. J. R. Hamilton, B.A., Brantford.

Secretary-Treasurer.....Mr. E. L. Hill, B.A., Guelph.

Councillors: Messrs. J. M. Cole, Aylmer; J. S. Copland, B.A., Brockville; R. H. Cowley, Ottawa; Jos. Stafford, B.A., Ph.D., Morrisburg; A. Stevenson, B.A., Arthur.

Moved by MR. ELLIS, seconded by DR. HARE, that the papers of Messrs. Lennox, Hamilton, Macmurchy, Jenkins, be printed in the "Proceedings." Carried.

MR. JENKINS then conducted a symposium on "Methods in Science." He pointed out very clearly the causes and circumstances by which methods are affected. The able manner in which he conducted the symposium called forth discussion and expression of opinion in such a manner as to be very helpful to those engaged in Science teaching.

Messrs. Lennox, Merchant, Ellis, and Copland made valuable contributions to the symposium.

MR. E. C. JEFFREY, B.A., the newly elected Honorary President, gave a lecture on "The Anatomy of Plant Stems," which was largely the result of original research. The lecture was illustrated by a large series of beautiful photo-micrographs, prepared for the purpose. Mr. Jeffrey was accorded the thanks of the Association for his admirable lecture.

The third session was held in Mr. McIntosh's room, Model School, on Thursday afternoon, April 9th, at 2 o'clock, Mr. Hamilton, Vice-President, in the chair.

MR. N. MACMURCHY, of Elora, read a concise and valuable paper on "Nature Study in the Public Schools."

After discussion, it was resolved that the President, Vice-President and the writer be a committee to look into the subject, and offer recommendations to this Association at its next meeting.

MR. J. R. HAMILTON, B.A., of Brantford, then gave a paper on "Botany During the Winter Months." A profitable discussion then followed, in which many valuable points were brought out.

Upon motion, MR. W. H. STEVENS, B.A., of Lindsay, was requested to read his paper on "Simple Apparatus" next year.

MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION.

The Association met Tuesday a.m., April 7, 1896, with MR. J. E. WETHERELL, Vice-President, in the Chair. In the absence of Mr. Milner, MR. J. C. ROBERTSON was appointed to act as Secretary; MR. O. J. JOLLIFFE was made Press Reporter, after which the meeting adjourned.

In the afternoon MR. R. J. BONNER read a paper describing his method of teaching Latin prose. After discussion, the President, MR. J. HENDERSON, took the Chair. A paper by DR. H. L. WILSON, on the Latin poet, Statius, was then read. The Association decided to try to secure for the meeting of 1897 the presence of some eminent classical scholar, if possible, Principal Peterson, of McGill University.

A long discussion on the effect of the new regulations on the teaching of Classics, on the suitability of the Primary Latin Book and the Beginner's Greek Book, and on the Roman pronunciation of Latin, was followed by adjournment.

On Wednesday p.m., April 8, the following were elected as the officers of the Association for 1896-7 :—

President.....J. E. Wetherell.
Vice-President.....L. C. Smith.
Secretary-Treasurer.....J. C. Robertson.

Councillors: Dr. Bell, Prof. Hutton, Prof. MacNaughton, Miss Fitzgerald, Messrs. O. J. Jolliffe, S. F. Passmore, R. J. Bonner, and M. M. Fenwick.

PROF. MACNAUGHTON, of Queen's University, read the first half of a paper on "The Greek Tragedy"; MR. L. C. SMITH read a poem in blank verse, entitled "A Day with Homer"; MR. C. S. KERR read a paper on "The Women of Homer"; and MR. D. E. GLASSEY one on "The Similes of Homer."

After a discussion on the printing of the papers read before the Association, the meeting adjourned.

On Thursday p.m., April 9, MR. H. J. CRAWFORD read a paper on "Homer's Heroes in Shakespeare," MR. J. N. BELL one on "Odysseus," and PROF. MACNAUGHTON read the second part of his paper, describing the production of "Antigone" in the theatre at Athens.

With the appointment of MR. H. J. CRAWFORD as the representative of the Association on the Committee of the College and High School Department, the annual meeting came to a close.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL ASSOCIATION.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, APRIL 7, 1896.

The Association met at 2 p.m. in the Model School, about fifty members being present.

At the request of the President, MR. R. A. THOMPSON, MR. F. F. MANLEY, Vice-President, took the Chair.

In the absence of the Honorary President, the PRESIDENT read a paper on "Number," a short criticism of "The Psychology of Number," by Messrs. McLellan and Dewey.

A discussion on the paper followed, in which Messrs. Martin, Toronto; Glashan, Birchard and Dr. McLellan took part.

THE PRESIDENT then took the Chair, and called on the Honorary President, PROFESSOR DUPUIS, for his address. The subject was "The Relation of Elementary Algebra to Elementary Geometry."

Messrs. Taylor, Baker, Birchard, Robertson, McMurchy, Glashan discussed the paper.

This concluded the session.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8.

The Association met again at 2 p.m., the Vice-President, MR. MANLEY, being in the Chair.

MR. J. D. DICKSON, of Niagara Falls, read a paper on "The Teaching of Mathematics under the New Curriculum."

In the paper it was pointed out that the subject of Arithmetic was in a very unsatisfactory condition; that primary teachers would be very poorly prepared in it, and would be unable to teach it well.

MR. HARSTONE thought the weak point was that the public school teachers are weak in Arithmetic, and candidates at entrance examinations are very poorly prepared in that subject.

MR. DELURY regretted the almost practical abolition of Grammar and Arithmetic, and contended that public school teachers should be well grounded in these.

PROF. MCKAY agreed with MR. DELURY; and on motion of MR. DELURY, seconded by PROF. MCKAY, a Committee was appointed to prepare a resolution recommending the Minister of Education to demand an extra paper in Arithmetic from candidates for teachers' certificates. Carried.

Messrs. McKay and DeLury were named as Committee.

INSPECTOR W. H. BALLARD then read a very thoughtful paper on "Hints on Teaching Arithmetic." He strongly advised definite teaching of the meaning of *unit* and *measure*; and gave many examples to illustrate.

MR. W. TAYLOR discussed the paper.

MR. A. T. DELURY then gave an address on "Some Nineteenth Century Mathematicians." The speaker explained the rise of the theory of functions, the theory of substitutions and other modern advances. Interesting personal remarks were made in regard to the leading mathematicians, including the late Dr. Young and Mr. Glashan of our own Province.

On concluding, MR. J. C. HARSTON moved, and MR. R. A. GRAY seconded, a vote of thanks to the lecturer. This was unanimously agreed to.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9.

The Association met at 2 p.m., THE PRESIDENT in the Chair.

MR. J. C. GLASHAN gave a very interesting paper on "Some Curiosities of Ancient Arithmetic." He explained the Greek and Chinese methods of computation, and gave practical illustrations. Many other odd arithmetical phenomena were also presented to the meeting.

THE PRESIDENT then asked PRESIDENT LOUDON, who was present, to say a few words. President Loudon expressed his pleasure at being at the Association, and remarked that in teaching Elementary Dynamics he followed some of the methods referred to by Mr. Glashan. He tried to make Formula clearer by geometrical representation.

MR. C. A. CHANT then addressed the meeting on "The Electromagnetic Theory of Light." The use of the theory was very briefly referred to, and then a general outline of the mathematical analysis was given.

The report of the Committee appointed to deal with the question of Arithmetic was presented by MR. DELURY.

It was moved by MR. R. A. GRAY, seconded by MR. W. TAYLOR, that it is the firm conviction of this Association that the practical removal of Arithmetic from the course of study for Junior Leaving certificates can hardly fail to operate harmfully on the Public Schools, and thus affect our whole system; that a Committee, consisting of Messrs. Manley, Birchard, McKay and Thompson, be appointed to interview the Honorable the Minister of Education, and to urge upon him the advisability of making an examination in Arithmetic com-

pulsory for Junior Leaving certificates; and that the members of this Association employ whatever means may be in their power to arouse public opinion on this question. Carried.

The election of officers for 1896-7 resulted as follows:—

Hon. President....J. C. Glashan, Esq., Ottawa.
President.....F. F. Manley, M.A., Toronto.
Vice-President....W. H. Ballard, M.A., Hamilton.
Secretary-Treas....I. J. Birchard, Ph.D., Toronto.

Executive Committee: J. Davison, B.A., Guelph; R. A. Gray, B.A., London; J. C. Harstone, M.A., Lindsay; W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B., St. Catharines; J. T. Crawford, B.A., Hamilton.

Representative to the College and High School Department: A. T. DeLury, B.A.

After a few inspiring farewell remarks by Dr. McLellan, the meeting adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8, 1896.

The Chair was taken by W. J. ROBERTSON, B.A., LL.B., the President, there being about thirty present.

The Minutes of last annual meeting were read and confirmed.

THE PRESIDENT read his inaugural address on "The Monroe Doctrine," which appears in the Proceedings. A discussion followed, in which Professor Wrong and Mr. Sinclair took part.

Then followed an address on "Luther and the German Reformation," from REV. HERBERT SYMONDS, of Ashburnham. Professor Clark and others entered into a discussion of this paper.

Adjournment.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9.

The Association resumed at 2 p.m. on Thursday, THE PRESIDENT in the Chair.

The Association elected the following officers for the ensuing year:—

President.....William Houston, M.A., Director of Teachers' Institutes, Toronto.
Vice-President.....Peter McEachern, B.A., Toronto.
Secretary.....Miss Nellie Spence, B.A., Toronto.

Councillors: Mrs. Holden, Hamilton; Miss Scott, Toronto; Miss Janet Carnochan, Niagara; Professor Ferguson, of Queen's, Kingston; Professor Clark, of Trinity, Toronto; Professor Wrong, of Toronto, Toronto.

Representative on Executive of College and High School Department: W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B., St. Catharines.

MISS CARNOCHAN read an interesting paper, published in the Proceedings, on "The Early Schools of Niagara." Miss Carnochan's paper closed with an excellent plea for the study of History.

PROFESSOR WRONG'S address on "The Discoveries of the Cabots" dealt chiefly with the authenticity of the alleged landing place of Cabot. Professor Wrong gave many and strong reasons for doubting the correctness of the locations recently assigned.

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATION.

TORONTO, WEDNESDAY, APRIL 7, 1896.

The Association met at 11 a.m. in Mr. Murray's room.

The Chair was taken by the President, J. A. WISMER, M.A., and the second Annual Meeting of the Commercial Association opened with a good attendance of Commercial and other teachers.

The Minutes of the last Annual Meeting were read and approved.

The President then appointed MR. A. G. HENDERSON as Press Reporter, and MESSRS. W. GRANT and W. H. FLETCHER as Auditors for the present Session.

THE PRESIDENT delivered his inaugural address, "The Place of Commercial Work and Drawing in a High School Course." Messrs. Evans, Grant, McKay, Longman, and Fletcher discussed the points brought out by the address, after which a vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Wismer.

The Auditors' Report of 1895-96 was then read by MR. GRANT:

"To the President and members of the Commercial Association.

"Your Auditors beg to report that they have examined the book and vouchers of the Secretary-Treasurer, and find them correct. We find the balance on hand at this date to be one and $^{99}/_{100}$ dollars.

"All of which is respectfully submitted.

"WILBUR GRANT,
"W. H. FLETCHER, } *Auditors.*

"TORONTO, April 7, 1896."

THE SECRETARY read the following report from the Executive of the Association, in which it was recommended that the suggestions *re* the Departmental Regulations should be discussed by the Association, and that steps be taken to place the opinions of members thereon before the Minister of Education:

1. That the Book-keeping and Commercial Transactions of Form I should be placed among the obligatory subjects.

2. That Writing and Book-keeping, Commercial Transactions, and Stenography be substituted for Physics, English Grammar and Rhetoric, and Geometry, in the list of subjects comprising the Second Form Examination—this to constitute the Commercial Examination.

3. That Section 10, Sub-Section 6, Circular No. 4 A., of the Departmental Regulations, be amended by adding Book-keeping, Commercial Transactions, and Stenography, as bonus subjects, to the subjects already mentioned therein.

4. That candidates, holding a Primary Certificate, be allowed to complete the Commercial Examination by writing on the purely Commercial subjects only.

5. That candidates at the Book-keeping Examinations be supplied with foolscap free from the red marginal line; that no candidate be allowed to bring paper, ruled for journal or ledger, with him into the room; and that credit be given for the ruling in connection with the writing.

The report was read clause by clause, and heartily concurred in by the members of the Association.

Moved by MR. GRANT, and seconded by MR. EVANS, that article No. 8 of the Constitution be amended to read as follows: "The fee for membership of this Association shall be twenty-five cents, exclusive of the General Association membership fee." Carried.

The Session was then adjourned to meet at 2 p.m.

TUESDAY, P.M., APRIL 7, 1896.

The Association re-assembled at 2 p.m., the PRESIDENT in the Chair.

MR. G. W. JOHNSON, of Upper Canada College, gave an address on "Shorthand as a Mental Discipline."

After some discussion, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Johnson.

MR. W. DOUGLAS, Barrister, then gave an address on "Penmanship."

This paper evoked considerable discussion, particularly with reference to the vertical system of writing.

Moved by MR. ELDON, and seconded by MR. EVANS, that the President name a Committee to report on vertical writing. Messrs. Dickinson, Morgan, Fletcher and Eldon were appointed to act on this Committee.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Douglas.

MR. W. GRANT read a paper on "Book-keeping."

Several points relative to methods in Book-keeping were discussed by members of the Association, after which Mr. Grant was accorded the thanks of the assembled teachers.

The meeting was then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, A.M., APRIL 8, 1896.

The Association opened at 10.30, the officers and members having been detained at a meeting of the College and High Schools Association.

The Minutes of the previous day were read and adopted.

MR. DICKINSON then presented the report of the Committee on Vertical Writing :—

"*Whereas*, many schools have already introduced this system of penmanship, and

"*Whereas*, the Education Department has authorized a series of text-books on the vertical system of penmanship, a step which will lead to a somewhat general adoption of this system by the pupils of our schools, and

"*Whereas*, the finger movement is most objectionable in any system of penmanship, and that this movement is almost universally used in teaching vertical writing, and becomes a fixed habit among students who practise it from the beginning, thereby unfitting them for business penmanship ;

"Be it therefore resolved, and this section of the Ontario Educational Association hereby expresses its belief, that the great cause of failure in connection with the oblique system of penmanship, namely, the lack of attention to *muscular* movement, will be an equally great cause of failure in connection with the vertical system, and that the use of the finger movement in the teaching of any system of writing should be discountenanced."

Moved by MR. EVANS, and seconded by MR. GRANT, that the report be adopted. Carried.

MR. W. H. FLETCHER then read an interesting and instructive paper on "Drawing-Illustrations," and was tendered the thanks of the meeting.

The following officers were elected by acclamation, for the ensuing year:—

President.....W. H. Fletcher, Kingston.
Vice-President.....W. E. Evans, Galt.
Sec.-Treasurer.....Wilbur Grant, Toronto.

Councillors: Miss C. J. McCutcheon, Strathroy; Miss K. McLellan, Goderich; A. J. Dickinson, London; A. G. Henderson, Whitby; J. D. Conklin, Ottawa; S. Huff, Meaford.

Moved by MR. SCOTT, and seconded by MR. DICKINSON, that the retiring President be the representative of the Commercial Association to the College and High Schools Association. Carried.

Moved by MR. GRANT, and seconded by MR. HUFF, that the representative to the College and High Schools Association, be an ex-officio member of the Executive of the Commercial Association. Carried.

A hearty vote of thanks was then accorded to the retiring officers.

The Association then adjourned until the next Annual Meeting.

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 7TH, 1896.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 9.15 a.m., in the Gymnasium of the Normal School.

MR. D. YOUNG, of Guelph, the President of the Department, occupied the chair.

MR. W. E. SMITH, Toronto, opened the proceedings with Scripture reading and prayer.

The Minutes of the last meeting, having appeared in the printed Proceedings, were, on motion, confirmed without reading.

MR. W. L. MACKENZIE, Toronto, was appointed Minute Secretary; and MESSRS. T. PORTER, Toronto, and A. WEIDENHAMMER, Waterloo, were appointed Press Reporters.

MR. W. H. HARLTON, Secretary, presented an account for $6.25 for printing, postage and express. On motion by Mr. W. J. HENDRY, Toronto, seconded by MR. H. WARD, Guelph, the account was ordered to be paid.

COMMUNICATIONS.

(1) From D. W. PARSONS, Delhi, Secretary, Norfolk Teachers' Association, enclosing copies of resolutions to the Minister of Education.

(2) From JNO. R. BROWN, Madoc, outlining resolutions *re* Inspectors' Certificates and the management of High and Public Schools.

(3) From W. F. DARROCH, Harriston, Secretary of North Wellington Teachers' Association, forwarding copies of resolutions to the Minister.

(4) From JAMES H. PACKHAM, Secretary of West Grey Teachers' Association, containing copies of resolutions to the Minister.

(5) From MISS LOTTIE TOBEY, Chatham, Secretary of West Kent Teachers' Association, enclosing copies of resolutions to the Minister.

(6) From J. H. DICK, Fergus, Secretary of South Wellington and City of Guelph Teachers' Association, with copies of resolutions to the Minister.

(7) From W. IRWIN, Flesherton, Secretary of South Grey Teachers' Association, with copies of resolutions to the Minister.

(8) From MISS S. E. DRYSDALE, Secretary of Lanark Teachers' Association, forwarding copies of resolutions to the Minister.

On motion, these communications were referred to a Special Committee on Resolutions to be named by the President, the Committee to contain one representative from each county sending resolutions.

On motion, by MESSRS. MCMILLAN and WEIDENHAMMER, the report of the Committee on Resolutions to the Minister was received and adopted as printed in the Minutes of 1895.

The Treasurer, Mr. J. A. HILL, Toronto, read his report, showing Receipts $32.85, Expenditures $6.25, Balance $26.60. On motion it was received and referred to the Auditors.

MR. D. YOUNG then delivered the President's Address. On motion by MR. A. A. JORDAN, Meaford, seconded by MR. D. W. PARSONS, Delhi, Messrs. E. T. Young, Hamilton, A. McMillan and W. E. Smith, Toronto, were appointed a Committee to confer with the other Departments, with a view to carrying out the suggestions of the President.

MISS A. A. CAREY, Doncaster, read a paper on "Phonics," which was discussed by Messrs. McMillan and Smith, Toronto.

MR. HUGH SIMPSON, Orono, read a paper on "How Teachers may Gain Influence Outside of School in Rural Sections." Messrs. J. W. Henstridge, Portsmouth, A. H. Musgrove, Wingham, S. McAllister and Jno. Campbell, Toronto, took part in the discussion.

MR. H. HUSBAND, Oakville, read a paper on "Grouping Subjects and Grading Certificates," and gave notice of a motion on the lines laid down in his paper. Discussion was deferred.

PROFESSOR BAKER, M.A., President of the Ontario Educational Association, was introduced, and gave a brief address.

Mr. HUGH SIMPSON, Orono, gave notice of the following motion: "That in the opinion of this Department no Teacher's Certificate should be granted to any person until 21 years of age."

The meeting adjourned.

TUESDAY, APRIL 7TH.

The Department resumed its session at 2.00 p.m.

The Minutes of the morning session were read and adopted.

MR. GEO. KIRK, London, read a paper on "Canadian Meteorology."

MR. W. A. SHERWOOD, A.R.C.A., Toronto, read a paper "Color in Nature and its Relation to the Schoolroom." Questions on the subject were asked by Messrs. Grant, Kirk, Hicks, Hill and Hendry, and were satisfactorily answered by Mr. Sherwood.

MISS E. J. PRESTON, Ottawa, read a paper on "The Elements of our Population."

MISS AGNESS DAVIDSON, Crumlin, read a paper on "The Position of Physiology and Temperance on the Public School Curriculum."

The Committee appointed to confer with other Departments reported progress.

The PRESIDENT appointed the Committee on Resolutions as follows: Messrs. McMillan, McAllister, Wilkinson, Ward, Jordan, Parsons, Irwin, Harper and Brown, and Misses Lottie Tobey, Chatham, M. Irving, Chatham, and Jessie Davidson, Elora.

MR. H. WARD, Guelph, presented the Auditors' Report, which was on motion received and adopted, and is as follows:

RECEIPTS.

April 18, 1895—By Balance	$ 9 10	
" Dues	23 75	
		$32 85

DISBURSEMENTS.

April, 7, 1896—To Postage	$ 5 00	
" Printing	1 00	
" Express	25	
		$ 6 25
Balance on hand		$26 60

In pursuance of notice, MR. HUGH SIMPSON moved, seconded by MR. CHAS. KEITH, Bowmanville, that in the opinion of this Department no certificate should be given to any person under 21 years of age. After discussion by Messrs. Campbell, Jordan, McMaster, Parsons, Harlton, Kirk, McAllister and Hill, the motion was carried.

The following notice of motion was given by MR. JORDAN, Meaford: "That in the opinion of this Department it is a matter of regret that the Minister intends to abolish, after 1897, the granting of Non-professional Specialists' Certificates to any but those obtaining the degree of B.A., and would respectfully ask the Minister to allow the existing regulations to stand."

The Department adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8TH, 1896.

The Department met at 9 a.m.

MR. ROBT. MCQUEEN, Kirkwall, opened the session with reading and prayer.

The Minutes of the preceding session were confirmed as read.

In pursuance of notice, MR. JORDAN moved, seconded by MR. WEIDENHAMMER, that in the opinion of this Department it is a matter of regret that the Minister intends to abolish, after 1897, the granting of Non-professional Specialists' Certificates to any but those obtaining the degree of B.A., and would respectfully ask the Minister to allow the existing regulations to stand. Carried.

MR. JNO. R. BROWN, Madoc, read a paper on "The Relation of School Work to the Occupations of the Public."

MR. W. IRWIN, Flesherton, read a paper on "National Patriotism."

MR. ANDREW WEIDENHAMMER, Waterloo, read a paper on "Music in the Public Schools," and gave the following notice of motion: "That in the opinion of this Department the Theory of Music and Sight Singing should form part of the instruction in Public and High Schools; and that in order to secure capable teachers in these, all candidates for the teaching profession be required to pass as thorough an examination in Theory of Music and Sight Singing as in any other subjects on the curriculum.

The following gentlemen then delivered short addresses: Hon. Geo. W. Ross, LL.D., Minister of Education; George R. Parkin, LL.D., Principal of Upper Canada College; James A. McLellan, LL.D., Principal of the School of Pedagogy; James L. Hughes, Public School Inspector; Alexander Muir, B.A., Author of "The Maple Leaf."

The session adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8TH.

The session resumed at 2 p.m.

The Minutes were confirmed as read.

The election of officers was deferred till after the Conference.

MR. MCMILLAN presented the report of the Committee appointed to confer with other Departments, which was received and adopted, and is as follows: "That in future there should be joint sessions on two out of three afternoons."

Pursuant to notice MR. WEIDENHAMMER, seconded by MR. E. T. YOUNG, Hamilton, moved his resolution *re* Music. Messrs. Gray and Hughes, of Toronto; McMaster, East Toronto; and Perney, of Norwood, participated in the discussion. The motion was lost.

The Department entered into joint session with the Inspectors', Trustees', Training and Kindergarten Departments, with Rev. Alex. Jackson, Ph.D., of Galt, in the chair.

"Our Rural Schools—Their Status, How can they be improved?" was the subject of a paper by JOHN BALL DOW, B.A., of Whitby. A discussion followed on "Equipment," by W. E. TILLEY, M.A., of Bowmanville; "Efficiency," by Mr. D. W. PARSONS, of Delhi; and "Transition from Home to School," by MISS AGNES E. MCKENZIE, of London.

MR. A. A. JORDAN, of Meaford, read a paper on "The Relative Rights of Principal, Parent, Trustees, and Inspector." Discussion followed on "Parents and Trustees," by JAMES H. BURRITT, B.A., of Pembroke; while "Principal and Inspector" was discussed by A. B. DAVIDSON, B.A., of Newmarket.

MISS GEORGINA LOVECK, Ottawa, read a paper on "The Importance of Kindergarten Training to the Youth of Canada." Mr. J. H. Putman, Ottawa, discussed the subject in the relation of the Kindergarten to the Child; Mr. W. H. Ballard, M.A., of Hamilton, in relation to the School; and the Chairman, in relation to the Nation.

Mr. W. E. Groves also discussed Mr. Jordan's paper.

The joint session closed, and the Department resumed.

MR. BROWN, Madoc, gave notice of motion *re* sending copies of the Minutes to the Teachers' Institutes.

The election of officers was held, and resulted as follows:—

President.....W. E. Groves, Toronto.
Vice-President.....Miss A. S. Hendrie, Hamilton.
Secretary.....W. H. Harlton, Toronto.
Director.....A. A. Jordan, Meaford.

Executive: A. H. Musgrove, Wingham; E. T. Young, Hamilton; W. Linton, Hamburg.

Treasurer.....George M. Ritchie, Toronto.

Auditors: G. K. Powell, Toronto; S. Y. Taylor, Paris.

The session adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9.

The session opened at 9.00 a.m.

MR. JAMES GRANT, Guelph, conducted devotional exercises.

A communication was read from the Toronto Teachers' Association, conveying a resolution passed unanimously by that body to the effect that British History be eliminated from the Public Schools in classes below the 5th book. Referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

A motion by MR. GROVES to proceed with reports of Committees was lost.

MR. JAS. GRANT, of Guelph, read a paper on "Our Public School Curriculum." Messrs. Ritchie, Musgrove, E. T. Young and others discussed the paper.

MR. J. SUDDABY, of Berlin, read a paper on "Mental Law Underlying Attention."

MR. J. R. BULMER, of Ailsa Craig, read a paper on "What to Expect of Senior Pupils."

MISS JESSIE P. SEMPLE, of Toronto, read a paper on "The Educational Value of Drawing." On motion by MR. GROVES, the Committee on Drawing were allowed to present their report, that it might be discussed with Miss Semple's paper. Mr. Groves read the report of the Committee, and after a discussion by Messrs. Wilkinson, of Brantford, Knowles, of Hespeler, Linton, of Hamburg, Gray and Hicks, of Toronto, a motion was unanimously passed requesting the Minister to withdraw the present series of Public School Drawing Books, and to issue another, in which the practice of *drawing* as opposed to *copying* should prevail, said series to be accompanied by a "Teacher's Manual" of minimum cost.

MR. W. HICKSON, of Bobcaygeon, read a paper on "Offenders and their Punishment."

MR. WM. SMITH, of Peterborough, read a paper on "Progressive Steps in Arithmetic."

Notices of motion were given by MR. MCALLISTER *re* the Educational Council, and by MR. E. T. YOUNG *re* the School of Pedagogy.

Pursuant to notice, MR. HUSBAND moved, seconded by MR. DELGATY, of Centralia, that it would be in the interests of education if the standard for non-professional certificates were raised to 60 per cent. on each subject, and 75 per cent. average; that subjects should be grouped into Mathematics, Science, English, etc.; and that when a candidate passes on any subject or group of subjects, he should not be required to do so again. Lost.

The session then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9.

The session resumed at 2.00 p.m.

The Minutes of the morning session were approved.

Moved by MR. CHAS. KEITH, of Bowmanville, seconded by MR. H. SIMPSON, of Orono, that Messrs. McMillan, Groves and McAllister be a Committee to select such papers as are to be printed in the Minutes and Proceedings. Carried.

On motion by MESSRS. BROWN and JORDAN, it was decided to forward to the Teachers' Institutes, for their approval, amendment or disapproval, copies of all resolutions on legislation passed by this Department, with a request to report their action to the Secretary of this Department, the Minister of Education, and their Representative in the Legislature.

Moved by MR. MUSGRAVE, of Wingham, seconded by MR. SCOTT, of Guelph, that while the recent amendments to the Public Schools Act require the teachers of Continuation Classes to hold First Class Certificates, this Department is pleased to have the assurance of the Minister that the interests of all teachers at present engaged in such work shall be properly safeguarded. Carried.

Moved by MR. MCALLISTER, seconded by MR. HARLTON, that while the Minister did not see fit to preserve in its original form the clause of the Bill for establishing an Educational Council, this Department accepts in good faith his assurance that the public school teachers of the province shall have fair representation on that Council and have greater influence thereby. Carried.

Messrs. Groves, Harlton, McAllister, McMillan and Brown were appointed a Committee to present the resolutions of this Department to the Minister.

On motion by MESSRS. E. T. YOUNG and WEIDENHAMMER, a resolution was passed expressing regret that the Education Department, in passing the regulation allowing graduates of the School of Pedagogy second class certificates without actual experience in public school

teaching, has not only opened another channel for the inexperienced to enter the profession, but has also expressed an opinion depreciating the value of actual experience in public school work.

MR. MCMILLAN presented the report of the Committee on Resolutions, which was received, and considered clause by clause; and, after some slight amendments, was adopted. The adopted report, together with the Minister's reply to each clause, when presented by the Committee on Legislation, is as follows:—

I. (*Re Entrance Boards and Entrance Examination.*)

(1) That Entrance Districts should coincide with Inspectoral Districts, with one Board of Examiners for each District.

The Minister, while offering no objection to the proposed change, regarded it as inexpedient to make any change in the newly consolidated law for a year or two.

(2) That the Board of Examiners for the Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations should consist of the Public School Inspector, a Representative from the High School or Schools, appointed by the Minister of Education, and Public or Separate School Teachers, as the case may be, actually engaged as teachers in the Public or Separate Schools, the appointment of these to rest with the Teachers' Associations.

The Minister's reply was the same as to clause 1.

(3) That the teacher's report of the pupil's work for the term be considered by the Board of Examiners.

The Minister expressed approval.

(4) That Reading be not simultaneous with other subjects, and that due precautions for secrecy as to the matter to be read be taken.

The Minister strongly aproved, and gave the Committee to understand that he would have it carried out.

(5) That Canadian History be continued for the Entrance Examination, with a brief outline of British History, as follows:—

I. The Origin of the English Nation.

II. Feudalism.

III. Constitutional Development, including (a) Magna Charta, (b) Institution of Parliaments, (c) Struggles between the Kings and Parliament, (d) Final Supremacy of the People.

IV. The Naval, Commercial and Colonial Supremacy of England.

V. The Development of the Literature.

The Minister did not commit himself to any opinion on the changes proposed, but implied that it was a difficult matter to deal with.

(6) That no literary selections be placed on the Public School Leaving Course not found on the Primary Course, and that pupils who have passed the Public School Leaving Examination be credited with having done the First Form work in the High School.

The Minister expressed approval, and explained that in future the Public School Leaving Course would be identical with the First Form Course of the High Schools.

(7) That "The Forsaken Merman" should be discontinued from the memorization selections for the Entrance.

The Minister did not disapprove of the recommendation.

II. (*Professional Examinations.*)

(1) That Model School Certificates be interim for one year, and renewable for two years upon passing a further professional examination.

The Minister approved of the principle of the recommendation.

(2) That no candidate be admitted to the Normal School who has not been trained at a County Model School, and who has not taught one year.

The Minister said it was being carried out in practice.

(3) That graduates of the School of Pedagogy who have not been trained at a Model or Normal School, should not be permitted to teach in the Public Schools.

The Minister expressed approval.

(4) That the standards for Entrance, Public School Leaving, Primary and Junior Leaving Examinations continue to be $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. on each subject, and 50 per cent. of the aggregate.

The Minister considered that the Curriculum having been extended, the aggregate would be dispensed with.

(5) That the non-professional qualification for Inspectors remain as at present; but that the professional qualifications consist of an experience of at least ten years' teaching, five of which shall have been spent in a Public School, so as cover the teaching of all the grades of Public School work.

The Minister appeared to favor present arrangements.

(6) That no Teacher's Certificate be granted to any person who has not reached the age of 21 years.

The Minister did not concur in this recommendation.

III. (*General.*)

(1) That the Ontario Government furnish each school with copies of such reports as may be deemed valuable for educational purposes.

The Minister thought the suggestion a good one, but indicated that the expense involved might present a difficulty in carrying it out.

(2) That the Honorable the Minister of Education consider the advisability of withdrawing the present series of Public School Drawing Books, and the preparation of a new series which shall consist largely of blank pages, with suggestions as to what figures are to be drawn, together with a few pages of illustrations in each book, all of which to be of the highest type of execution, as models for the pupils to see, not to copy; that a "Teacher's Manual," to accompany the series before mentioned, be also prepared, such Manual to contain a large number of examples with illustrations as to how to teach, and full explanations of the drawings contained in the Manual, keeping constantly in mind the fact that many teachers had entered upon the practice of their profession before the present proficiency in drawing was exacted; that in the preparation of the new series, the fact that the present series makes too great a demand upon the time of teacher and pupil be kept in view.

The Minister did not seem to think there was any immediate prospect of these recommendations being carried out.

On motion, the thanks of the Department were tendered to the retiring officers, the Minute Secretary and Press Reporters, and to all who had prepared and read papers for the Department, and a grant of nine dollars was made to the Secretary.

The meeting closed with the National Anthem.

MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 7TH.

Meeting opened at 9.30, MISS BOLTON in the chair.

After reading of Minutes and roll of members was called, MRS. HUGHES read a communication from Mr. Blake, Editor of *Kindergarten News* of Springfield, offering to speak upon the International Kindergarten Union. It was decided to ask him to speak on Wednesday morning.

President's address was an explanation of the purpose of Syllabi, upon Truthfulness and Discipline. In connection reports were read from London, Ottawa, Hamilton and Toronto. A committee was appointed, composed of Miss Russell, Toronto, Miss Laidlaw, London, Miss Loveck, Ottawa, to condense the several reports.

Mrs. Wylie was the bearer of greetings from Buffalo Kindergartners, who extended an earnest invitation to Ontario Kindergartners, to meet in Buffalo at the National Education Association.

The Ontario Kindergartners sent back greeting and thanks to their American sisters, with the assurance that all who were able would be there.

The Trustees' Department asked that three delegates from Kindergarten Department meet three from each of other Departments, with the object of bringing each into closer relation with the other. The following ladies were sent: Miss Mackenzie, London; Miss Currie, Toronto; Mrs. Shepherd, Guelph.

Mrs. Hughes invited the Kindergartners to meet at her house, on Thursday afternoon; meeting adjourned at 12, to meet in Training Department in afternoon.

Wednesday, April 8th.

Report of Committee on Arrangement of Future Programmes, in connection with other Departments.

It was moved and seconded, that during two afternoons of the session, the Public School, Inspectors', Training and Kindergarten Departments unite in a common meeting to discuss subjects of interest to all.

After hearing Committee's report, it was unanimously decided to agree to it.

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

President ..... Miss Bolton, Ottawa.
Director ..... Miss Macintyre, Toronto.
Secretary ..... Miss F. Bowditch, Hamilton.

Mr. Blake then spoke on benefit to be derived from joining the International Kindergarten Union. The subject was discussed, Mrs. Wylie of Buffalo and Mr. Jas. L. Hughes of Toronto, speaking in favor of it. A vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Blake.

An hour was then spent in games and songs.

Meeting adjourned at 12.30, to meet in Public Hall at 2 p.m.

Thursday, April 9th.

Miss L. P. Mackenzie, of Brantford, read a paper on Children's Rights, which was discussed; and then followed a discussion on the practical songs and games held on Wednesday.

MRS. ADA W. HUGHES then gave an interesting talk upon Color Work, followed by brief addresses from Hon. G. W. Ross, Mr. McCabe of Ottawa, and Mr. Chown of Kingston, on the benefit of Kindergarten to the children.

MRS. SHEPHERD, Guelph, opened a discussion upon Limitation of Assistants' Certificates. It was moved by MRS. ROSE CAMERON, seconded by MRS. ELLA SHEPHERD, that our Association recommend the limit of Assistants' Certificate be three years, as in a third class certificate. The motion was carried, and a committee, consisting of Mrs. Hughes, Mrs. Shepherd and Mrs. Cameron, was appointed to see the Minister of Education on the subject.

Moved by MRS. HUGHES, seconded by MRS. SHEPHERD, that this Association do join the I. K. U. Carried.

It was decided that Mrs. Hughes represent the Ontario Kindergartners at St. Louis.

MISS TEMPLE gave an instructive paper on Clay-Modelling Development through the thumb.

Meeting adjourned at 12.30.

THURSDAY.

The condensed report on Truthfulness was brought in too late to be read before the Association, and that on Discipline was left over until next year. It was decided to print report on Truthfulness with the Minutes.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1896.

The Training Department met in Principal Kirkland's room at 9.30 a.m., with Principal MacCabe in the chair.

The Committee on the "Adjustment of Public and High School Subjects" not being in a position to report, and explanation being given as to the futility of any report at the present time, was discharged.

Moved by MR. ELLIOTT, and seconded by MR. KIRKLAND, that in order that those taking active part in the programme of next year may have ample time wherein to prepare their papers, a Committee be appointed for the purpose of selecting such subjects as will prove of interest to this Department, and that these subjects be apportioned either by this Committee or by the incoming Chairman and Director, among such members as are deemed suitable to prepare papers on the same. Carried.

Moved by MR. RANNIE, seconded by MR. SCOTT, that the Committee consist of Messrs MacCabe, Kirkland and Elliott.

On explanation of Mr. Scott the report of the Committee on Educational Values of Subjects was deferred.

The following report on a special course for Model School Masters was read by PRINCIPAL KIRKLAND:

The Committee appointed to report on a "Course of Reading in Psychology and the Science of Education suitable for Model School Masters," beg to report—

I. That such a Course should include

(1) Logic, (2) Pure Psychology, (3) Ethics, (4) The History, Theory and Art of Education.

II. That the Course might be so divided as to be taken in three years, as follows:

1st Year.

a. Logic .....Jevons or Fowler. Reference, Minto, Davis.

b. Psychology ....(1) McLellan,
(2) Kirkpatrick's Inductive Psychology,
(3) Ladd's Primer of Psychology,
(4) McLellan's Psychology of Number.
For Reference, Wundt, "Human and Animal Psychology."

c. History of Education.....Quick's Educational Reformers.

d. Pedagogics.....(1) Payne, J., Lectures on the Science and Art of Education.
(2) Spencer, Education.

2nd Year.

a. Psychology.....(1) Tracy, Child Study.
(2) Perez, First Three Years of Childhood.
(3) Sully, The Human Mind.
(4) Dewey's Psychology.
(5) James, Psychology—Chapters on Attention, Habit, and Memory.

b. Ethics.....*a.* Theory (1) James Seth.
(2) Hislop, Elements of Ethics.
(3) Green, Book II., Prolegomena of Ethics.
b. History. Sedgwick, Outlines.
Watson. Hedonistic Theories.

c. History of Education ..... (1) Compayre, History of Education.
(2) Laurie, Comenius.

d. Pedagogics.... (1) Rosenkranz, Philosophy of Education.
(2) Payne, W. H., Contributions to the Science of Education.
(3) Bain, Education as a Science.

3rd Year.

a. Ethics..... .... (*a*) Social (1) Mill's Utilitarianism.
(2) Spencer's Data of Ethics.
(3) D. Y. Ritchie's Essays.
(4) Green's Essays on Political Obligation.
(5) J. G. Hume, Value of Ethics, Socialism.
Reference (*b*) Theoretical. Green, Prolegomena.
Sedgwick, Methods.

b. Introduction to Philosophy .. (1) Descartes, Meditations and Methods.
(2) Spinoza by Caird.
(3) Leibnitz by Dewey.
(4) Morris on Kant.
(5) Watson on Comte, Mill and Spencer.

c. Pedagogics and History of Education ..... (1) Mahaffy, Old Greek Education.
(2) Grote's History of Greece, the time of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle.
(3) Thring, Theory of Teaching.
(4) Froebel, Education on Man.
(5) Compayre, Lectures on Pedagogy.
(6) Lange, Apperception.

III. The Specialist Certificates, at present issued by the Education Department, are only indirectly qualifications for certain educational positions; your Committee, therefore, beg to recommend that a new Specialist Certificate be issued, having for its basis the foregoing Course, and only those holding this certificate shall be eligible for appointment as County Inspectors, Model School Inspectors, or for the position of Principal or Vice-Principal of a Normal School.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

THOMAS KIRKLAND,
Chairman.

After discussion, it was moved by MR. SCOTT and seconded by MR. CONNOLY, that the principle of the report be affirmed. Carried.

The report was then read clause by clause.

Moved by MR. KIRKLAND, and seconded by MR. LOUGH, that Clause I. be adopted. Carried.

Moved by MR. WILKINSON, and seconded by MR. CONNOLLY, that Psychology of 1st year be as read, with the exception of "Psychology of Number." Carried.

On motion, the "Psychology of Number" was placed among the Pedagogics. The other clauses were adopted as read, with one exception, viz., that Green and Sedgwick on Ethics be omitted from 4th year.

The meeting adjourned at 11.30 a.m.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8TH, 1896.

The Training Department met in Principal Kirkland's room, with Principal MacCabe in the Chair.

The meeting was called to order at 9.15 a.m.

The Minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

It was moved by MR. SCOTT, seconded by MR. ALEXANDER, that the Committee relating to "The Educational Values of Subjects" be discharged and the following substituted, to report at the meeting in 1896:—Principals MacCabe, Kirkland, McLellan, and Messrs. Glashan, Hughes, Ballard, Alexander, Elliott, Rowe, Lennox, Houston, Sinclair, Murray, McIntosh, Tilly and Scott. Carried.

It was moved by MR. KIRKLAND, and seconded by MR. LOUGH, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. Barber and Suddaby be appointed for the purpose of laying before the Minister of Education the report of the Committee on a Specialist Course in Psychology, Ethics and Pedagogics. Carried.

It was moved by MR. SCOTT, seconded by MR. SINCLAIR, that the papers of Mr. Hughes and Dr. Tracy, read before the Child Study section, be published in the Proceedings. Carried.

It was moved by the SECRETARY, and seconded by MR. BRICK, that Messrs. Perney and Allen be appointed to report the proceedings of the present Convention to the daily papers. Carried.

It was moved by MR. BARBER, seconded by MR. SUDDABY, that election of officers be held to-morrow, Thursday.

It was moved in amendment by MR. SINCLAIR, and seconded by MR. MURRAY, that the election of officers be proceeded with at 11.45 to-day. The amendment was carried.

A paper on "Practical Teaching in Training Schools" was then read by MR. MCINTOSH, of the Provincial Model School.

After discussion of the paper, it was moved by MR. CONNOLLY, and seconded by MR. SCOTT, that the Executive Committee of the Association be requested to have the paper incorporated in the Proceedings of this Convention. Carried.

The report of the Committee on Model School Work was then read by the Secretary.

On motion of MR. SINCLAIR, the report was received, discussion of its contents being deferred.

Extract from Report.

That the Subjects of the Curriculum be—

1. The Science of Education, including (*a*) Psychology, (*b*) Logic, (*c*) Ethics.

2. The Art of Education, including (*a*) Methodology, (*b*) School Organization and School Law, (*c*) School Management, (*d*) Practice in Teaching.

3. History of Education.

4. Physiology and Hygiene.

5. Elocution.

6. Orthoepy and the uses of words and phrases.

7. Such review of subjects of non-professional course as is found necessary.

The Books recommended by Committee :—

Psychology.....	1. Kirkpatrick's Inductive Psychology.
	2. McLellan's Applied Psychology.
Logic.....	Jevons.
School Organization and Management..	1. White.
	2. (Reference) Baldwin.
History of Education.....	Quick (in part).
Physiology and Hygiene.....	1. Public School Physiology and Temperance.
	2. (Reference) Huxley's Physiology.
Orthoepy and Study of words and phrases.....	1. Ayer's Orthoepist.
	2. Ayer's Verbalist.

It was moved by MR. SCOTT, and seconded by MR. ELLIOTT, that in case time does not permit of Mr. Sinclair's paper on "Fatigue" being read at the meeting, and in view of the fact that members of the Department will have an opportunity of hearing it at the Child Study Section, the Printing Committee be requested to publish the paper in the Proceedings. Carried.

On motion, the meeting adjourned at 10.45 a.m., in order that the members of the Training Department might have an opportunity of hearing Inspector Seath's paper on "Reading," to be given before the Inspectors' Department.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9TH.

The Training Department met in Principal Kirkland's room at 9 a.m., with Principal MacCabe in the chair.

It was moved by MR. KIRKLAND, and seconded by MR. SCOTT, that the Secretary prepare a report of the proceedings for the daily papers. Carried.

The election of officers was then proceeded with, the result being as follows:—

Chairman.....W. H. Elliott, B.A., Hamilton.
Secretary.....W. Wilson, Esq., Toronto Junction.
Director.....W. Scott, B.A., Toronto.

The following resolution was then moved by MR. A. A. JORDAN, seconded by MR. WARK, and carried:—

"That this Department learns with regret that it is the intention of the Minister of Education to abolish, after 1897, the granting of Non-Professional Specialists' certificates to any but those obtaining the degree of B.A., and respectfully ask the Minister to allow the existing regulations to stand, and that a copy of this resolution be forwarded to the Minister."

Owing to previous arrangement, a joint meeting of the Inspectors' and the Training Departments was now held, with Inspector Summerby as chairman.

The question of the "Proposed Changes in the Professional Training of Teachers" was introduced by MR. J. RANNIE, of Newmarket, and ably discussed by many of the members. As a result, the following resolution was moved by INSPECTOR THOM, and carried:—"In the opinion of the Training and Inspectors' Department, the Regulations of the Education Department making the standard for passing the Model School Examination uniform, was, under the circumstances, con-

sidered a change in the right direction; but the result is, that the supply of 3rd class Teachers is becoming too great in the wealthier and more populous counties; therefore, it is resolved, that in future the following percentages be required: (*a*) for Provincial 3rd Class Certificates each candidate be required to take 40 per cent. on each paper, 50 per cent. on the practical teaching, and 60 per cent. on the total.

(*b*) That County Certificates may be granted to each candidate taking between $33\frac{1}{3}$ and 40 per cent. on each subject, 50 per cent. on practical teaching, and between 50 and 60 per cent. on the total, as the County Board considers expedient.

A Committee, consisting of the Chairman and Secretaries of the two Departments, was appointed to lay the resolution before the Minister of Education.

"The Composition of the Board of Entrance Examiners" was then introduced by Inspector Craig, of S. Wellington.

After discussion, it was moved by MR. RANNIE and carried, "that the appointed members of the Entrance Examination Board should be teachers holding not lower than 2nd class certificates, and engaged in teaching Fourth or Fifth Book Classes."

A paper on the "Teacher and his Work" was then read by W. J. MILLS, B.A., of North Bay.

The meeting adjourned at 12.15.

MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1896.

The Inspectors' Department was called to order at 10.15 a.m., in the Library, by the President, MR. W. J. SUMMERBY. INSPECTOR DEACON was asked to open with prayer.

The Minutes as printed were adopted.

THE SECRETARY read a communication from Inspector Morgan stating that an arbitration would prevent his being present on the first day. Inspectors Michell and Clendening agreed to take their subjects out of their order to allow Inspector Morgan to take his subject the second day.

On motion of MR. MICHELL, MR. DEACON was appointed Press Reporter.

The Secretary having stated that his predecessor reported that he had no minute book, on motion of MR. PLATT, the Secretary was authorized to purchase a minute book.

MESSRS. MICHELL and TILLEY referred briefly to blank school forms.

On motion of MR. MOSES, seconded by MR. DEACON, Messrs Michell, Tom and Robb were appointed a Committee on Resolutions.

MR. T. A. CRAIG was then introduced, and read a paper on "Improvements in our Public School System." Messrs. Dr. Tilley, G. D. Platt, C. A. Barnes, Dr. Kelly, J. H. Knight, J. S. Deacon, C. Moses, and W. Mackintosh discussed the paper, after which Mr. Craig made a few closing remarks.

MR. MICHELL was then introduced, and addressed the Department on "The Necessity for Increased Inspection of Model Schools by Public School Inspectors."

After some discussion of the subject by Mr. Deacon, Dr. Kelly and Mr. G. D. Platt, MR. D. FOTHERINGHAM introduced a deputation from the Public School Teachers' Department.

MR. A. MCMILLAN, on behalf of the deputation, spoke with reference to a closer union between the Public School Inspectors', Public School Teachers', Training and Kindergarten Departments. He suggested the formation of a joint committee from the Departments named. After Messrs. Knight, Mackintosh, J. Coyle Brown, Tom, and Mr. Young, Public School Teacher, Hamilton, had spoken favorably of the proposal, MR. FOTHERINGHAM moved, seconded by MR. MICHELL, that the Chairman appoint a committee of three to consult with similar committees from the other Departments to accomplish the purpose sought. Carried.

THE CHAIRMAN named Messrs. W. Mackintosh, C. A. Barnes and A. Wherry as the committee.

MR. MOSES, seconded by MR. J. COYLE BROWN, moved that the Provincial Model School Inspector be requested to notify the Public School Inspector of the date of his visit to the County Model School.

After discussion by Messrs. Platt, Knight, Tom, Moses and Michell, MR. A. BROWN moved, seconded by MR. KNIGHT, that the resolution moved by Mr. Moses lie on the table until Mr. J. J. Tilley, Model School Inspector, has an opportunity to give his views *re* the resolution.

After further discussion by Messrs. Mackintosh, Wherry and McBrien, Mr. Brown's resolution was carried.

MR. PLATT moved, seconded by MR. MICHELL, that Messrs. Dr. Tilley, John Johnston and McBrien be a committee to draft a suitable resolution *re* the death of Inspector Scarlett. Carried.

Meeting then adjourned until 2 p.m.

At the afternoon session MR. CLENDENING introduced the subject "What Should Constitute an Inspector's Visit to a School?"

He was followed by MR. G. D. PLATT on "Some of the Duties of a Public School Inspector."

A profitable discussion of both papers was then participated in by Messrs. Mackintosh, Knight, Tom, Robb, N. W. Campbell, Dearness and Dr. Tilley.

MR. JOHN SEATH, Inspector of High Schools, was then introduced and read a paper on "How to Improve Reading in the Public Schools."

After a full discussion by Messrs. Dr. Tilley, Platt, Dearness, Wherry, McBrien, Dr. Kelly and Knight, a vote of thanks to Mr. Seath for his instructive and interesting paper was passed on motion of Messrs. Mackintosh and McBrien.

MR. SEATH replied, explaining that illness had prevented as thorough a preparation as he had intended.

MR. MACKINTOSH moved the adjournment.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8TH, 1896.

The Convention assembled at 9 a.m.

The Minutes of the first day were read and adopted.

MR. MACKINTOSH presented the following report on behalf of the Committee appointed to confer with the other Departments concerning Public School work:—

"The committee appointed to confer with similar committees appointed by the different sections representing the Public School elements of the Association begs to report that, at a joint meeting of these committees, it was unanimously resolved to recommend that the afternoons of Wednesday and Thursday during the Annual Convention of the Educational Association be devoted, so far as the Public School Teachers', Kindergarten, Training and Public School Inspectors' Departments are concerned, to union meetings of these Departments."

On motion of MR. MACKINTOSH, the report was adopted.

MR. J. J. TILLEY, Inspector of Model Schools, then addressed the meeting *re* the request that he should notify the Public School Inspectors of his visit to the County Model Schools. He advanced some half-dozen good reasons against complying with the request.

After discussion by Messrs. A. Brown, Knight, Platt and Dearness, MR. C. MOSES, with the consent of Mr. J. Coyle Brown, asked permission to withdraw his resolution, which was granted.

MR. MCBRIEN then moved, seconded by MR. REAZIN, that a vote of thanks be tendered to Mr. J. J. Tilley for his clear and satisfactory explanation. Carried.

MR. REAZIN then read his paper on "A Lesson from the Model School Examinations."

After discussion by Messrs. Tom, Mackintosh, McBrien, Day, Brebner and Alexander, MR. DEARNESS moved, seconded by MR. REAZIN, that, in the opinion of this Department, the regulations governing the Model School Examinations in 1893 and previous years should be restored. Carried.

MR. A. BROWN then gave an address on "An Inspector's Catechism."

Messrs. Deacon, Mackintosh, Michell, Dearness, N. W. Campbell, McBrien, Dr. Tilley, Knight and Colles spoke briefly on the thorough work that would follow the observance of such a catechism as Mr. Brown outlined.

The next order of business was the election of officers, which resulted as follows:—

President ..... Mr. J. S. Deacon.
Secretary ..... Mr. W. F. Chapman.
Director ..... Mr. C. Moses.

The report of the committee *re* the death of Inspector Scarlett was then received, and is as follows:—

Resolved,—That this Department of the Ontario Educational Association hereby records its sorrow on account of the sudden death of Edward Scarlett, late Inspector of Schools for the County of Northumberland—a position which he filled with so much credit to himself and acceptance to the people of that county for nearly half a century—and desires to convey to his sons and daughters the assurance of our deep sympathy with them in their sad bereavement. Our prayer is that the grace which sustained the father in his hours of sore bereavement after the death of his beloved wife, their mother, may bring consolation and hope to the children in this their time of sorrow.

(Signed) W. E. TILLEY,
JOHN JOHNSTON.
JAMES MCBRIEN.

Messrs. J. Coyle Brown, Mackintosh, McKee, and Dr. Tilley bore testimony to the worth and nobility of character of the late Mr. Scarlett.

Moved by DR. TILLEY, seconded by MR. KNIGHT, that the report be adopted, and a copy sent to the eldest member of the family of the deceased. Carried.

Mr. O'Dell, successor to the late Mr. Scarlett, and Mr. Prendergast, the newly-appointed Inspector of Separate Schools, were then introduced by Dr. Tilley and Mr. Chapman respectively, and briefly responded.

On motion of MR. MICHELL, the committee to consider blank school forms, appointed at the last meeting, was re-appointed; said committee consists of Messrs. Dr. Tilley, Summerby, Mackintosh, Dearness and Carlyle.

The meeting then adjourned till 2 p.m.

At 2 p.m., a joint meeting of Public School Teachers', Trustees', Kindergarten, and Inspectors' Departments was held in the Gymnasium.

On motion of MR. YOUNG, Chairman of the Public School Teachers' Department, Dr. Jackson, Chairman of the Trustees' Department, was appointed Chairman.

He immediately called on MR. JOHN BALL DOW, B.A., to introduce the subject "Our Rural Schools—Their Status—How Can They Be Improved?"

The subject was discussed by:—

DR. TILLEY, on "Equipment."

MR. PARSONS, on "Efficiency."

MISS MCKENZIE, on "Transition from Home to School."

The next subject, "The Relative Rights of Parents, Principal, Inspector and Trustees in the Classification and Management of the School," was then introduced by MR. JORDAN.

The subject was discussed by Mr. Burrows, who considered the Rights of Parents and Trustees; Mr. Davidson, of Principal and Inspector; and Mr. Groves, of Principal.

MISS GEORGINA LOVICK then read a paper on "The Importance to the Youth of Canada of Kindergarten Training."

The subject was discussed by:—

MR. PUTNAM, on its importance to the Child.

INSPECTOR BALLARD, on its importance to the School.

DR. JACKSON, on its importance to the Nation.

The joint meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 9TH, 1896.

A union meeting of Training and Public School Inspectors' Departments was held in Mr. Kirkland's room.

On motion of DR. MCCABE, INSPECTOR SUMMERBY took the Chair.

MR. RANNIE introduced the first subject, "Proposed Changes in the Professional Training of Teachers."

After discussion by Inspectors Knight, Reazin and Alexander, MR. TOM moved, seconded by Mr. MICHELL, that

"In the opinion of the Training and Inspectors' Departments, the Regulations of the Education Department making the standard for passing the Model School Examination uniform was, under the circumstances, considered a change in the right direction, but the result is that the supply of Third Class Teachers is becoming too great in the wealthier and more populous counties; therefore, it is resolved that in future the following percentages be required:—

"(*a*) For Professional Third Class Certificates, each candidate be required to take forty per cent. on each paper, fifty per cent. on the practical teaching, and sixty per cent. on the total.

"(*b*) That County Certificates may be granted to each candidate taking between thirty-three and one-third per cent. and forty per cent. on each subject, fifty per cent. on the practical teaching, and between fifty per cent. and sixty per cent. on the total, as the County Board considers expedient." Carried.

On motion of MR. MACKINTOSH, the Chairmen and Secretaries of the two Departments were appointed a committee to lay the resolution before the Minister of Education.

MR. J. J. CRAIG then briefly introduced the subject "The Appointed Members of the Examining Board for the High School Entrance Examination should be Public School Teachers engaged in either Fourth or Fifth Form work."

After discussion by Messrs. A. Brown, Rannie, N. W. Campbell, Tom and Mackintosh, it was moved by MR. RANNIE, seconded by MR. TOM, that the appointed members of the Entrance Examining Board should be teachers holding not lower than Second Class Certificates engaged in Fourth or Fifth Book Classes. Carried.

MR. MILL then read his paper on "The Teacher and His Work."

DR. ROSS, being present, was requested to address the meeting, which he did to the profit and delight of all, referring chiefly to recent legislation.

The meeting then adjourned.

The Inspectors' Department re-assembled at 2 p.m.

Minutes were taken as read.

Moved by MR. MICHELL, seconded by MR. DEACON, that this Department requests the Minister of Education to authorize a suitable spelling book (including the leading prefixes, affixes and roots of our language) for use in the Public Schools. Carried.

MR. D. MCCAIG read a paper on "Persistent Truancy."

The subject was discussed by Messrs. Chapman, J. J. Craig, Brebner, Dearness, Reazin, Knight, Michell and Fotheringham.

Moved by MR. DEACON, seconded by MR. TOM, that a committee consisting of Messrs. Fotheringham, J. J. Craig and Brebner be appointed to consider needed reforms in the Truancy Act. Carried.

Moved by INSPECTOR CAMPBELL, seconded by MR. MICHELL, that this Department learns with regret that it is the intention of the Minister of Education to abolish the granting of Non-Professional Specialists' Certificates after 1897 to any but those obtaining the degree of B.A., and we would respectfully ask the Minister to allow the existing Regulations to stand, and that the Secretary forward a copy of this resolution at once to the Minister of Education. Carried.

Moved by MR. MORGAN, seconded by MR. REAZIN, that Mr. J. Coyle Brown be given ten minutes to discuss "Reading, and How to Teach It." Carried.

After Mr. Brown had spoken ten minutes, REV. MR. COLLES was introduced, and discussed the subject, "Conditions on which Orders for Legislative Grants should be Issued to Rural School Sections, Election of Two Trustees Annually in Rural Sections, and Other Points in Our School Law."

After Messrs. Reazin and A. Brown had briefly discussed some points in Rev. Mr. Colles' paper, MR. FOTHERINGHAM presented the following report of the Committee *re* Truancy:

Moved by D. FOTHERINGHAM, seconded by J. BREBNER, that in the judgment of this section of the Ontario Educational Association, the time has come when measures should be taken to insure thorough sanitary inspection of all school premises at frequent intervals, and also the carrying into effect of the Truancy Act; and as the enforcement of these laws by local officers has generally failed, it is our opinion that the duties of sanitary inspector and truancy officer might wisely be combined in one properly qualified person for each inspectorate, said officer to be appointed by the County Council, and to be accountable in sanitary matters to the Provincial Board of Health, and in truancy matters to the County Council or other body able to see that these are also thoroughly done.

Further it is suggested that each municipality should be required to contribute towards the salary of such an officer an amount equal to the average amount now paid to such local offiicers; that the County Council shall pay an amount equal to all paid by the subordinate municipalities; that this officer share in the fines made under his efforts, and shall not be dismissed without the approval of the Provincial Board of Health.

MR. FOTHERINGHAM, seconded by MR. BREBNER, moved the reception and adoption of the report.

MR. MACKINTOSH, seconded by MR. ROBB, moved that the report be referred back to the Committee, to leave out the part referring to truancy. Lost.

The report was adopted.

DR. TILLEY reported on behalf of the Committee on School Forms that the forms are printed for another year, but that there is a good hope that after that the changes suggested last year will be made.

DR. TILLEY moved, seconded by MR. MACKINTOSH, that the Committee on Forms be continued to considered the new regulations.

After further discussion of Rev. Mr. Colles' paper, by Messrs. J. Coyle Brown and Mackintosh, MR. COLLES moved, seconded by MR. REAZIN, that in the opinion of this section, Rural School Boards should be constituted to consist of six trustees instead of three, and that two trustees should be elected annually in each rural section, and that one of the said trustees be chosen from those having children attending the school in his section.

Moved in amendment by MR. J. J. CRAIG, seconded by MR. MACKINTOSH, that Messrs. Colles, Reazin, and Brebner be a Committee to confer with the Public School Trustees' Department *re* Election of Rural School Trustees. Carried.

Moved by MR. J. S. DEACON, seconded by MR. W. F. CHAPMAN, that the Executive Committee of the Ontario Educational Association is hereby requested to publish in the Minutes at least an epitome of all the papers and addresses given before this Department. Carried.

REV. MR. COLLES moved, seconded by MR. J. J. CRAIG, that teachers in rural sections may procure pens, pencils, and paper for their pupils and supply them at net cost, reporting to the trustees at the end of each term, amounts received and expended for the same. Carried.

Moved by REV. MR. COLLES, seconded by MR. BREBNER, that the Committee on Forms consider the advisability of having on the back of the semi-annual report, a certificate, to be signed by trustees and teachers, that certain duties have been performed. Carried.

The adoption of a motion of thanks to the Chairman and Secretary for the able manner in which they have discharged their duties during the past year, moved by DR. TILLEY, and seconded by MR. BREBNER concluded the business, and the Department adjourned on motion of Mr. Wm. Mackintosh.

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

Visitor—The Hon. G. W. Ross, LL.D., etc., Minister of Education, Ontario.

DELEGATES.

Public School Boards—Aurora, J. R. Rutherford, M.D.; *Barrie*, John Rogerson; *Brantford*, Wm. Watt, LL.B., and John A. Leitch; *Galt*, Rev. A. Jackson, M.A., Ph.D.; *Kingston*, J. G. Elliott; *Listowel*, B. F. Brook; *Newmarket*, T. H. Brunton; *Ottawa*, George S. May; *Port Hope*, J. H. Helm; *St. Catharines*, Karl E. Klotz, L.D.S.; *Weston*, Henry J. T. Wardlaw; *Woodstock*, George J. Fraser.

High School and Collegiate Institute Boards—Arthur, John Anderson; *Aurora*, J. R. Rutherford, M.D.; *Barrie*, His Honor (Judge) John A. Ardagh, B.A.; *Berlin*, A. Verner (*Elmira*); *Bowmanville*, Col. F. Cubitt; *Cobourg*, Rev. J. Hay, B.D.; *Collingwood*, John Hogg; *Dunnville*, John Parry and S. W. Brown, L.D.S.; *Guelph*, A. H. Deike; *Kingston*, George Y. Chown, B.A.; *Listowel*, W. E. Dingman, M.D.; *Meaford*, G. Y. Godfrey and J. G. Sing; *Picton*, Edward Malcolm Young; *Tilsonburg*, Rev. M. McGregor, M.A.; *Walkerton*, M. McNamara and A. Shaw, Q.C.; *Weston*, L. R. Lemaire; *Woodstock*, George J. Fraser.

Boards of Education—Caledonia, W. J. Burns, M.D.; *Guelph*, James Cormack; *Hamilton*, J. J. Mason; *Lindsay*, J. R. McNeillie and Col. James Deacon; *Newburgh*, George Anson Aylesworth; *Oshawa*, L. K. Murton, B.A.; *Paris*, John Allan; *Pembroke*, James H. Burritt, B.A.; *Trenton*, S. S. Young and Rev. Wm. Thomas Wilkins, B.A.; *Whitby*, J. E. Farewell, Q.C., LL.B., John Ball Dow. B.A., D. Ormiston, B.A., and Charles F. McGillivray, M.B.

Associate Member—Walter McGibbon, *St. Catharines*.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 8TH, 1896.

The Tenth Annual Convention of the Public and High School Trustees of Ontario began in the Examiners' Room, Education Department, at 9.30 a.m.

After the registration of delegates, the President, REV. A. JACKSON, M.A., PH.D., Galt, began the proceedings of the session by taking the chair, and calling upon the Rev. Dr. Hay, of Cobourg, to begin the convention with prayer.

The Minutes of the Proceedings of this Department in convention in April, 1895, as printed in pamphlets and distributed throughout the Province, were taken as read, and upon motion were confirmed.

The SECRETARY-TREASURER reported as follows:

"The copy of the Minutes of Proceedings of the '1895' Annual Meeting of this Department was made ready for the printers and sent to the Secretary of the Ontario Educational Association before the middle of May, 1895; the printed proof was corrected and returned, July 22nd; the printed pamphlets (850 copies) were received November 25th.

"Early in October a circular was prepared and sent to the members of this Department, asking for suggestions of topics for the Programme of 1896.

"The President, Director and Secretary of this Department met in Toronto, November 22nd, 1895, and drafted the Programme for this meeting. A printed proof of the Programme was corrected and returned to the Secretary of the Ontario Educational Association early in February, 1896.

"In the last days of February and first of March, 1896, copies of the Proceedings, 1895, together with 800 Programmes for 1896—the latter as to date, corrected with a pen—and a circular calling attention to the aims and advantages of this Association, were sent to the Chairmen, and also to the Secretaries of all the Boards of Education, Collegiate Institute Boards, and High School Boards, and of the Public School Boards in all the cities and towns, and in many of the incorporated villages of Ontario. Also, copies were sent to all the members of this Department in 1895. And, about the middle of March, to the editors of 125 newspapers published in Ontario.

"The bills payable and accounts of this Department are all settled, leaving a balance of $18.30 in the treasury.

"GEORGE ANSON AYLESWORTH,
"*Sec.-Treas. Trustees' Department, O.E.A.*
"NEWBURGH, April 1st, 1896."

On motion of MESSRS. GODFREY and SING, the report of the Secretary-Treasurer was received and referred to the Auditors.

MESSRS. BURRITT, Pembroke, and CHOWN, Kingston, were appointed Auditors.

MR. J. G. ELLIOTT, Kingston, was appointed to prepare for the press reports of the proceedings of this Department.

THE REV. DR. JACKSON then delivered the President's Address.

At the conclusion of his address, on motion of Messrs Farewell (Whitby), Allan (Paris), and Col. Deacon (Lindsay), the cordial thanks of this Association were tendered to the President for his address, and it was resolved that the said address be printed in the Minutes of these proceedings.

After the Secretary had stated some incidents that occurred at the meeting of the Executive Board of the General Association held November, 1895, it was moved by MR. L. K. MURTON, B.A. (Oshawa), and DR. MCGILLIVRAY (Whitby), "That with a view to preserving a record of the facts, a Special Committee, consisting of Messrs. Farewell Burritt, Dow, Cc Deacon, and the Secretary, be appointed to report the terms of the understanding arrived at with the Committee of the General Association (O.E.A.), as to the conditions of affiliation; and also to report generally as to the best means of obtaining the printing of matter desired to be used or distributed by this Department." Carried.

It being noon, the session ended.

JOINT MEETING.

In the afternoon of Wednesday, April 8th, there was held a joint meeting of the Inspectors', Trustees', Public School, and Kindergarten Departments. About four hundred people were present.

REV. ALEXANDER JACKSON, M.A., Ph.D., Galt, Chairman of the Trustees' Department, presided.

MR. JOHN BALL DOW, B.A., Whitby, of the Trustees' Department, read a paper on "Our Rural Schools; Their Status; How They May be Improved."

MR. W. E. TILLEY, M.A., Ph.D., Bowmanville, Public School Inspector, spoke of the "Equipment of Rural Schools." He objected particularly to the "wretched closets" usually found at such schools. A parent would be justified in keeping a child home from school altogether, rather than send to a school where such conditions prevailed. Another common evil of rural schools is poor foundations and poor

floors, entailing, during the greater part of the school year, the miseries of chronic cold feet upon the pupils, especially detrimental to the health of the girls. He regarded basement heating apparatus as essential. Another thing frequently noticeable was the lack of beauty in and about country school-houses. A good dictionary and an encyclopædia ought to be kept in every public school. He suggested that, as in the High Schools, a part of the public grant should be distributed according to equipment, instead of all upon a basis of attendance.

Mr. D. W. Parsons, Delhi, spoke briefly of the "Efficiency of Rural Schools." He stated that only about two per cent. of Public School pupils ever try the High School Entrance Examination. As "there is nothing *too* good for our Canadian boys and girls," he thought there ought to be a higher grade of work in all our Public Schools. "What is needed is some sort of fanning-mill to sift the grain of *real*-teachers from the bushels of *chaff*-teachers. There ought to be raised higher obstacles to the entrance of the profession of teaching."

Miss Agnes McKenzie, London, in speaking of the "Transition from Home to School," declared that as to both equipment and teachers, "the best is the cheapest in the long run."

The next subject, "The Relative Rights of Parents, Principal, Inspector and Trustees in the Classification and Management of the School," was introduced by Mr. Jordan, of Meaford, acting upon short notice as substitute for Mr. E. H. Carpenter, of Windsor. Mr. Jordan had had small time for preparation. He thought it would be well to allow principals of Public Schools to be members, without vote, of the Educational Committees of School Boards. He would have the teacher and the parents discuss together, after school hours, troubles that might arise about pupils' misconduct, the School Board itself to be the last resort —a sort of Privy Council.

Mr. James H. Burritt, B.A., Pembroke, of the Trustees' Department, before reading a paper he had prepared, said he could scarcely agree with Mr. Jordan's plan of settling cases of pupils' misconduct. Every School Board should have a Standing Committee on Discipline. That Committee should hear the teacher first, and in private. If not able then to settle the trouble, they should next hear the parents and perhaps the pupil. In the majority of cases the Committee could settle the whole difficulty without even reporting to the whole Board. Mr. Burritt then read his paper on "Parent and Trustee."

Mr. A. B. Davidson, B.A., Newmarket, dealt next with the subject "Principal and Inspector." He said the inspector visits the school, first, to report to the trustees the condition of the school;

second, to aid and encourage the teacher and the pupils. It is the part of the teacher to help the inspector to discover all about the school, and to take advice. The inspector ought not to hurry, but to be thorough and sure. The character of the inspection largely determines the subsequent work of the teacher.

MR. W. E. GROVES, Toronto, next spoke of "Classification and Management." He said the teacher, being an educational expert, should do all the classification and promotion. Parents interfere sometimes from sympathy; they think their child will be "discouraged" if not promoted, but the child will be much worse discouraged if put on too fast; sometimes parents interfere from vanity—they want their child to keep up with a neighbor's child.

The next subject, "The Importance of Kindergarten Training to the Youth of Canada," was introduced by MISS GEORGINA LOVICK, Ottawa. She said that "Education is to know—use—govern every power." It is acquired by practice, *i.e.*, self-activity. The old East Indian proverb says "By struggle and by labor we gain answer of prayer." The aim should be to give the child something to do. It is in symbols that the savage begins to worship, to instruct, and to write; the child's mind is like that of the savage. The kindergarten draws out and leads on the child's powers through symbols. "How we teach is of much more importance than what we teach." "Only through work can man conquer himself." Californian statistics show that among 14,000 people that had received kindergarten schooling only one became a criminal. "In influence and power over the child love is infinitely greater than anger."

At 4 p.m. the Trustees' Department resumed separate session in the Examiners' Room.

MR. J. E. FAREWELL, LL.B., etc., in the Chair.

Topic 1 was taken up—"Reduction of the Number of Subjects on the Curriculum of the Public School and of the High School."

It was held that the results of this Association's action in 1894 sufficed for the present as far as High Schools are concerned.

The Association proceeded to discuss the curriculum of the Public Schools, the debate gradually widening in its scope till it embraced also the subject of the Fifth Form in Public Schools. COL. CUBITT, of Bowmanville, thought there must be at least two teachers in any Public School where the Fifth Form was taught. MR. LEMAIRE, Weston, said that where there were four teachers it was yet difficult. MR. ORMISTON, Whitby, said that by a judicious arrangement of the time-table

and a proper grouping of subjects the Fifth Form work can be taught even in rural Public Schools having but one teacher. MR. JOHN A. LEITCH, Brantford, said that the education imparted in our Public Schools must be kept as complete as possible. He thought that our rural Public Schools of thirty years ago were better than those of to-day. MR. GEO. J. FRASER, Woodstock, said "the Public School is the poor man's college." When some of the delegates spoke of the insufficiency of the Public School education which left off at the end of the Fourth Form, MR. J. ANDERSON, Arthur, said "I know a fellow that never got beyond the First Book, and he can add up interest on a mortgage so high that nobody can pay it! He doesn't even omit Sundays." MR. G. Y. GODFREY, Meaford, was of the opinion that no "home-work" ought ever to be given to the pupil before at least the Third Form was reached. Col. Deacon, Lindsay, Mr. McGibbon, St. Catharines, Mr. Werner, Elmira, Dr. Brown, Dunnville, and Major Mason, Hamilton, continued the discussion.

REV. DR. JACKSON entered the room and resumed the Chair.

It was moved by MR. J. E. FAREWELL, Q.C., etc., Whitby, and COL. CUBITT, Bowmanville, "That in the opinion of this Association every Collegiate Institute and High School receiving County grants should be required to teach without charge the subjects of the 'Fifth Form' to pupils residing in the County."

MR. J. BALL DOW, B.A., Whitby, pointed out that this resolution seemed to conflict somewhat with former resolutions adopted by this Association, as touching the teaching of the Fifth Form in Public Schools.

The motion was lost, and the session adjourned.

THURSDAY, 9TH APRIL, 1896.

The Convention resumed at 9.30 a.m., the President in the chair.

MR. JAS. H. BURRITT, B.A., presented the Auditors' report.

"We hereby certify that we have examined the accounts of the Treasurer of the Trustees' Department, O. E. A., and the vouchers submitted therewith, and that we have found the same correct."

(Signed) JAS. H. BURRITT.
GEO. Y. CHOWN.

TORONTO, 8th April, 1896.

On motion of MESSRS. BURRITT and CHOWN, the report of the Auditors was received and adopted.

Moved by MR. BURRITT, seconded by MR. GEO. J. FRASER, and resolved unanimously, "That this Trustees' Association respectfully ask the Hon. the Minister of Education to allow this Department to recom-

mend two names to His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor for appointment as examiners under section 5 of the Act Consolidating and Revising the Laws respecting the Education Department (1896)."

The following were elected officers for 1896-7 :—

President—Jas. H. Burritt, B.A., etc., Pembroke.

First Vice-President—Col. Jas. Deacon, Lindsay.

Second Vice-President—S. W. Brown, L.D.S., Dunnville.

Secretary-Treasurer—Geo. Anson Aylesworth, Newburgh, Addington County.

The following were elected members of the Executive Committee: Messrs. Anderson, Arthur; Elliott, Kingston; Fraser, Woodstock; Klotz, St. Catharines; Leitch, Brantford; Mason, Hamilton; May, Ottawa; McNeillie, Lindsay; and Werner, Elmira.

In addition to the above-named officers and elected members, the Executive Committee includes, *ex officio*, *ex-Presidents*, J. E. Farewell, Q.C., LL.B., etc., Whitby (1887-8); His Honor (Judge) A. Bell, Chatham (1889); Rev. J. Somerville, D.D., Owen Sound (1890); John I. MacCraken, B.A., Ottawa (1891); Rev. G. G. McRobbie, Sc.D., Shelbourne (1892); S. S. Lazier, Q.C., LL.B., etc., Hamilton (1893-4); John Ball Dow, B.A., Whitby (1895); Rev. Alexander Jackson, M.A., Ph.D., Galt (1896).

The custom of electing only five members of the Executive Committee in addition to the ex-Presidents, was by unanimous vote departed from.

Topic 2.—"Truancy, and how to deal with it effectively." The discussion of this subject was begun by MR. ELLIOTT, Kingston. It appeared to be the opinion of the Convention that the Truancy Act is all right, and that it needs only to be properly enforced by the various localities. After a brief discussion it was resolved, on motion of COL. CUBITT and COL. DEACON, that this topic be laid upon the table.

Topic 3.—"Should not Candidates for Admission to High Schools be Required to Produce Certificates of their having Passed Satisfactory Examinations in all the Subjects in the Public School Curriculum, including the Fifth Form?"

COL. DEACON explained that the object aimed at is "to abolish the present H. S. Entrance Examination as soon as may be, and to substitute therefor the P. S. Leaving Examination." Reference having been made to the debate upon the "Fifth Form in Public Schools," which subject was discussed by this Association at its Annual Meeting of 1895, the Minutes of Proceedings of that year (p. 6) were read. On motion of MESSRS. MCGIBBON and BURRITT, the present subject of

discussion was tabled, because all needful assurances in the matter had been given by the Honorable the Minister of Education at last year's convention.

Before the motion "to lay upon the table" was carried, COL. CUBITT, Bowmanville, asked the opinion of the Deputy Minister of Education, Mr Millar, who was present, as to the imposition of fees upon the Primary pupils in High Schools in localities where instruction in Public School "Fifth Form" work is imparted in the High School, and not in the Public School. The Deputy Minister replied, "that the law certainly gives the *right* of imposing fees; but as a matter of fact in many High Schools Primary, or "Fifth Form," pupils are not charged fees. The localities themselves control, and can settle the matter."

Moved by W. J. BURNS, M.D., Caledonia, and J. E. FAREWELL, Q.C., etc., Whitby, that the Legislature be memorialized to make clause 7, section 31, of the new High School Act compulsory instead of permissive. Carried.

Moved by MR. JAS. H. BURRITT and DR. BROWN, that the sum of thirty dollars be paid to the Secretary-Treasurer as a fee for services rendered to this Department. Carried.

MR. JOHN E. FAREWELL, Q.C., etc., submitted the following Report:—

The Special Committee appointed yesterday on the matter of the printing and distribution of the Proceedings of this Department beg to report as follows:—

1st. That by reference to the Minutes of the Association of Public and High School Trustees for the year 1892, it appears that a delegation from the Ontario Educational Association, consisting of Messrs. Sinclair, Hughes and Chapman, addressed the Trustees' Association upon the question of union.

It appears from the records, that a number of pertinent questions were put to the delegation and answered by members thereof.

2nd. The information received by the Committee, as well as the recollection of such of them as were present, establishes that the question of printing and distributing the Minutes of this Department was considered, and that it was pointed out to the delegation that this Department would require the printing and distribution of a large number of the Minutes of this Department for the various township and county municipalities as well as for the Public and High School Boards, and that the Ontario Educational Association delegates were of opinion that the request of this Department in this respect were reasonable and should be complied with.

3rd. By reference to the Minutes of the Trustees' Association for 1892, at page 23, it will be found that one of the reasons given in the report of the Special Committee appointed to consider the question of union with the Ontario Educational Association, was that there would be "a great saving financially" by the grants of the General Association paying for the printing of the Minutes.

That, under these circumstances, it is the opinion of this Department that one of the terms of the union aforesaid was the printing and distributing of the Minutes of this Department in quantities sufficient for its purposes.

Your Committee further report that the Honorable the Minister of Education has intimated that, if necessary, the printing of the Minutes of this Department might be done by the Education Department, but your Committee are of opinion that, if possible, the proceedings should be printed by the Association and distributed without the direct aid of the Education Department.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

JOHN E. FAREWELL, *Convener.*

Toronto, 9th April, 1896.

On motion of MR. FAREWELL and COL. DEACON, the report of the Special Committee on the Terms of the Union, was received and adopted.

Moved by MR. A. H. DEIKE, Guelph, and MR. E. M. YOUNG, Picton, that the Executive Committee report at our next regular meeting upon the advisability of publishing a periodical devoted to educational matters of special interest to trustees and parents; and, if recommended, to suggest how it can best be done.

The motion was lost.

Moved by MR. BURRITT, seconded by MR. G. S. MAY, Ottawa, that this Association memorialize the Honorable the Minister of Education to provide the different School Boards with the Consolidated School Law and School Regulations; and from time to time also to supply any amendments thereto. Carried.

Mr. JNO. E. FAREWELL, Q.C., etc., gave notice that, at the next meeting of this Department, he will move that Article 3 of the Constitution be amended, by providing that County Councils may appoint one representative to this Association from among the rural school trustees of their county.

At the request of a delegate the following question was stated from the Chair, for future consideration by this Department:—"How to obviate the difficulty that would arise by developing '5th Form'

work in our Public Schools, without increasing expenditure there, with no corresponding diminution of work and cost in High Schools?" Coupled with the foregoing was the suggestion, that "If the teachers of Public Schools and of High Schools could co-operate in the teaching of certain classes of pupils, more effectual work could be done without increased cost."

At 12 o'clock noon the Convention rose.

2 O'CLOCK P.M., THURSDAY, 9TH APRIL, 1896.

The Convention of Trustees re-assembled, COL. DEACON in the Chair.

The SECRETARY reported that at a meeting of the Executive Committee of this Department, held immediately after the latest adjournment of this Convention, the Rev. Dr. Alexander Jackson, M.A., etc., was nominated as Director from this Department to the Board of Directors of the "Ontario Educational Association;" also that, pursuant to a resolution adopted at the forenoon session of this Convention, the names of Mr. John Ball Dow, B.A., etc., Whitby, and Mr. James H. Burritt, B.A., etc., Pembroke, were selected to be recommended to the Hon. the Minister of Education for appointment to the Educational Council, under Section 5 of the Act Consolidating and Revising the Laws respecting the Education Department (1896).

On motion of MR. E. M. YOUNG, Picton, and MR. E. Y. GODFREY, Meaford, the report of the Executive Committee was received, and its nominations approved and confirmed.

Moved by MR. E. M. YOUNG and MR. J. G. ELLIOTT, Kingston:—

That whereas in publishing the results of Departmental Examinations only the members of the High School Districts together with the names of the successful pupils are published;

And whereas it is most desirable that sufficient information be published to show the standing of each High School in the Province;

Therefore be it resolved that this Department strongly recommend that in future the names of the High Schools, the names of the successful pupils, the number of pupils sent up for each examination and the average number passed in each examination, Primary, Junior Leaving, and Senior Leaving, be published, showing the schools in which the candidates were prepared. Carried.

Topic 4 (B).—"Methods of Deciding Appeals (of unsuccessful candidates at Departmental Examinations)."

MR. BURRITT presented this subject. He said that appeals are rarely successful. He thought that appellants had a right to be heard in their own behalf, and their answer-papers submitted for re-examina-

tion to third parties. Mr. Warner said that as a rule appeals were dealt with unmercifully.

The President, REV. DR. JACKSON, resumed the Chair.

It was moved by MR. ORMISTON, Whitby, and MR. BURRITT, "That in the opinion of this Association it is advisable that a small committee be named by the Minister of Education to consider the Appeals by examining the papers of the appellants; said committee to consist of men who were not Examiners of the papers that year."

Mr. Chown, Kingston, said it was impossible to regulate examinations so as to suit everyone; he objected to the term "Star-chamber" as applied to the deciders of appeals. Mr. Young asked for instances of injustice. Mr. Burritt and Mr. Warner detailed several instances. Mr. Warner made a strong plea for better methods of dealing with appeals, "for the sake of the children of the poor, to whom an adverse decision was a very serious matter indeed." Mr. J. J. Mason did not think a sufficient case had been made out. Dr. McGillivray rather doubted the existence of such hard instances of injustice.

After some further discussion the motion was voted upon; and declared carried on a division of 17 for to 8 against.

At 3 o'clock p.m., the Convention proceeded to discuss *Topic 5*—"How Best to Teach Patriotism to our Public School Pupils."

MR. J. G. ELLIOTT, Kingston, introduced the subject. He said that every one who was born a British subject, was born to a great responsibility; that the flag-flaunting species of patriotism was mostly spurious; that if we could impart to our pupils a sufficient knowledge of our country there would be no trouble about their patriotism. He thought a good plan would be to give to the pupils biographical accounts of the careers of statesmen, upon stated occasions, such as those statesmen's birthday anniversaries. He complained that the authorized Geographies used in our Public Schools give much greater space and prominence to the United States than to Canada. He quoted the Rev. Principal Grant as declaring that "We have not yet any good History of Canada for boys and girls;"—"something is wanted resembling Scott's 'Tales of a Grandfather.'"

The Hon. Dr. Ross, Minister of Education, entered the Convention, and was invited to a seat beside the President.

The discussion was continued by Col. Deacon, Mr. Burritt, Rev. Mr. Wilkins, Mr. Aylesworth, Judge Ardagh, Mr. Farewell and Mr. Anderson.

By request, the Hon. the Minister of Education closed the debate upon the subject of Patriotism; and he proceeded to explain many of the provisions of Ontario Educational legislation as recently revised

and consolidated. At the conclusion of his address, a number of the delegates interchanged with the Minister informal questions and answers as to various phases and items of the working of our School Laws.

It was moved by His Hon. (Judge) J. A. Ardagh, B.A., etc., and Mr. John A. Leitch, that the thanks of this Convention be tendered to the Hon. the Minister of Education for his address, and for his explanations of the new Education Act. The motion was carried, and the Hon. Dr. Ross responded appropriately; taking occasion to acknowledge that he had received very valuable suggestions from this Association of Trustees, and had been greatly aided by it in the discharge of the duties of his Department.

On motion of Cols. Deacon and Cubitt, the thanks of this Department were tendered to Mr. Jno. Ball Dow, B.A., etc., for the manner in which he discharged the duties of the Presidency in the year 1895.

Mr. Dow expressed his appreciation of the vote of thanks.

Col. Cubitt gave notice that, at the next meeting of this Association, he would move that it is the opinion of this Department "That in every Public School where the Fifth Form is taught, it is absolutely necessary, in order that justice may be done to all the pupils, that there should be at the least two teachers."

Mr. J. E. Farewell, Q.C., etc., introduced to the Association Mr. Muir, author of "The Maple Leaf Forever." Mr. Muir briefly addressed the Convention.

Moved by Mr. Chown, Kingston, and Mr. May, Ottawa, and unanimously resolved, that the report of the Committee on the "Terms of the Union," read by Mr. Farewell, and the paper on "Our Rural Schools," etc., read by Mr. Dow, at the joint meeting held Wednesday afternoon; and the paper on "Patriotism," etc., read by Mr. Elliott, all be published in the pamphlet copies of the Minutes of Proceedings of this Department.

On motion of Messrs. Burritt and Farewell, the cordial thanks of this Department were tendered to the Rev. Dr. Alexander Jackson, M.A., etc., for the able and courteous manner in which he has presided over this Convention.

The Rev. Dr. Jackson responded feelingly.

At 5 o'clock p.m. the Convention adjourned, to meet again in the Examiners' Room, Education Department Buildings, Toronto, at 9.30 o'clock a.m., Wednesday, 21st April, 1897.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF

THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,

1895-96.

RECEIPTS :—

Balance from last Statement	$310 30
Members' Fees	248 00
Sale of Proceedings	80 30
Ontario Government Grants	700 00
Advertisements in Proceedings	17 00
Interest on Deposit	14 40
	$1,370 00

EXPENDITURES :—

Publishing Proceedings (1,600 copies)	$554 88
Address and Expenses, A. E. Winship	76 00
Printing—Circulars, Cards, Programme, Reprints, etc	87 25
Rent of Hall, Y. W. C. Guild	25 00
Expenses, Attendance, Ushers, etc	21 00
Badges and Decoration	16 25
Band at Reception	35 00
Secretaries of Departments	42 00
General Secretary	100 00
Treasurer	20 00
Board of Directors, Railway Fare in Attendance at November meeting	62 85
Reporting Evening Meetings	21 00
Postage, Mailing, Expressage, Cablegrams	60 02
Balance in hands of Treasurer	248 75
	$1,370 00

ROBERT W. DOAN, *Secretary.*
Toronto, April 8th, 1896.

W. J. HENDRY, *Treasurer.*

We, the undersigned Auditors appointed by the Ontario Educational Association, beg leave to report that we have examined the books of the Treasurer and compared the items of expenditure with the vouchers presented and find the same correct, leaving a balance on hand of $248.75.

ANGUS McINTOSH,
W. ATKIN,
S. B. SINCLAIR,
Auditors.

Toronto, April, 1896.

ADDRESSES AND PAPERS.

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE OPENING OF THE CONVENTION.

DR. JAMES LOUDON, in welcoming the members and visitors, said:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—On behalf of the University I beg to extend to the Ontario Educational Association a warm welcome within these walls, and I do so the more heartily, not only because we are all members of one common brotherhood of teachers—members I should rather say of one common brotherhood and sisterhood of teachers—but also because we form component parts of one national system of education. To representatives of this Association in the presence of the Minister of Education, who is the official head of that system, it is unnecessary for me on this occasion to indicate the intimate relations which exist between the various parts of the system, or to explain how it is that the success of one part depends upon the efficiency of the others; but I may be permitted to remind you that there is much ignorance abroad as to the nature of these relations, and to add that I consider it the duty of everyone in a position to do so to call attention to the existence of the relations in question, and to explain how essential they are to the vitality of our national system of education. I may add further that I look upon the formation of this Association, constituted, as it has recently been, on an enlarged basis, as calculated to disseminate correct views in regard to this and kindred matters. You are invited this evening to examine the equipment possessed by the University in some of its Science departments, more particularly the Chemical and Biological departments; and I have no doubt that many of our old students, whom I am glad to see here to-night, will be struck with the magnitude of the changes that have been introduced into the teaching of these departments since they left the University. After your examination of these two departments this evening I hope that you will come to the conclusion which we ourselves have reached, that in these scientific laboratories we possess facilities for teaching science of which not only the University but the Province may well be proud.

Dr. Pike, the able director of this laboratory, to whom we are indebted for the working out of the plan according to which it was built, has prepared a programme which will be instructive to you in making your examination of the various parts of the building. There is only one hint that I will give in this connection. Many of the audience are neither chemists, nor biologists, and may therefore be ignorant of the dangers of acids, bacteria, live wires, and other things peculiar to these laboratories. I will, therefore, throw out the suggestion that it would be well "to taste not, touch not and handle not," except upon the advice of a chemist or biologist. With this qualification I beg to present you, on behalf of my colleagues in the faculty, with the freedom of the University.

PROFESSOR BAKER:—I have much pleasure in calling upon the Minister of Education.

The HON. DR. ROSS said:—

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—Dr. Loudon has extended to you the hospitality of the University. It is quite evident, however, that you are not going to get anything to drink on this occasion. When I was asked to welcome the Ontario Educational Association on behalf of the Education Department, I, thinking of the magnitude of the Association and of the various interests which it represents, began to ransack my vocabulary for words sufficiently comprehensive to present a suitable welcome to such an extensive Association as is assembled here during these pleasant Easter holidays. This Association represents all the educational thought and life of the great Province of Ontario. It represents in the kindergarten over two hundred of the most tender-hearted, affectionate, genteel and lovely women that can be found in the Province of Ontario. In the public school teaching and separate school teaching departments it represents nearly nine thousand teachers, including ladies and gentlemen not quite so lovely, perhaps, as those engaged in the kindergarten department, but representing another grade of teaching force and teaching power. Then as to High Schools it represents nearly six hundred of those who have passed through—the most of them at least—one or other of our great Universities, representing another grade of intellectual force and teaching power. It represents again, between eighteen and twenty thousand trustees, either public or high school or separate school—an influential body with whom most teachers like to live on good terms, from whom they derive a great deal of comfort on some occasions, and a great deal of annoyance on other occasions—but taken all in all a useful, progressive and enterprising body of people. We owe a great

deal to our school trustees for their enterprise in building beautiful school houses with ample equipment, and decorating the school grounds, and compensating our teachers far beyond their expectations. For these and all other mercies we are devoutly thankful. Representing these different and varied and influential forces in the educational world, I, as head of the Education Department, rejoice to see you here. Here I see in this building, representing the culminating point of our great public school system, the goal to which many of you are aspiring, the goal to which some of you have already attained, the goal of our whole national system of education, at least, on its literary and intellectual side; representing, again let me say, the unity of our system; for were it not that our system is articulated as it is, bound together in its various sections, each fulfilling its place, as Professor Loudon has said, it would be incomplete; and in that respect our system is unique among the systems of the world. England, with her centuries of progress and with all her greatness and power, has no such organization, has no such system of organized school co-operation as there is in the Province of Ontario. Looking back on the work which is supposed to find its culmination here, it is hard, as Professor Loudon has said, to say to which part of our school system our successful students owe the most. I have stood on the platform in the Pavilion on various occasions at the commencement exercises of the University of Toronto, and when I have seen from one to two hundred students kneel before the President, or Chancellor, or Vice-Chancellor, as the case might be, and receive his benediction and the honors becoming their years of study, I have wondered to myself, looking in imagination over their history, to which part of their school lives they were most indebted for their success, for their preparation for citizenship, for the roundedness and completeness of character which they were supposed to have attained. You can study this point each for yourself. It may be that much of that accuracy which enabled the young man to obtain honors in his University course was owing to his careful training in the kindergarten. It may be that there his mind was first directed to those forms of thought which developed and strengthened with the years, so that when he came to compete in the larger arena, where his exertions were most strenuously put forth, he would be able to say that his success was owing perhaps to the kindergarten, perhaps to a quiet, demure young lady in a country school-house, perhaps to the forceful energy of a teacher of a public school, perhaps to the skill and precision of his masters in the high school. We know that his ultimate success was not the result simply of his work in the University alone,

but that it was a combination of the various courses which all jointed and united together completed in him the fully developed man—the fully developed B.A., or M.A., or B.Sc., or whatever he was at that particular time. For all that you have received, for all that our school system can do for our young men, we are to-night devoutly thankful, and we welcome you here as proudly and as gladly, whether you work in the kindergarten, in the public school, in the high school, in the separate school, or in the University, we welcome you as gladly for the part you play in building up the citizenship of this great Dominion. The culmination of our system, its full fruition, its dearest and most valuable fruit, is not simply its scholarship. That is valuable, and a nation without great scholars can never maintain its great preëminence Scholarship is essential to the full development of national life and national character; but what the country derives most from our school system is the fact that we have a body of men and women, over ten thousand strong, who are laying the foundation of lofty ideas; who are building up character in all its rounded completeness; who are making our boys honest, truthful, manly, energetic and progressive; who are fitting them to be better citizens than their fathers; who are preparing them for the duties of national life which are pressing upon us, and who are endeavoring to give them inspiration, so that when they take up the burdens of State they will feel their heart overflowing with a desire to make the country which educated them a better country than they found it, and to advance along the march of nations to a higher civilization and a greater independence. That is the work of the school-room; that is why we endow schools from the State. There is no logic, there is no purpose, in the State taking the money of the people for the education of the people unless the people return to the State educated, independent, intelligent, manly men and women, the product of that expenditure; and when we meet in council, and when you have discussed the regulations of the Education Department—which may take you some time, always does take you some time—and when you have made it perfectly clear to the whole world that there are a great many things the Minister of Education has forgotten or never knew, and when you have satisfied yourselves that the organization of the University can be improved, and when you have satisfied yourselves that there are good things in other school systems that we have not yet incorporated, and when you have satisfied yourselves that there are higher heights to reach than those to which you have yet attained, still remember as you return to your duties that the best energies of your lives, the best conceptions of your cultivated minds,

and the best resolves and the highest motives should be applied for the benefit of the State. As Minister I gladly welcome you here. I have spent ten of the best years of my life in the school-room, with what result it is hard to say. I have spent twelve or thirteen years directing the teachers of this country, with most gratifying feelings of pleasure, happy many a time, sometimes with considerable fear lest I was not at all times doing the right thing; but whether I fail or whether you fail, this thing is quite evident that we are accomplishing a great deal for our beloved Ontario, and we believe that with all our faults it will be said of us that we did our best in the various departments in which we were employed, and that the country has benefited by our services.

PRESIDENT BAKER:—President Loudon and Mr. Ross, on behalf of the members of the Ontario Educational Association, I have to offer you our sincerest thanks for the kindly welcome you have extended to us at the beginning of this our thirty-fifth annual meeting.

The members of this Association will have no doubt as to the genuineness and heartiness of the greeting from two such representatives as yourselves.

You, Mr. Ross, have stood on every round of the ladder, until today you direct from the top the educational institutions and educational interests of your native Province. It is difficult for us to conceive of one of wider experience, and consequently better equipped for his work; it is impossible for us to conceive of one more likely to enter sympathetically and deeply into all the trials and aspirations of the teacher. Let me add that it is with peculiar pleasure we teachers of Ontario, regarding you as especially our own representative, see you recognized as the most eloquent speaker and one of the ablest statesmen in public life in Canada to-day.

For more than thirty years past, President Loudon, you have been officially associated with the great institution whose chief executive office you now worthily fill. During this period you have had to do with most of the acts of University administration, and have initiated very many of them. It is with exceeding satisfaction that your old students, in revisiting the old institution, find that you are keeping it abreast of the scholastic and scientific demands of the times; and those of our body who are not your old students share that satisfaction; for the University of Toronto is the common property of all.

It is rather remarkable that an age like the present, when knowledge is so easily and so rapidly transmitted, by telegraph, by the daily press, by magazines and by the multiplication of books, should also be an age of conventions. Or is it that the very vastness and rapid

spread of knowledge make conventions necessary?—no one man can begin to overtake the great output; so each does something in the way of separating the wheat from the chaff, and we meet in conventions to receive and compare the results of each other's analysis.

I believe that in no department of human activity are conventions more necessary than in our profession. Fresh advances in science are constantly being made; fresh groupings and generalizations are offered; new lights are thrown on old facts. In the science of education novel theories are being put forward, and in the art of education novel methods are being introduced. We are accustomed to the phrase, "from the University down to the Kindergarten," but so great is the activity of psychologists in child-study that I believe, so far as the science of education is concerned, we shall be compelled to invert the phrase, and say "from the Kindergarten down to the University."

But, perhaps, the best result from these conventions is the encouraging and stimulating influence that comes from contact with others engaged in the same vocation. We return from these meetings to the college, to the high school, to the village school, to the solitary school-house on the side-line, renewed in strength. We go back with fresh enthusiasm to our work; we determine to rise in our profession; we apply ourselves with increased energy to our studies and to our classes; and in our generous zeal for a noble profession we sometimes even forget the miserable salaries paid and the inappreciation of the public and of trustees.

One of the characteristics of this age, which has so many characteristics—it has been called the age of gold, the age of iron, the age of paper, the age of science, the age of co-operation, the age of progress, the age of parliaments, and, I hope not as a consequence, the age of humbug,—one of the characteristics of this age, I say, is the rapidity and eagerness with which "knowledge of witty inventions" is spread. How different from the days of Pythagoras, when an advance in science was kept a profound secret. There is no such thing as esoteric knowledge to-day. I believe that even the old schoolmaster of my boyhood has disappeared, the old schoolmaster who journeyed about the country seeking to make for himself a reputation as a mathematician by his acquaintance with the solution of one problem, which solution was kept to himself a deep secret. The old schoolmaster has yielded to the spirit of the age, and given up his solution at a teachers' convention.

Gentlemen, it is a great joy to live in times when the glad tidings of a great discovery are instantly echoed round the world from a hundred laboratories. It is especially gratifying to the teachers of

Ontario to know, to see that the Provincial University is equipped as it is; to know that there is no great discovery in heat, in light, in sound, in electricity, in chemistry, in biology, in photography, that may not be tested in these laboratories—I say more,—that may not receive fresh applications and fresh advances in these laboratories; to know that for the study of that vast department of human knowledge, which we call the natural sciences, the University of Toronto has facilities that are unequalled in this country and unsurpassed on this continent.

But, gentlemen, I must say no more, or I shall interfere with the Association's purposes in coming here this evening. I have only to add that the members of the Association feel deeply indebted to Prof. Ramsay Wright and to Prof. Pike for the deep interest they have taken in this year's meeting; and that we thoroughly appreciate their kindness and the labor they have voluntarily taken upon themselves in opening their laboratories to the members of the Association.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Ladies and Gentlemen :—

When a year ago you conferred upon me, by unanimous election, the office of President of the Ontario Educational Association, the distinction was entirely unexpected by me, but yet was one which I had always felt to be a legitimate object of honorable ambition to every member of this Association. However highly we may esteem the good opinion of the general public, we must value still more highly the favorable opinion of other members of our own profession. While, therefore, painfully conscious of my many disqualifications for this office, which, however, I shall seek at least not to parade, I have to offer you my sincerest thanks for the honor you have done me, and to humbly hope that this year of office may prove a not unworthy link between the honorable past and the years that are to come, as this body grows in usefulness and in power.

The educational system of this country, the educational system of any country, exists in a state of continued unstable equilibrium, and hence requires constant readjustment. Nor does this arise from any defect in organization or administration. It is a vital organic system, and, like other organic and vital systems, can only reach a condition of stable equilibrium when death overtakes it, and it falls prostrate to the ground. This educational parliament, as it has aptly been called, meets from year to year to assist in this work of readjustment, whether such readjustment is to be applied at the top in the form of departmental regulations, or at the bottom in the conduct of each one's school or schoolroom. We meet to extend our own professional knowledge, and, I trust, with the philanthropic purpose of adding to the professional knowledge of others; to intensify our own interest in our work, and to quicken the enthusiasm of our professional brethren. Nor need we be ashamed to confess that we gather here with the greater eagerness in that we have the pleasure of meeting old friends and of reviving old associations.

Medical men meet in convention not only to protect their professional interests, but also that they may keep abreast of their wonderfully progressive science. Clergymen meet in convention by reason of the constant advance in Biblical interpretation, by reason of the progress being made in the unravelling of early history, and by reason of the advance of science and of the relation of science to religion. Journalists meet in convention not

merely to suggest a new libel law that shall afford the greatest freedom from attack with the greatest exemption from responsibility; but because journalism is progressive in the main in the character of the information it presents to the public, and especially in its methods of collecting that information. The only professional body that does not meet in convention are our friends the lawyers; from which circumstance, I take it, we are bound to infer that law is not a science, certainly not a progressive science, however aggressive the practice of the art may be.

Our presence here to-night is an acknowledgment of our profound conviction that education is a progressive science, though some of us can recall periods when we feared a retrogressive movement had set in. We can all agree that it is never stationary. In universities and colleges the array of facts and principles presented is so vast, the subject matter is so diversified, that I fear the purposes of education are often less prominent before the mind of the professor than they are in the mind of the kindergartner as she instructs her infant class. If, however, the instructor be an able man, and have a vigorous and comprehensive grasp of his subject, fortunately he will unconsciously educate, as well as permit the science or literature he expounds to do so. If the professor have not the qualities of which I speak—ability, vigor and comprehensiveness—then a wise Providence has ordained that departments of knowledge shall of themselves instruct and bring out the latent powers of man, even as seeds that by chance fall by the wayside must germinate. In the purpose, however, with which in universities and colleges the course of study is drawn up, the science of education as such receives distinct and deliberate recognition. Moreover, so inexhaustibly prolific is an advanced course of study in opportunity for generalization, for the discovery of relations, for making deduction, that a man of scientific bent, if he instruct in science, or a man of literary or artistic bias, if he belong to the humanity side of the course, will be an educator without effort, almost in spite of himself.

It is not necessary for me to insist that the educational value of the subject matter dealt with in our colleges advances with every advance in science or philosophy, with every delimitation of a new school in literature or in art. And in these matters we have, within the lifetime of the oldest present, known no rest. It is no exaggeration to say that the scientific advances of this century have been to the human race of equal value with the discovery of America, leaving South America out of the count, as balanced by the contributions of science to the art of war. In

methods of instruction the universities have been equally active. I think it is a sufficiently general characterization of these methods to say that the effort has been to keep the creative faculty equally active with the receptive. Thus we have laboratory and other practical work in science, the insistence on constant reference to original authorities in history, the collaboration of facts in every direction in sociology with the formulation of theories thereon. The student is taught to create his own knowledge, or at all events to give it form. But the great gain of the latter part of this century to educational method in its higher aspects has been the doctrine of evolution. I cannot conceive of any one surveying the field of science, of history, of philosophy, of sociology, except from the vantage ground of this great doctrine. It is a clue that guides us through the maze of isolated fact, an "increasing purpose" that "through the ages runs."

In connection with this matter permit me to say that there is one department of study which in universities and colleges does not appear to have kept pace, in educational method, with its fellow departments. I refer to the subject of English literature. And here let me remind you that students enter on the pursuit of this branch of knowledge equipped as in the case of no other branch of knowledge, and with opportunities about them for the prosecution of this branch of knowledge such as are presented in the case of none other. The student of chemistry is not usually born in a laboratory, and the first impressions of his infancy are not associated with the elements, their characteristics, uses, and modes of combination. If such were the environment of infancy, the chemistry of our schools and universities, admirable as it is, and abounding in real work, as it does, would be far in advance of where we now find it.

It has often been complained that the teaching of English literature is ineffective, that it does not necessarily produce men who write or speak pure English. It is also complained that questions not dissimilar in principle are proposed at examinations that are academically remote; and, on the other hand, it is contended that this cannot be avoided, that the subject cannot be graded as can a science. This contention is, I believe, untenable. The subject can be graded, and degrees of difficulty defined as clearly as in science.

To tell the truth, while the teaching of English literature has made a great advance in our high schools, it remains in the universities relatively greatly inferior to that followed in the sciences. I have already referred to the improvement in educational method,

in the case of the sciences, being in the direction of an effort to appeal to the creative faculty. In English literature, even in academic situations of greatest altitude, the teaching remains an appeal to the receptive faculty. It is criticism only, and criticism by itself can only end in the destruction of spontaneity and originality. In the sciences students are required to do real work, not simply to watch the work of others, still less merely to look at work after it is done. What would you think of a school of art in which about the walls there hung the works of distinguished artists, which the students were invited to contemplate, whose beauty and excellence were pointed out to them, but in which school of art contemplation was made the principal thing, and in which the pupils but seldom handled the pencil or the brush? In art schools just the reverse of this occurs—work is almost everything: the study of other artists' work is secondary; and only in this way can satisfactory results be had. When Flambert took de Maupassant as a pupil, and sought to make of him a writer of French, he did not give him lectures on French literature, but set him at once to work on real themes; and some of the themes were amusing in their apparent simplicity—description of a tree, for example. Yet, did you ever think what a wonderful power it is to reproduce in words a tree as it sometimes appears to you—as part of a pantheistic world?

You say that only those can take the mathematical or scientific courses who have for their subjects a natural aptitude. Then you confess that those can take English literature who have not for it a natural aptitude, for surely true literary aptitude is rarer than the scientific. Unfortunately, as it is pursued it is true that many find themselves able to take this course who have for it little or no aptitude; and this accounts for the crowding of the class rooms. If the same method were followed in English literature that is pursued in science, we should have only those graduating as specialists who possessed the true literary and artistic instinct, and not those who confounded fondness for literature with power therein. The last year, possibly the last two years, of a university course should be occupied, if not entirely at least chiefly, with original work, in which students should be required to show their ability to follow the style of given authors, or of given schools, or to give evidence of a meritorious style of their own. This alone would be on a parity with the excellence of the work done in science. But you say in science you do not ask that students make original discoveries. Of course not; nor do I ask that students of English literature be required to create new schools, for this is the analogue.

If you permit your attention to be directed to the work done by the Association at its last session and in preceding years, you will observe that the papers read and addresses delivered may be divided into three general classes: 1. Those of general educational interest, such as the addresses before the general association, or Chancellor Burwash's address on "The Economics of Education"; 2. Those on pedagogical topics; 3. Those on literary and scientific subjects. It may become a question in the future in what proportion the Association, or any part of it, should divide its time between classes two and three; in other words, to what extent it should be on the one hand a collection of literary and scientific associations, and on the other a body of professional ladies and gentlemen gathered together to discuss theories and methods of education. For my own part, I sincerely trust that both features may be enduring characteristics of this Association. They are both necessary to give variety and attractiveness to our meetings. It will be for the members, in the exercise of their good judgment, to maintain the balance of power.

The division of the College and High School Department into associations came primarily, it may be, from a desire to protect certain interests, but it has made possible and distinctly encouraged papers on literary and scientific subjects, and has imparted to this department the qualities of a literary and scientific society. A perusal of the papers published in our "Proceedings" will afford ample justification for this departure. They show the breadth of culture of the specialists in our high schools, and the extent of the work that is being privately done by them beyond the bounds of the high school course. They show the strong desire that exists amongst our specialists to maintain a high standard of scholarship and prove, *inter alia*, that there is no position in our educational system that cannot be filled from our high schools. Separation from the universities means no relaxation of the effort to excel in work that was originally entered upon as a labor of love. Our educational system is a decentralizing influence. The college is the university of the city; the high school is the university of the town; the public school is the university of the village; and from them all radiate the benign influences of a culture that penetrates far beyond the limits of the institutions themselves. I sincerely trust that from no motives of economy shall we be induced to curtail in future years in any respect our printed reports, even though such papers as I now refer to are quasi non-professional in character. These papers in many cases have been evolved after much careful study, and can be properly estimated

only after thoughtful perusal. Such attention can scarcely be given while listening to the first delivery of the paper. Moreover, if it be understood that the papers read are to be published *in extenso*, additional care will be bestowed on their preparation; and I feel satisfied the printed proceedings of no learned society will form a more valued contribution to the intellectual life of the country than the proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association.

And here the feeling forces itself upon me that the university extension movement, which heretofore has been like a delicate exotic, fading away with each succeeding attempt to introduce it, may receive its true organization and permanently engraft itself on our educational system, by territorial combinations amongst our high school specialists. The desire amongst our specialist teachers to engage in higher literary and scientific work is strong, and their ability to do so is well attested. Yet men and women, whatever their accomplishments and earnestness of character, can scarcely prosecute with ardour a branch of study without some definite object towards which their work is directed. I feel that holding positions as lecturers in a university extension movement would furnish our high school specialists with such an object. The furthering of this movement implies the somewhat popular treatment of subjects usually within the scope of a university course. I know of few better tests of a man's intellectual strength and of the soundness of his scholarship than his ability to present in popular and yet instructive form the truths of science or the theories of philosophy. It is scarcely too much to say that the really great things in science, as in ethics, may be expounded to comparatively untrained minds, though not always the processes by which these great things are reached. What I wish to say, then, is that the highest professional qualities and most scholarly attainments of our teachers might find employment in the work of university extension. And it would be a case in which it would be as blessed to give as to receive. My suggestion is that in different parts of the province groups be formed of half a dozen or ten high schools, the teachers in which should undertake to give lectures, or courses of lectures, in each other's towns. Their labors could often be supplemented by those of other professional men, clergymen, doctors, or lawyers; and the university professor could be brought down as often as possible. I feel that the movement should not proceed wholly or even principally from the universities; that to be successful it must be decentralized, and this decentralization should be not merely in the matter of administra-

tion, as implied by the existence of a local committee, but also in the actual work of lecturing as implied by the participation therein of what is usually known as local talent. He who first said "One man is as good as another" philosiphised imperfectly, and was unmindful of the law of averages. He should have said, "One aggregation of men is as good as another." I believe that in many sections of Ontario we have the material necessary for the successful carrying out of university extension.

I have said nothing as to the form in which encouragement should be given to the movement by the Education Department or by the universities; nor have I referred to the extent to which organization should be directed from these central bodies, though these are important matters.

Our College and High School Department, as a matter of choice, devotes a large share of its attention to literary and scientific specialization; our other departments, as a matter of necessity, confine their attention to administration and to the science of education in its theory and practice. These latter departments are therefore more professional in their work. They are occupied with the very foundations of education; and psychological insight and philosophical analysis, however profound, can find in them a field for activity. The characteristics of recent German literature are of far less importance to us in Ontario than the question "How best may reading be taught," and, but for a mental perversity from which we all suffer, would be of far less interest. You say the teachers of the primary schools are at a loss for fresh subjects to discuss: not nearly so much at a loss as are the novelists of the day for materials for a fresh plot. The greatest triumph of the age is not the steam engine, nor the marvels of electricity, nor the wonders of engineering, but our free primary schools; and our chiefest aim should be to make them approach perfection. Such advance is to be sought (1) by improving the salaries of teachers, and by making their positions more permanent; (2) by extending the teachers' knowledge in science and literature, and by giving them a better professional training. With the former the public are concerned; for the latter we have to depend upon our universities, high schools and institutes of training.

The question of constant progress in our primary schools, it is needless to say before such an audience as the present, is a difficult one. If there cannot be constant progress, there is at least a profound and inevitable need for constant change, which in a lengthened period, we hope, means progress. Progress and mere change shade off into each other so as to become partially

indistinguishable. In human society change usually means progress when it is the discarding of something that has become lifeless, or that has outgrown its usefulness. No wonder that the question of the advancement of the public school is an endless one; it involves the question of the advancement of the mass of our fellow men. And yet, or rather therefore, we keep it constantly before us. Every nation has its legends, which are merely the expression of the racial instinct that illimitable progress lies before mankind. It has been said that the modern schoolboy knows more than the ancient philosopher; and the time will come when the scientific knowledge of the schoolboy will, in many directions, extend beyond that of the philosopher of to-day. Truth reminds me of those puzzle pictures in which, amidst the interlacing branches of trees or the varied forms of a landscape, you are called upon to discern human faces or the figures of animals. You gaze and gaze in vain; you fruitlessly attempt this and the other combination, until at last some one points out the form to you, and you are surprised that you did not see it before. You were staring straight at it, but yet did not make the proper combination, did not interpret aright. I doubt not we are constantly gazing at truths capable in their might of revolutionizing the world, but we see them not until one shall come who shall point them out to us, and they will then be evident even to a little child. In speaking of children George Eliot has said, "What we can never see they will know; and the knowledge which is a departing sunlight to us is rising with the strength of morning to them."

To employ, however, a mathematical figure, while advance in the physical sciences may be represented by an infinite series whose sum is infinity, advance in the science of education may rather be represented by an infinite series whose sum is finite. The greater need, therefore, in the latter case for restless vigilance, that none of the terms be lost. We possess already in Ontario certain inestimable advantages,—a homogeneous population fully alive to the advantages of education, and prepared to make sacrifices for it; free schools, the entire body of the people being directly interested in maintaining their efficiency; non-denominational schools,—may we never depart from them. The ground is thus unencumbered and cleared for testing our educational methods. To express the idea otherwise, disturbing influences are removed, and we have almost ideally perfect conditions for making our experiments. The value of the result in the case of each succeeding experiment must depend on the teachers themselves. And while we partly look to the Education Department

to exercise judgment as to what methods shall be tested, we must recollect that many of these are suggested by ourselves in convention. We must also recollect that with the chief part of what may be called the internal economy of the school room the Education Department necessarily can have nothing to do. In seeking to make advances in educational methods possible, we must for the most part look along the line that, I am happy to say, has, amidst many difficulties, been so persistently followed by the Education Department, namely, the raising of the standard of scholarship, literary and scientific, required for certificates; though, amidst equal difficulties, the professional training of teachers has with equal persistence been kept in view by the Department. But scholarship is a more measurable quantity at examinations than teaching power; and the well-informed teacher, while enjoying superior chances of possessing the power to impart what he knows, will constantly present to his pupils attractive glimpses of knowledge lying beyond the limits of their studies, and so kindle in them a desire to learn.

If I may take the liberty of offering a suggestion to the departments associated with primary education, it is that they devote more attention at their annual meetings here to the comparative method of study. Nothing could be more instructive than a series of papers on primary education in Germany, Switzerland and France. Such studies may be investigations of the systems of these countries along many different lines of enquiry. I believe one of the conclusions reached would be that in the German primary schools the results secured are superior to those attained with us.

Last year the College and High School Department extended the range of its usefulness, or still further differentiated itself, by creating commercial and historical associations. The Commercial Association is a most proper concession to the utilitarian side of secondary education, and we may perhaps expect it to act as a counterpoise to any transcendental tendencies that may arise in its sister associations. To the Historical Association we look for an improvement in the teaching of history, and for an increased interest amongst the rising generation in the history of Canada.

There are certain subjects which at present find no special place in our organization, but which are by no means deserving of neglect. Technical education will every year grow in importance, and we shall some day have it knocking at our doors for admission. But a matter of truly pressing consequence is the ques-

tion of physical training. I feel there should be created at once a section of the Association whose special care should be this really important branch of culture. There is an evident difficulty in finding for such a body a place in our system or organization; for we could scarcely make it one of the associations of our College and High School Department, since it concerns colleges and high and public schools equally; and to make it an independent department would of course not be in keeping with the scheme according to which we are constituted. Yet the importance of physical training is such, and the neglect of it so great, that organization is necessary to secure for it the attention which it deserves. I doubt not, if the effort be made, our constitution will be found sufficiently elastic for the recognition of a section devoted to this subject.

Last year a resolution was adopted in our High School Department practically affirming that physical training should be optional. The departmental regulations for high schools and collegiate institutions say, "Drill, gymnastics and calisthenics shall be taught, during the regular school hours and in well organized classes, not less than an hour and a half each week in each division of Forms I., II., and III. * * * under efficient supervision"; also, "In high schools that have no gymnasium, gymnastics are not obligatory, and drill and calisthenics shall be taken up only in suitable weather, and in accordance with the circumstances of each school." It is not difficult to appear to live up to the latter provision, affording as it does opportunities for evasion; the high school inspectors know better than I do to what extent the former regulation is carried out. As appears from the report of the Minister of Education for 1895, the provision in the way of "gymnasium and appliances" in our high schools is very limited. One conscientious gentleman returns "$2" as the value of such appliances in his institution. Were it a report of twenty years ago, I should have thought it referred to the stock of canes in the principal's keeping for the physical exercise of the masters and the anguish of the boys. The average expenditure in the high schools on "gymnasium and appliances" is but $98, and this is very unevenly distributed, 59 out of the 93 high schools being absolutely without appliances. The average expenditure on the same account in the collegiate institutes is upwards of $1,400, which seems not unpromising, and it is pretty evenly distributed. In the case of the public schools the majority of the scholars are courageously returned as undergoing instruction in drill and calisthenics; and if these reports are to be depended on, Ontario in case of inva-

sion would be able to place a quarter of a million of, shall I say infantry, in the field.

Now what I wish especially to insist on here is that the departmental provision that the various modes of physical training shall be conducted under careful supervision, is scarcely carried out as it should be; and that we here do not show our appreciation of the value of physical training as we should.

We readily fall in with the aphorism *sana mens in corpore sano;* and yet, while we see clearly the value of careful and systematic training in securing the *sana mens,* we practically ignore the value of careful and systematic training in securing the *corpus sanum.* We should be encouraged to give our attention to physical training by reason of the very definite results obtainable,—much more definite than those obtainable in mental training. And yet we choose to leave physical training to the sportive vagaries of youthful exuberance. If we decided to strike the course in English literature from the curriculum of our schools, and to leave the scholars to pick up a knowledge of it from such newspapers as came to hand, we should be doing for literature what we have done and are doing for the culture of the body. In a well considered system of education games and sport should occupy the same relation to physical culture that the work of the debating and of the literary and scientific societies holds to the ordinary work of the school or college. In certain cases sports work to the detriment of those who participate in them, and operate on the body as vicious literature on the mind. Yet we are content to allow sports, voluntarily taken up and uncertain in their influence, to supply the place of a supervised course. It is difficult to explain our extraordinary attitude on this subject, unless it be that our system of education, originating in mediæval monasticism, still regards the "vile body" as something only to be despised. Fortunately a change is coming. Many of the universities of the United States are treating the cultivation of the body with the serious attention it deserves. Many of you are aware of the position it holds in the secondary and primary systems of education of Prussia and Saxony. This summer there will be held at Innsbruck an international exposition for all things connected with physical education; and this summer the Olympic games are revived at Athens. We in Canada cannot afford to lag behind; and especially we in this Association cannot afford to be unfaithful to our trust in respect to this important matter.

I have ventured in the course of my address to occupy your attention with a very incomplete discussion of several subjects which I thought not unworthy of your consideration ; and as I bring my address to a close, like the German scholar on his deathbed, I almost regret I did not confine my attention to one. Had I done so I should have spoken to you on the question of the sexes in the teaching profession,—the extent to which competition for positions exists or is likely to exist between them, the effect of this competition on the profession and on the standard of education, and the means by which the competition may be relieved. The difficulty, however, of obtaining, especially from foreign countries, the statistics so necessary to such a discussion, has deterred me from enlarging on these points. The question of occupations for clever and highly educated women will each year force itself more on public attention; and the educationists of Ontario will do well to accustom the public mind to the thought that women should, in numbers, enter other of the learned professions than that of teaching. It is only by the removal of all barriers, whether legal or such as arise from unfounded prejudices, that the question I refer to can adjust itself in the interest of the teaching profession and of the general public.

During the recent agitation at Oxford respecting degrees for women, it was charged that the admission of women to all the privileges of the University would render that ancient seat of learning sexless. I hope that in the same sense the teaching profession in Ontario may continue sexless ; for in it we have need of the peculiar genius of each sex, exalted by the highest accomplishments and talent, in seeking to realize that splendid dream of the perfectibility of the race, which is the inspiration of our profession.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS ON THE ADVANTAGES WE MAY HOPE TO DERIVE FROM EDUCATION.

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It must generally be admitted that those who desire to give a good education to their own children, or to young relatives dependent on them, are guided by some theory as to the object they have in view. It may not in their own mind always be capable of definition, and the hope they form may be vague and wanting in precision. The feeling, however, whatever it may be, has a recognized activity; hence I humbly conceive that an inquiry into its character may enable us to place it in a somewhat concrete form; moreover, that it will not be unacceptable to those on whom the obligation is entailed.

If the intent be to assure the child's future, it becomes a duty to examine into the character of the direction to be given to the young mind, that this hoped-for result may be attained; and it is by no means clear that there will be a general acceptance of any positive definition of that suggestive word, success. The estimate of it must vary in the ratio of the consideration given to the moral or material results desired. Some may regard the acquisition of wealth as the first object in life. Money will purchase much, but it cannot be said that its power is unlimited. The most valuable acquisition it can confer undoubtedly is independence of conduct, and that it will extend liberty of action; not always possible with men struggling for a livelihood. It is easy to conceive the strong desire to obtain this independence, apart from any craving for luxury, and free from the desire of being reputed to be wealthy, with the status it confers. There may be many who inculcate the doctrine of the all-potentiality of money, but it cannot be said to play an admitted part in any system of teaching. Of the same character is the desire that the youth may rise to a high position in his career, for there are prizes in every calling, and fond parents hope to see their child attain distinction, whatever vocation he may follow.

With these aspirations there is a wholesome fear of the evil consequences to which ignorance can lead. We are not wanting in examples of the extent it brutalizes the individual, and of its creation of a class dangerous to the well-being of the state, to be duly

guarded against with continual watchfulness. It has also its comic side, when, if free from guilt and from endless evil consequences, it casts ridicule on those afflicted with it. A story is told of a baronet utterly uneducated, whose estate lay in the neighbourhood of a battle ground renowned since the Wars of the Roses. Late in life he resolved to be presented at Court. George III., who followed the rule of making some civil remark to every person who attended his levee for the first time, found a difficulty in selecting a speciality in the baronet's career for a topic of personal comment, so he congratulated him on the historic associations of his estate as being near the scene of a renowned battle. The baronet was surprised by the remark. Finally he stammered out, "It is true, your Majesty, that I did have a few rounds with the blacksmith, but I am surprised the fact should be known to your Majesty."

We may smile at the story, let us profit by its teaching and cultivate the judgment and intelligence to avoid such an exhibition. An unhappy incident of this character might mar a career from which much was hoped, and create a false impression only to be effaced by careful effort.

We cannot fail early to learn the vastness of the field of modern art, science and literature, in which as a whole we can attain but little more, than partial and elementary knowledge. We may see the plain widely extended before us, but how few are able to pass onward to any extent on its ample space. As we advance forward towards the goal we desire to reach, we soon learn that it is only by continuous movement we can accomplish the journey to excellence and prominence in any one branch of learning. What really can we know of many subjects beyond their first principles and mere elementary facts? Whatever the training we pass through, and however efficient the aids we receive in our studies, we must be all more or less self-educated. The difference lies in the start made in life's race; the progress we may achieve in our endeavour to reach the goal is really dependent on our own effort. It is by our own industry alone that the problem lying before us for solution can be mastered.

One of the objections urged against the study of the classics is the limited progress made by the schoolboy, and that unless continued in mature life, from the insufficiency of the knowledge obtained, is of no value. It must be extremely limited for this criticism to be accepted. The boy at least learns the abstract laws and structure of grammar, and gains some acquaintance with the history and civilization of antiquity. Is it different in any other pursuit? In abstract mathematics, in chemistry, or in the study

of any of the economic sciences that have advanced human happiness and civilization? What proficiency under the conditions named are we able to attain beyond mastering some main facts? The first heights of a range of hills, seen from the plain below, stand out to us as the attainable object of our journey; when they have been gained they are discovered to be only a series of successive elevations rising above us, which, one by one, have to be surmounted before the summit is reached. Equally in the pursuit of knowledge; in no long period we are taught how illimitable is the field before us.

It is not immediately that a boy can learn the books of Euclid that are read; but when mastered, I put it to any mathematician, if anything more than a trifling advance has been made in a long and difficult study. It was the tradition of a former time that mathematics expanded the reasoning faculties, and the study of them was commended as a means of mental discipline. This view has passed away. If we admit the testimony of ancient and modern thinkers, no studies tend to cultivate a smaller number of the faculties, or in a more partial or feeble manner. I could multiply examples of this view expressed by men eminent in the world's history. I will confine myself to d'Alembert and Descartes. The former said of the study that it only made straight the minds without a bias, and only dried up and chilled natures already prepared for the operation. Descartes wrote that he was anxious not to lose any more of his time in the barren operation of geometry and arithmetic studies which never lead to anything important. Voltaire tells us, *j'ai toujours remarqué que la géometrie laisse l'esprit où elle le trouve.* It is not to be denied that much ingenuity is required in the higher mathematics, such as in the integration of a complicated deferential; an exercise of knowledge and judgment, only attainable by study and perseverance. The operation, however, is nothing more than the reduction of an equation to greater simplicity, and I cannot recognize any operation of reason, or any mental training beyond the exercise of patience and diligence. Moreover, when the result has been reached, it is simply the means to an end: the creation of a formula applicable to mechanics or astronomy. In the former to determine the force required to meet a strain; in the latter to admit of the calculation of the movement of heavenly bodies; a science essential to the architect, the engineer, the electrician and the astronomer. I refer those who desire to examine into the view I express to the "Discussions on Literature and Philosophy," by Sir William Hamilton.

The same remark applies to the physical sciences, whether it be chemistry, geology, electricity, indeed to any section of physics. The interval is wide between the incidental study of any branch, and concentrated undivided attention in its acquirement. The former only aims at a general superficial acquaintance with facts and principles, in itself desirable and worthy of consideration, for it saves us from making ourselves ridiculous, and enables us to understand new inventions and discoveries. What can we learn of chemistry, except in a general way, without constant experiments with stills and retorts, the use of delicate instruments for analysis, and the pneumatic trough for the test of gases ; indeed even a moderate knowledge of chemistry calls for the work of years in a laboratory. The superficial information we obtain from books we soon forget, and all that we commit to memory relative to symbols, is only remembered by those with whom it is a duty to bear them constantly in mind. Nevertheless it is our duty to know something of chemistry without the desire of becoming chemists. In the same way minute and precise knowledge relative to geology, mineralogy, electricity is only possible when we make some one study the leading subject of investigation. Can we hope to do more in any case than master the leading facts and characteristics of the several sciences we superficially investigate?

How can it be otherwise if the men who attain eminence concentrate their attention on one branch only? There is such a subdivision of labour, so constant an examination of the codified truths, such nice and delicate distinctions, possibly slight in themselves, but on which important theories depend, that it is only by constant study and examination that the truth is to be had. In modern scientific work, the "good all round man" is simply acceptable in the circle of mediocrity. He may shine in an after-dinner conversation, and, with those who know a subject superficially, may pass for erudite; but with abler critics his reputation is indeed slight. The French tell us that in the kingdom of the blind the one-eyed are kings, *Dans le royaume des avengles les borgnes sont rois.* In modern life, to succeed in the science we profess, we require both eyes, and the use of every faculty.

On this point I will ask, whether in the high schools and universities we are not introducing too many subjects, and thus dissi pate the attention of the student in place of concentrating it upon the choice he should make of a limited number; the studies enforced having little influence on the formation of character. There is a tendency to impart a superficial knowledge of a multiplicity of subjects, each one of which to be thoroughly mastered demands many

years of patient study. Are we justified in devoting the first years of impressionable youth to this diversified ordeal? Is it not rather our duty to inculcate the belief that knowledge can only be attained by persistent effort in one direction. You may look through the records of literature, art, science and political life; you may probe the lives of those who have attained eminence, I care not what the career has been, you will find that success in each case was not attributable to imperfect, uncertain, feverish, dissipated effort, but to careful, conscientious study directed within the acquirement by which reputation has been gained.

I am afraid that this is not the common view. The modern curriculum embraces a multitude of subjects, even the narrative of which is bewildering.

We may recall the advertisement of the immortal Squeers in Nicholas Nickleby.

"Youth are boarded, clothed, booked, furnished with pocket-money, provided with all necessaries, instructed in all languages, living and dead, mathematics, orthography, geometry, astronomy, trigonometry, the use of the globes, algebra, single stick (if required), writing, arithmetic, fortification, and every other branch of classical literature. Terms: Twenty guineas per annum. No extras, no vacation, and diet unparalleled."

This diversity, however, is by no means antagonistic to the views of the class, who, rejecting classics and modern languages as the studies best adapted to form the mind, would substitute the sciences for the inculcation of mental discipline. We cannot, however, adduce the influence that science has exercised on civilization and personal comfort, with its ramifications and beneficent effects, as a criterion of the moral benefit to be inculcated by the study so advocated. Any system of education that would neglect such consideration would be strangely imperfect. It was the fault in the teaching of the last, and the early years of this century. It is absolutely necessary that we obtain a fair knowledge of the principles and laws by which natural phenomena in the application of science are controlled; but this acquaintance with every day facts is widely different from the minute and extended investigations, conducted as if it were the pursuit of an attainment to form the main labour of after life.

It cannot be gainsaid that any one science consists of a myriad of cumulative inter-dependent facts from which generalizations are drawn to admit of nomenclature, classification, and order, inductively forming the principles by which any science is governed. Essentially it is the case in geology; palaeontology is above all other of its branches dependent on minute differences of species.

We may recollect "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," by Oliver Wendell Holmes, who tells us of the professor who had devoted the main years of his life to the special study of a species of the beetle. We have to-day men who are mentioned as authorities of the species of the trilobite, and who define the classification of the poriferæ, known as the common sponge.

This minute study is essential in the determination of geological epochs, the relative age in the formations of the earth's genesis, as a guide to practical husbandry; but this technical minuteness can have no influence on general education. In this respect I conceive that it is unwise to do more than attempt to implant the cardinal facts and the general principles which, to a certain extent, can be mastered by ordinary industry.

Undoubtedly there is a great difference in the mental constitution of students, and their capacity for learning. No fallacy is so patent as the declaration that all men are born equal. Some are highly favoured in appearance and disposition. In a large city the consequence of our civilization is, that the majority of its denizens must toil and moil, and the few be rich and prosperous. We also differ in the objects individually we desire to attain; but in this inequality we find the incentive to progress, and the influences by which civilization is advanced, for the one active principle prevails, we aim to attain that which we do not possess. Johnson laughed at the idea of any one writing a book, except for some reward. The man in want of money has its acquisition in view. Those in the enjoyment of ample means seek for honour and distinction. We cannot hope to find in this world the happy valley of peace and content, where no wish is unsatisfied and want unknown. Who can read unmoved Johnson's address to those "who listen with credulity to the whispers of fancy, and pursue with eagerness the phantoms of hope, who expect that age will perform the promises of youth, and the deficiencies of the present day will be supplied by the morrow." In a few words, it is a chapter of despondency and disappointment.

I believe that it is generally conceded, that whatever the inequalities of life, the means of happiness are equally extended: that is to say, that it lies in the grasp of all who seek to obtain it by prudence, rectitude and self-denial; that we are less dependent on external circumstances than many suppose. It has been said that a man is what he knoweth. Is it not more correct to say that a man is what he wanteth; so much is artificial in modern civilization that we learn to entertain fanciful requirements. It is

difficult to see how it can be otherwise with the incitements to comfort and ease which science furnishes.

In all the changes in the mode of life during the last seventy years, in the improvements of material comfort in every direction, with the extraordinary effect of the introduction of railways, which have worked a revolution in modern thought scarcely inferior to the impetus given by printing, and with the general dissemination of education in all classes, with all this, I humbly conceive that the student of history will find the main characteristics of humanity to be the same to-day as we read of them in Herodotus. We may trace in the early records the same varied panorama of passion, motive, patriotism, cruelty, self-interest and abnegation, with examples of that indescribable fascination which never fails to attract, and of that ruggedness of manner which so constantly repels, as we to-day experience in the intercourse with our fellows. We meet much in the study of the past to colour the theories we may form of human life. The improvement in morals, manners and attainments visible in our observation of this century cannot be referred to all classes. The imperishable works of ancient literature remain to betoken the highest genius, the most subtle originality, a marvellous knowledge of the human heart, set forth in an energetic and most perfect form of expression; works which have outlived twenty centuries. The improvement most discernible is to be traced in the attainments, the manners, habits and tastes of the humbler classes. The Roman spectators who crowded to the circus to witness the Christian overcome in the struggle with some wild, savage beast, and torn to pieces, or who shrieked out applause during the combat of gladiators when the fate of the vanquished depended on the upturned thumbs of the excited crowd, as Byron has written, slaughtered to make a Roman holiday, from their standing point could not recognize that there was hard-hearted cruelty or inhumanity in their nature. In their view they were present at a legalized ordinary amusement. In their hard code suicide was looked upon as the legitimate relief from misery. The reader of Livy may recollect the last Macedonian king, Perseus, imploring his conqueror, Æmilius Paulus, not to lead him in triumph, and receiving the reply that the matter was in his own hands.

Now-a-days we look sternly on amusements disgraced by brutality. We legislate against cock-fighting and dog fights. Bull-baiting has long been forbidden by law. The prize ring, however, although illegal, retains its supporters, who, if not numerous, are certainly noisy.

It seems to me that in the examination I am attempting so imperfectly to make of the results we hope to effect in the education of our children, or, as my contemporaries would say of our grandchildren, it is not possible to pass unnoticed the consideration of all that can be effected by home influences. How much lies in the power of the mother, or the female connection who supplies her place! Indeed it is not possible to overestimate all that can be effected by this wise and fostering care. M. de Quincey in his essay on Shakespeare has speculated upon what Shakespeare's mother must have been. Mary, the daughter of Robert Arden, of Wellingcote, of one of the most ancient families in Warwickshire, which Dugdale tells us can be traced for six centuries from the days of Edward the Confessor. Mary Arden! as Charles Knight says, the name breathes poetry. Her position in the county gives an assurance of the worth and station of the Shakespeare family, and sets at naught many of the absurd myths that have entwined themselves around the supreme and universal excellence of her son. To my mind, in the scenes with the Queen in Hamlet, there is a deference shown by the son to the mother, in spite of her vices, which suggests Shakespeare's recollections of the happiness of his own young years.

By these home influences the child's mind can be moulded in the qualities of gentleness, of thoughtfulness of others, and with sympathy with what is good. When we have had the happiness to receive this teaching, the effect never wholly leaves us, whatever follies as we advance in life we may commit.

May I be permitted to express the hope that those present who have responsibilities of this character will ponder over my humble words, and consider the extent that the future of those dependent on them may be moulded to good by their precept and example.

It may be inferred from what I have said that in my poor judgment, neither the study of mathematics nor of the sciences can be recognized as the surest means of training, forming and developing the young mind; that in their extended study they must be regarded as technical, to be followed with the design of fitting a student for a professional career. There will ever be two schools advocating different theories of education; the one the practical; the other, for want of a better word, may be called the philosophical, in the etymological meaning of the word; the love of wisdom. The former assumes that all teaching is preparatory for active intercourse with the world in the state of life to be followed. The second keeps in primary prominence the development of the moral

being; the effort to endow it with fixed principles, to create a standard of duty, to impregnate the young mind with sentiments of honour, truth and duty.

It would be absurd, as it would be unjust, to deny that these views have no place in practical education, and that the advocates of this system, when affirming as a primary principle that nothing should be learned but what may prove useful, neglect all moral training. Indeed they contend that it fully finds place in their system; but, that such is the competition in every avenue of progress that in order to fit the youth successfully to struggle with his competitors, it is necessary to gain the ability of doing so at as early a period of his life as possible. This argument is met by the objection that this peculiar training engenders much thought of self, that its tendency may make a man expert in a peculiar walk of life, but is not elevating in a moral point of view.

Nor is there accord among those who adopt the opposite theory that the greater advantage is attainable from the study of languages. The advocates of this view are divided on the expediency of prominence being given to the ancient over modern languages. Here we meet the practical argument that Latin and Greek, in whatever light they may be regarded as accomplishments, are useless in our intercourse with the world, while modern languages really prove of daily utility.

I have spoken of the limit of attainment in the general knowledge which a boy in the ordinary course of education may reach in the few years of his school novitiate. It is the common experience, unless with those endowed with rare ability, to permit of exceptional progress. It is stated of the late Lord Leighton that his father remarked to Powers, the sculptor, that after much hesitation he had at length consented to make his son an artist. Powers at once interrupted him by replying "that, nature has done for you." This illustration sustains the view that those only gifted with genius and great powers can reach the first rank of the calling they embrace. Indeed the most able and conscientious teacher can do little more than trace for us the path we should follow: it depends on our own abnegation and industry how far we advance upon it. I venture to express the opinion that in no one pursuit is the fact more apparent than in the study of a modern language. There is hardly anything so special. So many considerations are embraced, grammar, idiom, the knowledge of the words and phrases in use, the *tournure* of the language, the genders, the pronunciation, both of great importance, for a fault in either direction may lead to a sad *faux pas*. I recollect once remarking to a young girl

who, I was given to understand, knew French perfectly, "*Vous parlez donc Français, mademoiselle.*" Her intention was to reply "*un peu,*" she said "*un pou,*" for the meaning of which I refer you to the dictionary.

Necessarily there are degrees of education enforced by circumstances. If the boy, from family exigencies, is destined at an early age to gain his own bread, the time at his disposal will admit only of his learning reading, writing and arithmetic as they are now sometimes spoken of as the three R's. This teaching is all that is possible with what incidental instruction can be given in general history, and in the principles of applied science. Where no such sacrifice is required, in my poor opinion, the study of the ancient languages should form the basis of education: Latin preceding Greek, the cultivation of which must depend on time and opportunity. Even a moderate knowledge of the former language, and I admit such is the general result in ordinary cases, tends more than any other form of knowledge to discipline the mind. From the structure of these languages and the strict laws of grammar a logical habit of thought is called forth, and a key to the grammar of all modern languages is gained by the study. Likewise the history of Greece and Rome encourages generous sympathies with the student, for it is replete with examples of patriotism, self-sacrifice, courage and devotion to duty; conduct never recorded but with praise. While vice, cruelty, treachery, meanness, falsehood and tyranny are mentioned with detestation. Equally it inculcates the love of truth, the foster-mother of every virtue. That sense of right and of duty, which, as Socrates tells Crito, is a voice I seem to hear as the coryphantes hear the sound of flutes with the resound of the echo, that nothing else can be heard. No one will dispute that the study confers purity of style and correctness of taste. Is it not something to speak and write our noble language with simplicity, force and correctness so that we are never misunderstood, and are able to express our thoughts with vigour and subtle emphasis? To command attention without affectation, to avoid the effort when artifice is apparent in every sentence? To learn to imitate the language we find in the writings of Goldsmith, of Macaulay, Jeffery, Sydney Smith and de Quincey. There must be a groundwork for every class of information, and what is essential is the creation of a core of sound knowledge, around which is to be coiled the technical attainments by which we are to gain our bread.

Parents must not suppose that a schoolboy leaves the sixth form with much more than a general knowledge of the ancient

languages. He does not in the allotted time become a professional scholar, such as we read of three centuries back, when Latin was the common medium of correspondence; which produced men of the type of Erasmus, Luther, Roger Ascham, or Milton; in modern times as Bentley; or who possess the knowledge of Greek of Porson Jowett or Lowe (Lord Sherbrooke), of whom hereafter I have to speak. I have to ask, is the progress in science or in modern languages relatively greater under the conditions I name? My argument is simply this, that limited as the knowledge of the classics possessed by the boy at the close of his school life, or even as a youth in leaving the university, the study of them is the safest ordeal to follow in the formation of mind and character.

The rebound against this theory is attributable to the excessive and almost exclusive teaching of these languages in vogue until the first twenty years of this century. They formed the main basis of education; indeed little else was taught. What was known as "cyphering" was taught after Walker's Arithmetic. We are told by Lord Sherbrooke that the mathematical master at Winchester stopped at the fourth book of Euclid, and this was after 1825. English grammar was not looked upon as an essential; modern history obtained but scant attention; French a moderate amount of study; German at that date was in the matter of education an unknown tongue. Not the slightest attention was given to science. Possibly there were occasional lectures on astronomy and on electricity, in the former with a workable orrery, in the latter the experiments made were the chief feature. Latin and Greek were alone considered paramount. So much so, that in an essay written in 1811, Sydney Smith complained that it was the custom to bring up the first young men of the country as if they were all to keep grammar schools in little country towns; and that a nobleman, upon whose knowledge and liberality the honour and welfare of his country may depend, is diligently worried for half his life with longs and shorts. No man was considered fit for a bishop who was not learned in Aristophanes; indeed we owe some of the best editions of classics to clergymen looking for preferment.

The teaching is now in the opposite direction. Horace tells us that when foolish people avoid one vice they run to the opposite extreme. *Dum vitant stulti vitia in contraria currunt.* Thus the exclusive study of science or modern languages is advocated and any attention given to the classics is pronounced to be a waste of time. A powerful advocate of this theory was one of the most distinguished men of modern times, the late Robert Lowe, Viscount

Sherbrooke, a scholar of rare gifts and multiplied attainments. From his recognized classical knowledge and his opposition to the study, there arose the *mot* that he was the Phillippe Egalité of this branch of learning. Of a respectable family in the squirearchy of Notts, under the great physical disadvantage of imperfect sight, he worked his way up to the first rank in political life, having been Chancellor of the Exchequer. He numbered among his friends the first public men and the first scholars in England. It may interest those who do me the favour to listen to me, that he was an intimate friend of Sir Edmund Head, and visited him when Governor-General, in Toronto in 1856. Sir Edmund then consulted him on the selection of the seat of government for the Province of Canada, as then constituted, and he is accredited with having contributed to the recommendation of Ottawa as the capital. We also read of him in the biography by Mr. Patchet Martin, that his influence to some extent led to the withdrawal of the British garrisons from Canada. He said in the House of Commons, "In my opinion nothing could be so strong or so incentive in America to war with this country as the notion that they could catch a small English army and lead it away in triumph. Never mind, if it were thirty to one it would be all the same; the popularity that such a capture would confer upon the successful general or President of the period would be irresistible." [Vol. II. p. 233.]

Mr. Lowe was one of those elaborately educated Englishmen who are entirely without acquaintance with the history of Canada, some tell us we have no history, or even of the continent, until the United States became a power in modern international relations. He knew nothing of the revolutionary war of a century back, or he would have more correctly judged the two great disasters experienced by the British, and there were two only, the surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga and of Cornwallis at Yorktown; both perfectly explicable. They were, in the first place, caused by the meddling, cowardly, incapable Lord George Germain, typical of all that is insolent to an official subordinate, and of extreme sycophancy to the King. He was then Secretary of the Colonies, and he threw the blight of his presence on all brought in contact with him. The incompetence of Burgoyne, joined to the abandonment of him by Germain, led to his surrender. It was possible for him to have retreated with his army in safety, but to spare himself the disgrace of that reverse he strove to establish that he had been ordered to execute what was in itself impossible. It was Germain's correspondence with Cornwallis which led to his self-assertion, his disregard of orders, and his bad generalship that caused his defeat:

and we must not set out of view the want of enterprise, courage and conduct of the British admiral. Mr. Lowe evidently knew nothing of the U. E. Loyalists who settled Upper Canada, and their descendants; and he had no thought of the war of 1812, and its stirring memories, which appeal so strongly to every Canadian heart. You, who are here present, cannot fail to remember that within the last few months a powerful appeal has been made to this sentiment, and that the whole country was stirred to the heart's core, to a burst of feeling by what could only be construed as an appeal to their sense of duty and of patriotism. Let us fervently pray it may pass away. We cannot be insensible to the danger of our position, but there is the common resolve, if the exigency so exact, we must meet it as men. I am not here to discuss this point, but I feel bound to protest against the opinion of Lord Sherbrooke as irrational and unfounded.

I fully recognize the great qualities that distinguished Lord Sherbrooke. Few public men have exceeded him in ability, in honesty of principle, in patriotism, courage and tenacity of purpose, It is difficult to reconcile his utterances with his attainments, for all who follow his career must recognize how much he owed to the training he received. Jowett, the celebrated master of Baliol, dedicated to him his translation of Thucydides. In doing so he described Lowe as one of the best Greek scholars in England, whose genuine love of ancient classical literature, though sometimes dissembled, is as well known to his friends as the kindness of his heart and the charm of his conversation. I can but cursorily allude to the arguments advanced by him. At Glasgow he dwelt upon the neglect of other and more valuable studies, and one of his epigrammatic sayings was that the English universities had loaded the dice in favour of the dead languages. At the dinner of the Institution of Civil Engineers in 1872 he laughed at the battle of Marathon as a small affair, not calling for any particular criticism, for 192 were only killed on the side of the victors. Mr. Lowe could not but know on that day was decided whether or not the dawning light of intellect should be stamped out, and the rule of an irresponsible tyrant be affirmed. Until Marathon the name of the Mede was a terror to the Greeks. "The Athenians, who are they?" asked the great king. The answer was given on the plain of Marathon when the principles of civilization and liberty were first established.

There was truth in Mr. Lowe's criticism as to the excessive attention given to classics. But it may be said that he rather changed the direction of a youth's studies without conferring

benefit on his mind and thought. It is difficult to recognize that he advanced the true purport of education, the development of the reasoning powers, by his advocacy of confining the attention of the boy to modern languages and the sciences. Every earnest student of a modern language not his own, early discovers that he must give to it exclusive attention. Let me ask you, of what value in the practical duties of life is superficial knowledge of any kind? But even a little Latin is of use in the study of French. If you have a fair knowledge of both, and it is your fate to visit Italy, you will be surprised at the facility with which you will pick up the language for everyday conventional use. I do not speak of literary proficiency of the language, as any of you will soon discover if placed in a position to observe the distinction. German is another matter. It is a study entirely apart. Many may conceive that being cognate with English his mother tongue will aid him. It is quite the reverse. The analogies between the two languages require advanced knowledge to perceive. I may adduce a familiar example. Our gable, the wall closing at an angular point, is the word *gabel*, a fork. It conveys the same idea; here the relationship stops. German is a language demanding the closest application. Thus, I contend that the study of these languages and the pursuit of science, however laudable in themselves and elevating in themselves, can only be considered as advanced studies for the higher education, when the character is formed and fitted to receive them.

Lowe himself to the last clung to the love of classics, and they never ceased to furnish illustrations in his argument. There is a comic incident connected with the tax, which as Chancellor of the Exchequer he introduced, a tax on the manufacture of matches. It obtained favour in the House of Commons, and in the present day writers of eminence on political economy justify it. The manufacturers opposed to the tax, as manufacturers are in such circumstances, had a card to play which they did not neglect. They started up all the young girls engaged in the manufacture and in the sale, by the dread of losing their means of livelihood, and induced them to form themselves in a procession with banners and music, and proceed to the House of Commons, noisily to protest against the tax being enforced. The unthinking public accepted the trick as a good demonstration against an unjust imposition. The proposition at the time, and since that date, has been brought forward in a disparaging spirit to Lowe's ability, and in a minor way caused him annoyance. A strange feature of the case was

that the stamp required by law bore a Latin motto, *Ex luce lucellum*, which may be translated, "A little profit out of light."

In a number of Punch at the time Mr. Lowe's statue was given placed on a match-box, with the distich:

> *Ex luce lucellum*, we all of us know,
> But if Lucy can't sell them, what then, Mr. Lowe?

I have felt it my duty to introduce Mr. Lowe's name, as from his deservedly high reputation no one opposed to classical training has obtained greater countenance or weight.

It remains for me briefly to summarize the advantages we may hope to confer by a judicious system of education. Primarily we escape the penalties entailed upon ignorance, and we avoid the errors it is too often the lot of the uneducated to commit. The manners of youth become more subdued and gentle. It is the effort to lead to the abandonment of prejudice, to inculcate habits of self-respect and self-reliance, and to endow manhood with the capacity of living respectably in the condition assigned to us, and of finding honest resources in leisure: generally of forming the character according to the precepts of truth, honour and unselfishness. I know no better detail of this aspiration than what we are taught in the church catechism, which doubtless you all know, but it will not harm any of us to hear these noble words. We are there told to "love our neighbours as ourselves, to hurt nobody by word or deed, to be true and just in all our dealings, to bear no malice nor hatred in our hearts, to keep our hands from picking and stealing, and our tongues from evil speaking, lying and slandering; to keep our bodies in temperance, soberness and chastity, not to covet or desire other men's goods, but to learn and labour truly to get our own living, and to do our duty in that state of life unto which it shall please God to call us."

Naturally we look forward that our children will be well acquainted with the history of their own country, with a general knowledge of the motherland, and of the great Empire to which we have the happiness to belong. We hope to make them intelligent human beings, useful members of society, to possess principle to withstand temptation, and integrity to rise above the seductions which everywhere present themselves. I may be told that these are accepted moral truths. Yes, but while teaching the requirements enforced by our daily life according to our duties and station, surely we ought not to omit to impart the moral force and the dignity of character by which the temptations to which every human being is subjected can be met and mastered.

There is a phrase of the people worthy of remembrance, that "Life is not all beer and skittles." It is a truth we learn at an early date. We find how the most prosperous career is chequered by many disappointments; that the most favourable, equally with the least attractive, condition entails serious and exacting duties, and that failure in their observance leads to a day of reckoning, certain and sure, be it late or early. We are taught how much of our fate lies in our own hands; that when dark days come upon us we have to be true to our purpose, and that we slacken neither our perseverance nor our hope. We cannot be insensible to the fact that there is much good and evil fortune by which our destinies are shaped, but we do not better our condition by stopping on the roadside to weep over a reverse.

I trust my imperfectly expressed remarks have not tired you. I have to thank you for the attention you have been good enough to give in listening to me. Even if, as Saint Paul says, you have had need of patience, I have striven not to be wearisome. Permit me in my last words to repeat Juvenal's celebrated lines from the Tenth Satire:

"The one certain path to a life of peace is through the observance of virtue. Oh, fortune! if prudence guide us, thou hast no divinity, but we make thee a goddess and place thee in heaven."

Nullum numen habes si sit prudentia sed te,
Nos facimus, Fortuna, Deam, caeloque locamus.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE KINDERGARTEN SPIRIT ON HIGHER EDUCATION.

JAMES L. HUGHES, TORONTO.

H. Courthope Bowen, the Englishman whose interpretation of Frœbel's principles is most perfect sympathetically and intellectually, in his admirable work on "Frœbel and Education through Self-Activity," says: "Frœbel was possessed of large and generous views on education as a whole, and on its methods and results as wholes; but it is the work which he did for the education of infants between the ages of three and seven that chiefly demands our gratitude, so far as his aims have been realized up to the present. In the future, unless I am seriously mistaken, his greatest service will be in the reforms which his principles and methods will have forced on our schools and colleges." And again: "It argues, therefore, an absolute misunderstanding of the whole matter, to callously and indifferently admit that Frœbel's ideas are true enough for the kindergarten and at the same time to deny that they have anything to do with the schools."

That Mr. Bowen's estimate of the influence of the kindergarten is the correct one is becoming more clear as the kindergarten is more widely introduced and more fully understood. The principles upon which the kindergarten is based are fundamental principles that should guide the teacher in the work of teaching and training the child throughout its school course. The application of principles should change as the child ascends through the advancing periods of its growth, but the laws of true educational development apply universally in the university as well as in the kindergarten. These principles have influenced the work in schools and colleges even where the kndergarten itself is not recognized. Many men who still speak disrespectfully of the kindergarten are unconsciously influenced by its spirit, and are applying principles which would never have been clear to them if Frœbel had not objectively revealed them by his kindergarten methods.

Dr. Harris, in the preface to the "Education of Man," says: "Those who persistently read Frœbel's works are always growing in insight and in power of higher achievement." There is no teacher to whom this statement does not apply. It is as true of the college professor as of the primary teacher. No other educational writings bear re-reading so well as Frœbel's, because his insights were

clearer, more comprehensive, more distinctive, and therefore more difficult of general comprehension, than those of any other writer. Men trained under old methods are unable fully to grasp his ideas, as they have no conceptions to which they can be definitely related. It requires experience and training to prepare the minds of teachers to apperceive Frœbel's ideas. The next generation, especially those who are fortunate enough to receive a kindergarten training, will apperceive Frœbel's principles more fully, and interpret him more truly than we can hope to do.

What is the kindergarten spirit? The distinctive spirit of the kindergarten is the result of Frœbel's recognition of the sacredness of the child's selfhood or individuality. He taught that every child has special power, and that its fullest growth and truest education cannot be attained unless this special power becomes the dominant element in its life—the central current to which all its other powers form tributary streams. By individuality Frœbel meant the divine element in the child—the only element possessing power to stimulate and coördinate all its physical, intellectual, and moral activities. He gave to selfhood its rightful place as the guide of the child's powers. At the same time that he trained the individual powers of a child he developed its individuality. Individuality and the individual powers should be clearly distinguished. Individuality is the originating and controlling element of character that starts the individual powers to act, and guides them while at work. The motive power of character is even more important than the operative power, and should be trained more definitely. As motive power is higher than operative power, it is more susceptible to training.

He believed that the divinity in the child, its individuality, its originality, its distinctive characteristics, its selfhood, was the part of its nature that should be most definitely trained, because on its development he based all his hope for the child itself and for its uplifting influence on its fellowmen.

He objected to every system that magnified knowledge at the expense of the child, and his whole life was a protest against the "stamping and moulding" processes of teachers who failed to recognize the sacredness of the child's selfhood. What he valued most was not power, but creative power. He summed up his conceptions of individuality in the germ thought, that, "the fulfilment of man's destiny is the representation of the divine nature within him." Towards the accomplishment of this destiny by each child he constantly aimed in working out the details of every part of his educational work. This ideal made creative freedom a logical conception, and gave it educational value. Without it the suggestion of crea-

tive power would be absurd, and spontaneity might lead to anarchy instead of harmonious growth towards truth, justice, and perfect freedom.

This foundation educational principle—the recognition of the sacredness of the child's selfhood—led Frœbel to discover the leading features of his educational system. It revealed to him the vital importance of the intelligent, systematic, and persistent study of the child. It made the child, and not the knowledge to be communicated to it, the focus of educational thought. It led him to make freedom and happiness the sources of productive interest and the essential conditions of child-development. It taught him that the divinity in the child should not be passive or merely responsive to suggestions from others, but that selfhood should be self-active, —that is, active in the conception as well as the execution of an idea ; in motive as well as in deed ; in originating as well as in operating; in seeing as well as in doing,—and realizing this he made self-activity the highest process of human development. It showed him that the divinity in the child should not cease to grow, but should increase in power through progressive stages, and on this he founded his law of evolution. It gave him a clear conception of the true function of the individual, as a perfect unit in the universal unity.

The study of the child, reverence for its individuality, joyousness and spontaneity, true self-activity, progressive evolution, perfect community of feeling, and coöperation in action for the accomplishment of a common beneficent purpose; these are the essential elements of the spirit of Frœbel's kindergarten.

How has this spirit influenced the higher departments of educational thought and practice ?

My answer must not be understood to apply to all the higher institutions of learning. The reforms wrought by the kindergarten spirit are working gradually upward from the primary through the intermediate departments. This is natural, because at first kindergarten methods were studied much more than the principles on which they are based. Until recently high school and college men could be divided into two classes; those who denied that the kindergarten had any educational value, and those who were graciously willing to admit that it might possibly possess some slight educational advantages for very young children. A great awakening has been going on in the best high schools and colleges during the last few years, and the indications are that the next ten years will do much to verify Mr. Courthope Bowen's predictions. The springtime is here, and the life is flowing upward to the apparently

dead high school and college branches. Some of them are green with fresh leaves, and white already with the blossoms of progress that give promise of rich and abundant fruit.

CHILD STUDY.

A deep and widespread interest has been aroused during the past ten years in high schools, normal schools, and even universities, in scientific child study. The kindergartens undoubtedly deserve the credit for arousing this general and earnest study of the child. They made the child the centre of interest, and the chief agent in its own development. They became objective representations of great principles, not as theories but as vital realities in active operation. Applied principles reveal truth more definitely in an hour than the theoretical exposition of the same truth can do in a century. The kindergartens respected the child's selfhood; they elevated it above the knowledge it is intended to use; they aimed to deal with its divinity rather than its depravity; they helped to make real Emerson's ideal, that the child is the "sun of the world;" they proved that the child is the supreme educational factor; and by making these facts and principles objective, they guided the world to the study of the child, and placed educational investigation on a logical basis.

DISCIPLINE.

The kindergarten spirit has affected the discipline of the schools more than it has yet influenced the methods of teaching. In a single generation it has transformed the disciplinary agencies of the schools. Rev. J. G. Fitch said in his official report to the English government two years ago, that "the kindergarten had so thoroughly changed the discipline of the English schools that the disciplinary terms now used in the official instructions to teachers would not have been understood by them a few years ago."

Even in high schools, colleges, and universities the old autocratic, domineering, arbitrary, coercive, mandatory spirit has almost disappeared. The former antagonism between teacher and pupils or students is becoming rapidly less, and the new era of coöperative harmony has dawned in good secondary schools and universities.

Frœbel recognized the value of the teacher's guidance, but he realized very clearly that the teacher's influence might be too great. His profound respect for the selfhood of the child was so great that he would not allow the teacher to overshadow it or prevent its free growth by restrictive domination. Restriction dwarfs, coercion blights, and domination destroys individuality, and therefore Frœ-

bel waged against them a war of extermination. He refused to destroy power in the effort to educate. His comprehension of the inter-relationships existing between all the truly developing processes of nature made him decide, that even between essential freedom and desirable control there must be a course that produces perfect harmony, so he sought the "perfect law of liberty" that he might guide childhood without destroying its spontaneity.

He believed so thoroughly in the law of evolutionary development through successive stages of human growth that he did not expect finished character in the child. He allowed little children a condition of liberty which shocked the martinets, and agitates some of them still. He denied that anarchy was caused by freedom, but asserted strongly that it was the natural result of coercive control, and that unnatural control, especially during unconscious childhood, made it self-conscious in the weakening sense, and led to a natural indifference or resistance to constituted authority in the subsequent conscious period.

He found self-activity to be the intermediary process to produce harmony between spontaneity and control, and interest to be the motive that leads to self-activity when the selfhood has not been made passive by arbitrary control. With loving sympathy as an attractive power, making the teacher a friend instead of a domineering autocrat, and with the interested self-activity of the child as the central thought in the teacher's philosophy, he knew discipline would soon settle itself in a natural way. He refused to believe that children are happier when they are doing wrong than when doing right, and never doubted for a moment that they are more contented when engaged in appropriate occupations than when idle. Productivity being, according to his philosophy, the true function of humanity, he reasoned that creative self-activity is the most perfect source of human happiness, and the only rational agency in truly developing discipline.

But, it may be answered, "all children do not like to work." This statement Frœbel declined to accept. It is very likely to be true that all children do not like to do work chosen for them by their teachers, and to which they are driven by the teacher's authority. The wonder is that there is so little rebellion against work selected by others, and towards which children are driven by authority and not drawn by interest. Even when the persuasive power is the witchery of loving reverence for the teacher, work chosen by the teacher never has the maximum of power to interest or develop, and cannot long hold the attention of the pupil or make the path of duty the path of pleasure. Frœbel held that children

do love productive work if they are trained to plan it as well as perform it. "They yield themselves," said he, "in childlike trust and cheerfulness to their formative and creative interest." The methods of most schools in the past destroyed the formative and creative interest by making the pupil passive instead of active, receptive instead of executive.

During the early, unconscious period of the child's development, Frœbel would have the control of mother and kindergartner so thoroughly in harmony with the spontaneity of the child as not to be felt by it. The highest disciplinary skill of the mother or kindergartner is shown by the transference of the child's interest from evil to good in so natural a way that the child is not conscious of the external, guiding influence in making the change, or of its own surrender of one interest for another. When the child becomes conscious of its own personality, the teacher's duty is still to maintain the harmony between control and spontaneity. Now, however, both the control and spontaneity belong to the pupil. The control should become self-control, and this should be developed, first by a clear recognition of the rights of others, and second by the realization of the personal advantages resulting from self-control in subordinating the undesirable to the desirable in one's own tendencies. In the higher departments the teacher should be the confidential friend of the pupil, and not a mere dictator to whom the pupil should render unquestioning obedience. Exigencies may arise when the teacher may wisely say "Thou shalt," or "Thou shalt not," as the result of the "better choice between two evils." Such an incident is always a moral catastrophe, and the wise teacher undoes the evil so far as possible when the conditions that precipitated the collision have passed away.

As new generations of children trained in the kindergarten and filled with its spirit of individual liberty and individual responsibility rise through the schools to the universities, they will expect and receive a fuller recognition of their ability to exercise self-control and share in the management and discipline of the institutions in which they are being trained. A freer race will demand and deserve still greater freedom. When perfect freedom and full responsibility for individual action are the supreme elements in the management and discipline of colleges and universities, the young men and women in them will receive the best training in good citizenship. Self-government must create the experiences by which the mind becomes capable of apperceiving the doctrines of political economy.

The kindergartens were proscribed by the Prussian government because they threatened the tyranny of imperialism. The imperious spirit of the schools fought against the child's right to liberty, and the tyrant schoolmaster would have proscribed it, too, if he had possessed sufficient power. But the kindergartens flourish even in Prussia, and the kindergarten spirit will soon completely overcome the spirit of imperious domination in the state and in the school.

SELF-ACTIVITY.

The schools are beginning to understand the meaning of Frœbel's fundamental law of self-activity. When fully understood, this law is the most productive element in school work, and the surest test of true teaching.

There is a wide difference between activity and self-activity; between expression and self-expression.

Frœbel's ideal of self-activity was distinctly his own. It includes the motive to action, as well as the action. It means more than action in response to the will or suggestion of another, teacher or parent. It is the expression of the selfhood of the child; the execution of the plan of the individual who is acting. It includes the originating and directing power, as well as the operating power of the child. The action of the pupil in response to the direction of the teacher is infinitely more productive than mere receptivity, but not so developing as action in response to his own definite motive.

True self-activity is the only certain method of coördinating the brain of the child and developing its motor centers, and of revealing the child to its teacher and to itself in fruitful self-consciousness. It is the only way of overcoming the great weakness of humanity, which is shown by the possession of knowledge beyond the power of execution—of insight greater than the power of attainment. The highest power is the power to use power.

Self-activity is the only process by which we can secure accurate thinking by our pupils. We used to believe that our pupils were thinking while we talked to them. They did sometimes think, fortunately about things quite foreign to the subject under consideration. Then we imagined that they were thinking when we showed them pictures or things, or when we performed experiments before them. Each of these successive steps was a distinct improvement, when compared with the step below it in the advancing sequence. But no good school is now satisfied even with experiments by the teacher, either for the illustration or the discovery of truth. In chemistry, physics, botany, cooking, sloyd, and all forms

of manual training, each student is supplied with apparatus or tools and material with which to perform his own experiments and note his own discoveries.

This development is the outcome of the revelation of the principle of self-activity in the kindergarten. Frœbel's exercises in the kindergarten always had two parts or stages. In the first, the class followed the guidance of the teacher in gaining new knowledge or experience; and in the second, each child applied its own knowledge and experience in the expression of its own conceptions and purposes. This revelation of the "inner in the outer," Frœbel made the basis of the growth of selfhood and the training of operative and executive power.

Nearly all schools are yet in the first stage of Frœbel's process. The second stage is much more important. The knowledge and experience of the first are of little value unless they are applied in the second stage. The real growth of the individual results almost entirely from the work of the second stage. The growth of Frœbel's idea of self-activity has never been practiced; but its selfhood in pupils goes on to a limited extent in schools where growth is not due to the schools, but to the exercise of self-activity outside of school. The teachers of the world would be startled if they could examine the brain of a man who had been compelled to submit to ordinary school processes during all his waking hours till he was twenty-one years of age. Brain growth, especially in the motor centres, and the unfolding of selfhood yet depend chiefly on the work and play of the children outside of school.

Many schools are now making a partial application of Frœbel's self-activity in some departments of school work. In drawing, the teacher is not satisfied with giving new thought or new elements of beauty to the pupils; each child makes its own use of the new element in making an original design or an independent application of it in association with the knowledge previously acquired. Writing and grammar are no longer taught as ends, in good schools, but as means in self-expression. Composition is no longer a dreadful formality, but is a means of revealing in visible form the conceptions of each child. When compositions have to be written as home exercises, wise teachers do not assign the subjects, but allow the pupils to select their own subjects. True self-expression means more than a statement of views in regard to questions or subjects chosen by others; it means the expression of opinions on the subject most prominent in the mind and most vitally related to the life of the writer.

There is no department of school work in which a thorough understanding of Frœbel's law of self-activity will work greater reforms than in the work of oral reading. Thoughtful teachers are awakening to the fact that the expression of the thoughts of others does not develop power to express our own. The habit of thought expression without original thought conception prevents the development of the power to think, and destroys the natural unity between original thought and its definite expression. If a training in the full interpretation and perfect expression of the best thoughts of the greatest writers could develop the power of self-expression, then actors would inevitably be the best speakers in the world, as they are unquestionably the best interpreters of the thought and feeling of the masterpieces of literature. But, notwithstanding the fact that they are accustomed to appear before large audiences, and should therefore be free from distracting self-consciousness, few actors are able to express their own views with clearness and freedom. No subject in the whole range of school work needs to be considered by teachers more carefully than the subject of reading. The methods now in use have sent out from the schools at least ninety-seven per cent. of the pupils without an interest in any definite, systematic course of reading; they destroy the natural power of expression, they make pupils weakly self conscious, and they fail to give them the highest power of true self-expression.

Oliver Wendell Holmes said: "I had no instruction in grammar or language when I was at school. I learned to write by having something to say, and trying to say it in the best way." Henry Irving said to the students of Harvard: "If you are true to your individuality, and have great, original thoughts, they will find their way to the hearts of others as surely as the upland waters burst their way to the sea."

The greatest opportunity for teachers to make valuable discoveries in their professional work is to be found in extending the application of Frœbel's law of self-activity in the methods of teaching.

PLAY.

The kindergarten, by making play an organic part of actual school work, has led teachers to regard it as an important, if not an essential, educational process, and has done much to change educational ideals and reveal the truth that the communication of knowledge is not the highest duty of the school.

Play is now recognized as the best agency in securing the complete development of the child's physical life; but it accomplishes

much more than physical growth and energy. It is the best possible process by which the motor brain can be increased in size and coördinated with the sensory brain. It lays the basis for energetic character. It reveals the absolute importance of individual training as an essential to the success of the club or team. Every cricket, lacrosse, football, and baseball player knows, that, if there is one weak man on the team, the whole team is weakened. Play makes clear, also, the power of organized action. These two lessons are the most important lessons the race has to learn, and play is the best objective, realistic, experimental method of revealing them.

TRUE OBJECTIVE TEACHING.

Frœbel's use of material has done much to improve the methods of using objects in school. English and American teachers at first completely failed to grasp the aim of Pestalozzi in his objective work. His chief purpose was to define and develop the senses so that they might be reliable agents of the brain. English and American teachers saw in his object teaching but a new method of acquiring knowledge rapidly and definitely, and objective teaching deteriorated into formal information lessons concerning common objects. The English Education Department proved its wisdom by prohibiting what were called object lessons in England, and their re-introduction into English schools resulted from the elevation of the ideals of teachers as a result of Frœbel's better use of material in the kindergarten. Frœbel made a much higher use of material than Pestalozzi. He aimed, not merely to define the child's powers but to develop its selfhood, by allowing it to use varied material as a means of self-expression in revealing its own conceptions and in transforming its material environment so as to subordinate it to high purposes.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Frœbel's use of material in the kindergarten has completely changed the ideals in regard to manual training. Educators now demand that all children, and not a few, shall have manual training; that manual training be given before the age of fourteen; and especially that manual training shall be introduced into schools for educational instead of economic or industrial reasons. There is an economic element in manual training, but it is subordinate to the educational element. The greatest function of manual training is brain-making. The motor brain has been neglected in the schools; manual training not only develops the motor brain but coördinates it with the sensory brain.

INDIVIDUALITY.

The recognition of the divinity in the child as shown in the kindergarten is leading to universal reverence for the child's individuality. The watchword of good schools is now freedom, not coercive domination. Teachers stand beside or behind the child when they wish to educate it to its fullest limit. The old idea was to make all the pupils as much alike as possible. The new aim is to make them as unlike as possible. God's perfect harmony and true unity are based on the perfect inter-relation of unlike things. Unity is not sameness. Perfect harmony in music results from complete and definite expression of different tones at the same time. No two parts are alike, but if each part is perfect in its distinctive quality, the unity makes a perfectly harmonious whole, and the perfection of the unity depends on the distinctive perfection of each individual part. Each child has an individuality or selfhood peculiarly its own, and its best growth and work are possible only as its selfhood is developed.

CO-OPERATION OR COMMUNITY OF SPIRIT.

The greatest lesson taught by the kindergarten is the need of a new morality, based on a better understanding of the teaching of Christ in regard to community of aim and altruistic purpose. Frœbel saw in the perfect development of individual power as a basis for complete organic coöperation of the race the only process for the upward growth of humanity in wisdom, purity, and power. The individual growth was a means, not an end. Every part of his kindergarten system leads to the higher morality of Christian community of spirit. The schools should become the greatest agencies in training the race in unity of higher purpose, and in defining proper conceptions of inter-relationships and strengthening interdependence. It was Frœbel's aim to make the kindergarten and the school a little world, where responsibility is shared by all, individual rights respected by all, brotherly sympathy developed by all, and voluntary coöperation practiced by all. When Frœbel's educational principles have been practiced long enough to make them dominant elements in human character, there will be an end to the illogical socialism that demands compulsory coöperation in defiance of individual rights.

Frœbel's recognition of unity was so clear that it became the fundamental law of his system. He saw unity between man and nature; between man and God; between man's physical, intellectual and spiritual natures; between his receptive, reflective, and

executive powers; and between childhood, youth and maturity. He saw, too, the unity that should exist between the studies on the school curriculum. His kindergarten is the most perfect representation of practical correlation yet wrought out. The songs, games, stories, occupations, observation lessons, and all the work done by and for the little ones in a kindergarten, relate to one central, dominant purpose, which has some natural vital relationship to the child's life, and varies with the conditions by which the child is surrounded. Both Herbart and Frœbel saw the necessity for correlation; but to Frœbel correlation was a part of his universal law of unity, and, as usual with him, he made it a reality in his practical work, and thus the kindergarten is disclosing it to teachers.

APPERCEPTION.

Frœbel recognized the weakness of teaching which presented knowledge to the mind and trained the receptive agencies that they might bring it definitely to the mind but failed to train the mind itself to make it capable of comprehending and relating the knowledge presented to it, and neglected also to stimulate the mind so that it was anxious to receive the new knowledge and add it to the similar knowledge already possessed. The primary aim of the kindergarten, so far as mental development and mind storing are concerned, is to form apperceptive centres in the mind, so that all knowledge may be clearly comprehended and definitely related. Frœbel secured apperception in its highest and most productive form by his law of self-activity. In self-activity the originating element is the child's own mind. Activity results from interest first aroused in the mind of the individual who acts. The mind is not responsive merely to appeals from without; it is aroused and reaches out with living interest to find and grasp the new facts or principles. In the kindergarten the child's apperceptive centres are first defined, and then enlarged by active—not passive, or merely responsive—interest.

NATURE STUDY.

The kindergarten is unfolding to the schools a new and higher form of nature study. Frœbel led the child to study nature, not that its store of formal knowledge should be increased but that its life might be purified and the process of its own evolution to higher life revealed. Nature was to Frœbel a temple of life. He placed the child in sympathetic touch with nature in order that it might become acquainted with life in its growth processes and in

its evolution to higher life. He believed that life must be the central element in all true religious development. He knew that apperceptive centres were as essential in spiritual development as in mental growth, and he believed that the only possible way to form religious apperceptive centres in the child's nature is to bring it into loving attitude towards nature, that it may first see the life in nature, and then recognize the unseen life behind the life of nature. He would have the child reverence the life in nature so fully as not to destroy it wantonly. He trained the child in the kindergarten to sow seeds and water the plants that came from them in order that it might realize its power to start other life to grow and help the life to still higher, grander life. The consciousness in the mind of the child that it can aid plant life to greater life will by easy transition become in the mind of the man or woman a consciousness of power to aid other human lives to nobler life. This is the most productive and most elevating apperceptive center that can be implanted in human nature.

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

THE WORK AND WANTS OF THE PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITY.

CHANCELLOR BURWASH, VICTORIA UNIVERSITY, TORONTO.

In discussing this subject Dr. Burwash first considered at some length the relation and office of the university in the intellectual life of the country, and the work required to discharge this function. He then summed up this work as follows:

1. To lead in the provision of a broad, thorough course of higher culture at present required by about one in every two hundred of our population.

2. The provision of facilities for the best, most accurate and thorough learning in the departments of natural science, physical science and mathematics, historical science and philosophy, with provision of thorough working knowledge and solid scholarship in the most important languages and literature.

This second branch of the work of the university brings us into a third relation of the provincial university, viz.: 3. To be the helper and perfecter of all the special schools of professional knowledge, enabling them by the aid of the special departments of university learning to reach a much higher level than would be otherwise possible. Divinity, law, medicine in its various branches, engineering, agriculture, architecture, music and the fine arts, may all thus benefit by association with the university.

4. But perhaps the most important of all the work of the Provincial University is its relation to the teaching faculty of the country. We have in this province now about 3,000 university graduates, of whom one-sixth are teachers, exceeding in number any other profession, except the clerical. The preparation of these teachers for their work devolves very largely on the universities, and most largely upon the provincial university. Of the present collegiate institute and high school staff, 311 are graduates of Toronto and Victoria, 68 of other universities, 191 not being university graduates; the total by last report being 570. These university graduates have taken four years of their preparation at the university, and now one at the School of Pedagogy. It is evident that they are largely dependent on the university for several things: First, their accurate knowledge of the fundamentals of their subject; second, the broader scholarship which places that knowledge

in proper relation to other elements of education; third, the logical and psychological principles which underlie their work as teachers; and, fourth, that knowledge of the art of teaching itself which is gained by the imitation of good models. In all these respects the work of the university is most important, and, in fact, essential. Finally, this work must be done to supply the educational requirements of two millions of people for over a thousand students in arts, and directly or indirectly for nearly another thousand of professional students in affiliated schools.

But, before turning to the wants of the provincial university, we must first make a comparative inventory of the present resources of our university for this work. We may consider them under three heads—Capital, Equipment, Staff.

The net capitalized resources of our university are estimated in the last report at $3,683,201.26. Of this sum $1,434,230.21 are invested in site, buildings, and equipments; $1,019,827.91 are invested in unproductive lands; $400,023.13 in leased lands, and $867,696.21 in productive endowments. To this statement of capital must be added that of income, as follows:

Income from Endowments	$76,144 89
Income from Fees, etc	43,748 75
Total	$119,893 64

For the sake of comparison we may place beside our figures those of twelve leading universities of the United States:

Leland Stanford	764	$20,000,000
Chicago	976	12,000 000
Harvard	2,966	12,000,000
Columbia	1,641	10,000,000
Cornell	1,700	6,500,000
Johns Hopkins	551	3 870,000
California	1,082	3,700,000
Pennsylvania	2,055	3,529,000
Yale	1,969	3,147,000
Minnesota	1,620	2,200,000
Wisconsin	1,287	2,000,000
Michigan	2,778	1,750,000

It must be added that these figures represent available resources in each case, and, in the case of all the lower figures, they represent principally buildings, grounds and equipments, which are supplemented by large state grants to income, or by large fees paid by students. The annual income of no one of these institutions is less than a quarter of a million, and in some

cases it is beyond the million. Each one of these institutions has in lands, buildings, and equipments an amount equal to Toronto, with the exception of Johns Hopkins and Michigan, who have plain buildings and no large investments in lands, but large investment in apparatus and libraries.

The next aspect of a university is its equipment for university work. The first element is the library. We have a library of about 50,000 volumes, fairly well selected. The universities enumerated stand as follows in bound and unbound volumes in library: 720, 235, 232, 200, 160, 160, 100, 100, 53, 37, 32, 16, thousand in each case.

The next aspect of university work is laboratories. We have not large, but well-arranged and convenient laboratories for biology, chemistry, physics and psychology. Closely related to laboratories is apparatus; in fact we may judge of the efficiency of the laboratory by the apparatus with which it is furnished. Our apparatus and museum are valued at $43,000, one-half of which is in the museum and biological department, fairly well equipped for work. About $12,000 in physics and $5,000 in chemistry, $1,500 in psychology, all fairly furnished. In mathematics, astronomy, geology and mineralogy, we are almost without outfit, with the exception of the collection of Canadian typical minerals recently purchased.

Again, we may compare our total outfit with that of the twelve leading universities named, which stand as follows. As the figures include library, we must add our library, making our equipment $167,294. Of the twelve American universities in four cases there are no separate returns. The highest equipment is Harvard, $750,000, the lowest is $150,000. Four stand 750, 585, 575, 300. Four 185, 170, 150, 150.

We next turn to staff. In considering staff, we shall not consider the professional faculties, as they are so largely represented by affiliated colleges that neither income, resources, nor staff can be included in the estimate, though they add greatly to the strength and prestige of the uinversity, placing it in the first rank of the universities of the continent. On the other hand, we will include the arts faculty of Victoria, as all arts students of Victoria are also arts students of Toronto, and as the arts faculty of Victoria is thus directly engaged in doing the arts work of the university as a whole:

1. The classical department, including Latin and Greek languages, literature, history, philosophy and comparative philology—Eight men: four professors and four lecturers.

2. English, including old English and philology, rhetoric and English literature—Three men: two professors and a lecturer, with partial help from two others, equal to full work of four men.

3. Moderns, including German, French, Italian and Spanish—Thirteen men: five professors and associate professors, three lecturers and five other instructors.

4. Oriental languages—Three men: two professors and a fellow.

6. Department of philosophy—Four men: two professors and two lecturers.

7. Department of history and the political sciences, including economics, jurisprudence, constitutional law, constitutional history and general history—Five men: four professors and a fellow.

8. Department of mathematics, including astronomy—Three men: a professor, a lecturer and a fellow.

9. Department of physics—Five men: a professor, a lecturer, two demonstrators and a fellow.

10. Department of chemistry—Five men: a professor, lecturer, two demonstrators and a fellow.

11. Department of biology—Five men: a professor, associate professor, lecturer, demonstrator and fellow.

12. Department of geology and mineralogy—Two men: a professor and a fellow.

It will thus be seen that the curriculum in arts of our university involves the labour of no less than fifty-seven men, instructing 1,013 students, of whom eleven are in Victoria. For a B.A. curriculum, pass and honor, and not including any postgraduate curriculum, this staff would at first sight appear to be about adequate. But when it is remembered that our curriculum is the heaviest on the continent, including a large part of what is given in other universities as postgraduate work, it will be found that we are weaker than any of the twelve American universities which we have selected for comparison. Commencing with Harvard, they stand as follows: 140, 138, 111, 109, 103, 88, 79, 72, 70, 68, 65, 35. The three last names are Minnesota, Wisconsin and California.

In proposing the question, What are the wants of our provincial university? there are two distinct points of view from which it may be answered: 1. What is needed in the present educational programme and curriculum for the proper balance and completeness of our work? 2. What would be required on the basis of such a reorganization of work and curriculum as

would place us more closely in line with the curricula of the English universities and of the universities of the United States ?

1. Following our present line of policy, two departments are without adequate staff or equipment, and three others should be strengthened. For geology and mineralogy we need an additional instructor, building and laboratories. For mathematics and astronomy, an observatory and equipment and additions to the staff are needed. In philosophy, the branch of metaphysics should be developed to the old-time rank held by Prof. Young. In English, the staff should be enlarged to admit of the most thorough work in rhetoric and composition. In political science, the subject of constitutional history and philosophy should be developed to rank of the other subdivisions of the department.

Again, provision should be made that our choice young men who have served their apprenticeship as fellows and lecturers should not be lost to the university when they are becoming most valuable. The present large and efficient staff is maintained only by paying men salaries less than are offered in high schools.

Last of all, the trustees tell us when any of these important needs are pressed upon their attention that the first of all wants is the means to keep out of debt, and that even our present staff needing enlargement and better support, and our present equipment, so decidedly inadequate in some points, is beyond our present means. We need a hundred thousand dollars additional endowment to make income equal to present expenditure, two hundred thousand to place the department of geology and mineralogy upon a satisfactory basis, and two hundred thousand more for the development of other departments referred to above; and even then we are in annual expenditure a hundred thousand dollars below the minimum standard of the first-class American university. I mean below in dollars, not in brains or work.

But this measure of improvement, which is pressing for immediate attention, is not all that we could desire. There is, without doubt, a serious fault in our present system. It is not the ideal system, but one which has been forced upon us by our necessities. We are crowding postgraduate work into our B.A. course. We are crowding it in because our young men require it and will get it somewhere, and because we cannot afford the postgraduate course to which it properly belongs. The undergraduate course has its natural delimitations, which cannot practically be changed. At the one end the collegiate institute hands the student over with a preparation pretty definitely fixed as to its extent. Our children are born to-day as ignorant as they were

two thousand years ago. Life is as short as ever. The work of life is more pressing than ever. School and college days cannot be indefinitely prolonged. A boy on the average should be through his public school course at 13, the high school at 17, and his B.A. at 21. Nothing but financial necessities will very materially prolong these limits. To attempt to make a man a specialist within those limits of time is to make him a very immature specialist, and at the same time a very narrow pedant. We have abundance of narrow, pedantic, fragmentary specialism outside of college halls. By all means let us not suffer it to invade the university. The watchword of the university should ever be the broadest and highest culture. A university degree should at least always imply that, even if it does not imply profound or extensive scholarship. Scholarship at twenty-one must almost always be immature. But it may be fairly broad and thoroughly well grounded. Building upon this foundation, at 25 a man may have acquired a profession, or may claim to be a specialist in some one department; but this implies a postgraduate course collateral with the professional. If an additional year in all our courses were devoted to general work, we would have at once room for the first year of postgraduate work, and, as means became available and the demands of the country required, a second, and even a third, could be added, giving full provision, first, for the M.A. degree, and subsequently for the doctor's degree. At present we have provision for more than can advantageously be put into the B.A. course, while we are still short of the means for a full and efficient postgraduate course. To accomplish this we need an increase of our endowment of a million dollars, either by making our present unproductive property available, or by an annual subsidy from the province, or in gifts from private beneficence. Why should not all three be united ? Some parts of our work are so closely related to the material interests of the whole country that from purely commercial considerations the whole country might well contribute to their support. Others may well appeal to the sympathies of generous and broad-minded men, to whom Providence has entrusted large wealth. Why should not Toronto merchant princes follow the example of McDonald, or Smith, or Stephen, or Redpath, or Morrice, in Montreal ? No man could erect a more enduring or a more worthy monument to perpetuate his memory than a memorial chair, which would constitute him a co-worker in the higher thought of our land for generations to come. If this were but done to meet the present pressing needs for our more advanced ambitions, we could perhaps wait until our unproductive capital became available.

THE ONTARIO SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY.

I. M. LEVAN, B.A., TORONTO.

The principle of requiring some professional knowledge of those who purpose to engage in the work of teaching is by no means new. In theory it is as old as Socrates; it was advocated by Mulcaster in England as far back as the reign of Elizabeth. In practice it goes back to the sixteenth century, to the schools of the Jesuits. But for almost three centuries it was abandoned, and when revived it was regarded as a new and important discovery in the realm of Pedagogics. In Ontario its usefulness in fitting public school teachers for their work was first tested by the establishment of normal schools, and subsequently was extended by the establishment of model schools in every county of this province. Its usefulness in this department of educational work is almost universally conceded.

But the recognition of the validity of the principle as applied to the preparation of secondary teachers for their work is not of so early birth. On this continent it was first recognized in Ontario, where in 1885 two collegiate institutes were utilized for four months of the year for the training of high school assistants and first-class public school teachers in the art of teaching. To these schools, known as training institutes, others were added, till in 1888 five collegiate institutes in various parts of the province were employed for this purpose. The course here consisted of observation and practice in teaching, under criticism of the departmental masters. This course was followed by an examination in the theory and art of teaching; and the candidate's practical work at the training institute was considered in determining his success or failure.

The weakness of this arrangement was that the teaching of the apprentices was largely empirical, and little rational. Their teaching was chiefly imitative, and they were as likely to pick up the faults as the merits of the teaching they observed. To correct this defect, to make the teaching more a matter of reason and less a matter of blind imitation, an important step was taken in 1889: a School of Pedagogy was established in Toronto for instructing candidates on the doctrinal side, and to this school the training institutes were affiliated. The term of four months was broken into two parts. During the first half candidates were instructed in the theory of education at the School of Pedagogy in Toronto;

the second half was spent, as before, in observation and practice-teaching in the training institutes. But the term of instruction was too brief for the candidate to reap the full advantage of his training, either on the practical or on the theoretical side; there was, moreover, no assurance that he carried into practice in his teaching in the training institutes the doctrines he learned at the School of Pedagogy. Accordingly, in 1891, the outside training institutes were dropped, and the two then existing Toronto collegiate institutes were affiliated in their stead; and the theoretical and the practical work was carried on concurrently for the full term of four months. This arrangement, however—the nearest approach to a satisfactory one that the school has yet seen—lasted for only one year. Since then the School of Pedagogy has been left without affiliated practice schools.

Another important step in the history of the school was taken in 1893, when the time of instruction was lengthened to the academic year of eight months. And again an important step has just been taken in the affiliation of the collegiate institute at Hamilton with the school, and its approaching removal to that city.

Such, in brief, is the history of the School of Pedagogy, or, as it is hereafter to be called, the Ontario Normal College. It was founded in the belief that there is a science as well as an art of education. There are some, I know, who deny that such a science exists; who maintain that teaching is an imitative art; that we teach as we have been taught; and that the best preparation for teaching is association with university professors of wide scholarship; who declare that in a School of Pedagogy method is esteemed above scholarship; that instruction in method fosters formalism, deadens originality, and encourages dull uniformity.

But does experience show that this position is tenable? If teaching is an imitative art, and we teach as we have been taught, does it not follow that poor teaching will beget poor teaching? that one who has been taught by poor teachers can never himself become a good teacher? and that those who have studied under good teachers cannot choose but become good teachers? Again, is it true that scholarship and the power to teach go hand in hand? Can we not all recall instances where men whose broad, deep scholarship was unquestioned, have proved signal failures as teachers? In short, does not experience prove that while scholarship is an absolutely necessary element of good teaching, it is by no means the only element?

Does not this argument, too, overlook the fact that the teaching of the high school and the teaching of the university are essen-

tially different in matter and in method? In the university the lecture method is largely employed; the lecture method is wholly unfit for high school teaching. The method of teaching employed in the university does not, therefore, provide the graduate with a method for high school teaching. But does not a university degree fully equip him with the subject matter of high school teaching. Let us see. Take classics, for example. The subject matter of classics, as taught in the university, is chiefly philosophy, history and poetry. Is this the subject matter of classics as taught in the high school? It is a part, indeed, but a very small part; of the teaching of classics in the high school, three-fourths (I think I am well within the mark) is taken up with grammar and composition. The university professors must take it for granted that university students possess a sufficient knowledge of grammar to serve as a key to the higher study; and as a consequence the graduate carries with him from the university halls but little more knowledge of this branch of the subject than he carried with him when first he entered those halls. This is not cited as a reproach to the university. The university has not time to teach everything that is a fit subject of study in classics; nor is it to be blamed for preferring the higher work to the lower and less liberalizing.

In other departments of study also there is the same difficulty. Arithmetic and English grammar play an important part in the curriculum of the high school; what part do they play in the teaching of the university? And other subjects might be enumerated, in which, either in their matter or in their method, the teaching of the university differs from that of the high school; but those I have mentioned must suffice.

We must not, therefore, conclude that a university course is of no practical use to a student who intends to teach. It is certainly of use, and of great use, to him. In many subjects it does give him that special knowledge which he is expected to teach. But even when it does not give him that special knowledge, it gives him what, to a teacher, is of incalculable value. It gives him power to master new subjects in a short time; it gives him breadth of view; it gives him stores of knowledge by which his teaching may be enriched and vitalized; it gives him culture; and it gives him, if he is strong enough to stand it, something more that is of priceless value to the teacher—humility, and a love of knowledge for its own sake.

But, to return from this digression. The School of Pedagogy was founded in the belief that there is a science as well as an art of education; that this science looks to psychology for its laws

and principles, and uses the laws and principles established by psychology to test the efficacy of method. This view of pedagogy does not, indeed, as is so often alleged, exalt method at the expense of scholarship. It regards scholarship—full, broad, and accurate scholarship—as a prime requisite in the teacher; but holds that scholarship alone is not a sufficient equipment for him, as experience has shown again and again that scholarship and the ability to teach do not always go hand in hand. Something more than scholarship is required,—the ability to impart knowledge, and to impart it in the proper way; for sometimes the way in which knowledge is acquired is of more value to the student than the knowledge that is acquired. And this ability exists in its highest efficiency only when it is based on a knowledge of mental action, a knowledge with which nature has richly endowed some teachers in the form of strong common sense, but which others are obliged to learn painfully through the study of doctrine.

The School of Pedagogy holds its sessions in the theatre of the Education Department. Its students are holders of senior leaving certificates or university degrees. Its teaching staff consists of twelve members, by whom instruction is given in educational psychology, the science of education, the history of education, school organization and management, methods of teaching mathematics, classics, English, modern languages, science, drawing and penmanship, and reading, military drill, gymnastics and calisthenics. On the doctrinal side, the method of teaching employed is largely the lecture method, though, where practicable, the method of interrogation is employed, and is growing in favor year by year. Two written examinations, conducted by the staff, are held each year, the results of which, taken in conjunction with the candidates' class work, form the basis of the report of the staff. Another examination, conducted by examiners not connected with the school, is also held; and the results of these three examinations, considered collectively, determine the success or the failure of the candidate. If successful, he receives an *interim* certificate, entitling him to teach for two years in a high school or collegiate institute. At the end of two years, if his work in the school-room is satisfactory to the high school inspectors, he receives a permanent certificate; otherwise he is lost in the mass of humanity.

Theoretically, therefore, the course of training and apprenticeship is of three years' duration, one year being spent in acquiring a knowledge of doctrine, two years in learning to apply that knowledge. But as no provision has been made by the Min-

ister of Education whereby the apprentice's teaching may receive oversight and direction from the head master under whom he may be engaged, we may safely say that, practically, the course of instruction is of but one year's duration. As has been already stated, there is now no practice school affiliated with the School of Pedagogy, and the instruction must, therefore lean largely to the scientific side. This is felt to be a serious defect, by which the work of the instructors in method is seriously hampered. To overcome this defect as much as they can, until the proposed affiliation with the Hamilton Collegiate Institute can be consummated, the lecturers on method resort to the only means in their power to show the application of the principles of instruction they lay down. The teachers of the model school are kind enough to bring their classes occasionally into the School of Pedagogy and teach lessons for observation. But the time of these teachers is almost wholly taken up with normal school work, and little can be spared for the School of Pedagogy. The only remaining alternative, therefore, is for the lecturers to treat the teachers in training themselves as a class to be taught, or to dispense altogether with practical teaching. Despite its obvious disadvantages, the former alternative is chosen. To these students, formed into a class, model lessons are occasionally taught by the lecturers, after the principles that govern the teaching, and the aim of teaching the subject have been laid down and considered. For example, a lesson, say, in English literature is assigned for preparation. It is prepared by the class from the teacher's point of view. On the appointed day the lesson is taught by the lecturer, the class meanwhile taking notes of the method of teaching it. On the following day this lesson is made the subject of criticism. Its merits and its defects are carefully weighed. The arrangement of the lesson, the method of presenting it, what was omitted, what was taken up, whether results were obtained by telling which should have been secured by questioning, whether questions were asked when the information should have been given by the teacher, whether the object of teaching the lesson was attained—these and other matters of like nature are all considered by the class. When there is a feeling of mutual confidence between the lecturer and the teachers in training, the privilege of criticism is not likely to be abused, and the resulting benefit of such criticism to the class is great.

Besides exercises of this kind, each teacher-in-training is expected to teach to his fellows some assigned lesson in each department of study. After a sufficient number of lessons has been

taught before the whole class, in order to relieve the strain of such teaching the whole class is broken up into sections, and each student conducts a recitation before the members of the section to which he belongs.

Such teaching is doubtless open to criticism. The conditions under which the student here teaches are not the conditions under which he will teach when he enters a high school. But, in the absence of a practice school, it is, perhaps, the best substitute that can be had. Such teaching is certainly not wholly valueless. Apart from the benefit he receives from the thorough preparation of a lesson with a view to teaching it under criticism, the teacher-in-training can in some measure by such teaching reveal to his critic his knowledge of the subject taught, his grasp of the subject in its entirety and in the relation of its parts, his power of presenting the lesson in an orderly and logical way, his ability to question searchingly and alluringly, his power to see wherein an answer is imperfect and to send a winged question straight into the heart of the error, and other qualities of like character. But he cannot to any appreciable extent reveal his power to govern a class except in so far as he shows it by strong personality and wide scholarship.

Here, too, the lesson is followed by criticism, or by a colloquy between the lecturer and the class on the lesson and its presentation. An attempt is made to search out what is good in the lesson and what is bad, and to show a reason for the opinions held. If some point of difficulty in the lesson has not been made clear, or has been awkwardly taught, it may be taken up and discussed; perhaps the teaching of it may be attempted by several members of the class, until it is satisfactorily disposed of. Other methods of presenting the whole lesson may be suggested by the lecturer or by the class. These suggestions are considered, and perhaps one or more of them tried.

From what has been said, it will be seen that, while method holds a prominent position in the teaching of the school, no attempt is made to teach it dogmatically, or to represent any given method as the only way in which a lesson should be taught. Indeed, no point is more strenuously insisted on than that it is false to suppose that there is only one right method of teaching a lesson. It is shown that there may be as many methods of presenting a lesson as there are teachers considering it, and all of them may be right, right because they conform to the test of all true method—adherence to the rational principles of teaching deduced

from psychology. Nor do we seek to destroy individuality in the teacher. Individuality is encouraged, except where the teacher's individuality is likely to come into collision with his pupils' interests.

I have here some statistics in connection with the school that may be of interest to this association. The first concerns the growth of the school. Since the term was lengthened to eight months, the numbers enrolled each year have been as follows*:—

YEAR.	GENTLEMEN.	LADIES.	TOTAL.
1893-94	48	34	82
1894-95	67	40	107
1895-96	85	75	160

It can hardly be supposed that this rapid increase in attendance is due to the popularity of the school. No school which interposes a barrier between the student and his goal can ever be popular in the ordinary acceptation of the term. To what, then, is it due? Perhaps this year in part to the expected removal of the school from Toronto. Perhaps more generally to the financial depression which makes a salaried position more than ever an object of desire. Perhaps, too, to the wider diffusion of higher education. All the high schools and universities are turning out a yearly increasing number of students with qualifications which procure them admission to the School of Pedagogy; and some of these, with no clear, determined purpose in view, but in sheer despair to know what to turn their hands to, drift into the school.

Another feature also is of interest. Of the 160 students enrolled this year, nearly half are women. The ratio of women to men has been growing each year; and before the century is ended there will probably be twice as many women as men in attendance. Of 70 who have university qualifications, 43 are men and 27 are women. Among the women, let me add, are some of the best teachers in the school.

A hopeful sign is that a good proportion of the most scholarly graduates of the universities are seeking admission to the teaching profession. Taking the class list of the University of Toronto for 1895, and using the first and second-class honor lists as the basis of examination, it will be found that there are in attendance at the School of Pedagogy in classics, 3 out of 9 graduates; mathematics, 2 out of 4 graduates; physics, 2 out of 5 graduates; English, 4 out of 7 graduates; modern languages, 7 out of 10 graduates; science, 4 out of 13 graduates.

* This includes those who attended voluntarily as well as those who were obliged to attend.

Finally, let us consider the aim of the school. Two ideas are current regarding the aim of the School of Pedagogy. According to one of these, it should protect those now engaged in teaching by preventing overcrowding in the ranks; according to the other, it is a place where all who offer themselves may be trained and prepared for the work of teaching. Neither of these views, I think, is wholly correct. We receive candidates who are born teachers, who have received from nature those endowments of mind and character which would make them successful teachers without any training whatever. We believe they are greatly benefited by receiving a training; but no examination can bar them out of the profession, if they desire to enter it; and by their admission the profession is enriched and ennobled. Others we receive whom nature never intended for teachers, and whom no amount of training can make teachers. But the great majority belong to neither of these classes, but to a middle class, endowed with a germ of teaching power that is capable of great development. This is the class who are most benefited by the school, and who may succeed or fail, according as they show scholarship, industry and character.

What, then, is the aim of the school, and what should it do for the high schools? Stated briefly, the aim of the school should be to safeguard the interests of all who are concerned in secondary education. It should safeguard the interests of high school pupils (and of the public generally) by protecting them against incompetent teachers, and by providing them with teachers who possess scholarship, have thought on the problems of teaching, and have had a little training in the art of teaching. It should safeguard the interests of high school teachers by excluding from the profession (as a year's special training undoubtedly does) those who would like to use the teaching profession as a stepping stone to some other occupation, and are not prepared to throw all their energy into the arduous work of teaching; and also by assisting to bring about a very desirable state of affairs—the permanency of good teachers in the profession. And, finally, it should safeguard the interests of candidates for the teaching profession by obliging them to consider and solve in advance many of the difficulties they will meet in the actual presentation of lessons to their classes; and by guarding them against errors of teaching or government into which their inexperience might easily betray them, and by which their influence might be wholly destroyed.

With this let me conclude, that the training of teachers for secondary schools is in the educational atmosphere, and has apparently come for good. Chairs of pedagogy are being established in many of the most progressive universities of the United States. The establishment of institutions for the training of secondary teachers is one of the important recommendations of the British Royal Commission on Secondary Education; it is a strong recommendation of the famous Committee of Fifteen; and it is ably and urgently advocated by President Schurman, of Cornell University, in the April *Forum*, who predicts that such institutions "will uplift, ennoble, and liberalize the teaching profession—which is in constant danger of degenerating into a sorry trade—as schools of law, medicine and technology have already dignified the callings of the lawyer, the doctor, and the engineer."

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

OUR DEBT AS TEACHERS TO MATTHEW ARNOLD.

D. R. KEYS, M.A., TORONTO.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Modern Language Teachers' Association:

My first words to you this morning must be words of gratitude for the honor you did me last year in electing me your President for this session. I felt it keenly at the time, I feel it now, and I shall ever feel it to be one of the highest honors it has been my fortune to win. As teachers, I think you will agree with me that such marks of esteem help us, beyond all else, to endure the mill round of our life. What a teacher needs above all is sympathy—sympathy both objectively and subjectively; others may do without it, to him it is a prime necessity. You have shown me this sympathy, and I thank you for it—more especially my old pupils and my old friends, to whom I must remain a debtor—

> "Lacking the skill to utter one of all the nameless feelings that course through my breast."

Our Association, as most of you are aware, was founded independently for teachers of modern languages, including English, and existed as a separate body for several years. Although it has been incorporated as a part of the Ontario Educational Association, its objects are still the same, and it still includes the teachers of modern languages and English among its members. In selecting a subject to bring before you this morning, I thought it not inappropriate to consider our debt to one who in an eminent sense was qualified to represent modern languages and English—one whose life was mainly devoted to school work—one whose influence upon education in England and in Ontario has not been equalled. Other men may have had more influence in England; Dr. Ryerson and one or two others doubtless had more influence in Ontario; but no man has had so much influence, both in England and Ontario, as had Matthew Arnold. It must not be forgotten that there is a great difference between English institutions and our own; that this difference is not less pronounced in our school system than in our social system; that much of what Matthew Arnold had to say upon school

questions bears little more upon Ontario than it would have done if he had been a Chinese inspector instead of an English one. When, for instance, in his general report for the year 1852, he deals with the high rate of fees in Wesleyan schools, its effects on discipline, instruction, and class of scholars, we feel that this is only of antiquarian interest to us; but when we see in the next paragraph what he has to say of Welsh schools, we feel that this is not a dead issue. And when we remember the place he held as a master of English style; when we remember his intimate acquaintance with French literature — an acquaintance vouched for by no less an authority than Sainte-Beuve himself; when we remember his devotion to German Goethe, and his admiration of the German educational system; I say, when we remember these things, we shall admit that few subjects should suit an audience of modern language and English teachers better than Matthew Arnold.

Arnold was a teacher, and the son of a teacher. Quick, in his book on educational reformers, finds it singularly appropriate that the first special subjects set at the Cambridge examination for teachers in 1880 were Locke and Dr. Arnold. He goes on to characterize Dr. Arnold as "perhaps the greatest educator of the English type, i.e., the greatest educator who had accepted the system handed down to him, and tried to make the best of it." "Locke," he says, "on the other hand, . . . refused the traditional system, and appealed from tradition and authority to reason. Could we come nearer to a correct description of what Matthew Arnold tried to do than this? He refused the traditional system, and appealed from tradition and authority to reason. This was his method, not alone in matters of school reform, but in that wider criticism of life in which he seems to have felt specially called upon to engage, and to which he devoted so many volumes of his prose works. His highest aim in life was "to make reason and the will of God prevail." In this, therefore, we may observe how great was the difference between the father and the son. As Swinbourne put it in his telling way, when he hailed Matthew Arnold as a fellow-fighter against the Philistines: "Hail, David, son of Goliath!" His father, however, had the training of him, and it is well that we have in Matthew Arnold—the steady upholder of the continental methods—one who was himself educated under the old rule of Latin hexameters and Greek Alcaics. I need not apologize to

an audience of teachers for citing an account of the schooling of those days. "I went to Oxford from the sixth form (the highest class) of a public school. I had at that time read all Thucydides, except the sixth and seventh books; the six first books of Herodotus; the early books of each author I had done at least three times over. I had read five plays of Sophocles, four of Æschylus—several of these two or three times over; four perhaps or five of Euripides; considerable portions of Aristophanes, nearly all the Odyssey; only about a third of the Iliad, but that several times over; one or two dialogues of Plato; not quite all Virgil; all Horace; a good deal of Livy and Tacitus; a considerable portion of Aristotle's Rhetoric, and two or three books of his Ethics; besides, of course, other things. I had been used to do my very best in translating in the class. We were not marked, but expressions of approbation graduated carefully, and invaribly given by the rule so formed, were quite sure to let every boy know how he had done his part. We were wont, moreover, to do three long original exercises every week out of school."

Such was the English public school training in the first half of this century. And this was followed by three years more of Greek Iambics and Ciceronian prose at Oxford. Well might young Clough cry out: "Surely there was more in the domain of knowledge than that Latin and Greek which I had been wandering about in for the last ten years!"

The influence of the classical training on Matthew Arnold is not less pronounced than it was in the works of Clough, but Arnold found that the domain of knowledge had a Goethe as well as a Homer, a Sainte-Beuve as well as a Cicero. We, as modern language teachers, must congratulate ourselves that it was so; and that when we listen to Arnold's panegyrics on the great French and German critics, we can feel that the speaker was trained in the school-rooms of Rugby and the halls of Oxford.

In Oxford, Arnold won the Balliol scholarship and the Newdigate prize for poetry. As a poet, indeed, he shared with his friend Clough the leadership of the so-called Oxford School. His work in this field may be characterized briefly. Every poet is, of course, both preacher and teacher, and the doctrines of self-control, of serene calm in the presence of the insoluble mysteries of life, of living with the highest moral aims, even though there should be no hereafter, are taught consistently in the poetry of Matthew Arnold.

With Arnold, however, poetry was but an avocation, not the main business of life. In 1851 he was appointed one of Her Majesty's inspectors of schools through the influence of Lord Lansdowne, whose secretary he had been. No doubt this position as inspector, along with his hereditary bent for teaching, led him to take the *role* of a general critic of life and manners in England. In this capacity he wrote "Culture and Anarchy," a book which procured for Arnold the title of the "Apostle of Culture," by which name he is likely to be known as long as English literature survives. In his essays on Joubert, Arnold has made two classes for the immortal among literary men. "There are the famous men of genius in literature—the Homers, Dantes, Shakespeares—their praise is for ever and ever. Then there are the famous men of ability in literature—their praise is in their own generation. Of this second kind there are some whom the outskirmishers of the new generation, its forerunners, recognize as of the same family and character with the sacred personages, exercising, like them, an immortal function, and, like them, inspiring a permanent interest. They will never, like Shakespeare, command the homage of the multitude; but they are safe; the multitude will not trample them down." So it will be, I believe, with Matthew Arnold himself, and largely because he foreshadows the wider spirit of the coming time. That large cosmopolitanism which made him so clear-sighted to the merits of foreign nations is evidence of this. It needs no prophet's eye to perceive this tendency towards the unification of humanity. And, as openness of mind and flexibility of intelligence increase, we cannot doubt that his fame, who did so much to promote openness of mind and flexibility of intelligence, will also increase.

But what in the meantime has he done for his countrymen? He has shown them their narrowness, as Thackeray showed them their snobbery. Thomas Carlyle said that England contained twenty millions of inhabitants, mostly fools. Carlyle was a Scotchman, and, as a critic of English life, is liable to the objection made by Mary Stuart to the English critics: "Der Britte kann gegen den Schotten nie gerecht sein."

But Arnold was an Englishman, and the son of an Englishman, and from his judgment there can, on the score of national prejudice, be no appeal. He has classified the great English people as Barbarians, Philistines, and Populace. They consist of "an upper class materialized, a middle class vulgarized, and

a lower class brutalized." The sharpest of his judgments is that expressed through the mouth of the Prussian Arminius, a character in "Friendship's Garland," one of the most delightful satirical works of our time. The middle class, the ruling class of England is there (p. 340) described: "Your middle class is educated, to begin with, in the worst schools of your country, and our middle class is educated in the best of ours. What becomes of them after that? The fineness and capacity of a man's spirit is shown in his enjoyments; your middle class has an enjoyment in its business, we admit, and gets on well in business, and makes money, but beyond that? Drugged with business, your middle class seems to have its sense blunted for any stimulus besides, except religion. . . . . What other enjoyments have they? . . In England, the highest class seems to have the monopoly of the world of enjoyment; the middle class enjoys itself, as your Shakespeare would say, in hugger-mugger, and possesses life only by reading in the newspapers, which it does devoutly, the doings of great people. Talk of the present state of development and civilization in England, meaning England as they represent it to us! Why, the capital, pressing danger of England is the barbarism of her middle class; the civilization of her middle class is England's capital, pressing want.

Arnold saw with a clearness due to his freedom from any delusion of national pride such as clouds the view of most Englishmen, that the times are changed, and that ours is an era of intelligence. He saw, too, as one in his position was specially fitted to see, that in pure intelligence, what the Germans call Geist, the Englishman, whatever his natural endowment might be, was falling—nay, had fallen—behind the German, owing to the latter's superior training. Through the pen of Arminius, he has exhorted the English Philistine middle class to get Geist; to search, and not rest till they see things as they really are. In the same paragraph he has given the Philistines food for thought in the startling contrast between the German and English programmes. "I have told you our German programme—the elevation of the whole people through culture. That need not be your English programme; but surely you may have some better programme than this, your present one—the beatification of a whole people through clap-trap."

Let us hear in his own words what he considers the task of our time to be: "The modern problem [is] to make human life, the life of society all through, more national and rational; to

have the greatest possible number of one's nation happy. Here is the standard by which we are to try ourselves and one another now, as national grandeur, in the old regal and aristocratical conception of it, was the standard formerly." (*Ibid.* p. 338.)

In the same work Matthew Arnold warned the English that their prestige abroad was much diminished. No one who travels much on the Continent can fail to be struck with the truth of this warning. Recent events must have convinced the most insular and stay-at-home of Englishmen how complete was England's isolation—an isolation which Matthew Arnold would not have called splendid. Perhaps the best result of that isolation was the way in which it acted upn the other great branch of the Anglo-Saxon race. What has Matthew Arnold to say of this younger member of the family? Another of his friends (not the author of Greater Britain, but probably the same G. S. spoken of so kindly by J. R. Lowell in his essay "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners" is allowed to speak on the subject in "Friendship's Garland" (p. 355): "Look at America; it is the same race; whether we are first or they, Anglo-Saxonism triumphs. You used to say they had all the Philistinism of the English middle class, from which they spring, and a great many faults of their own besides. But you noticed, too, that blindly as they seemed following the star of their god Buncombe, they showed at the same time a feeling for ideas, a vivacity and play of mind, which our middle class has not, and which comes to the Americans probably from their democratic life, with its ardent hope, its forward stride, its gaze fixed on the future . . . . Then, if you talk of culture, look at the culture their middle, and even their working, class is getting, as compared with the culture ours are getting. The trash which circulates by the hundred thousand among our middle classes has no readers in America; . . all our best books, books which are read here by only the small educated class, are in America the books of the great reading public." The time came when Matthew Arnold saw for himself this American branch of the race, and gave his opinion of it. It was the last article he published, appearing in the "Nineteenth Century" the month he died, under the title "Civilization in the United States." He admits the charm of their women. "The American woman in general . . . is herself, enjoys her existence, and has consequently a manner happy and natural. It is her great charm; and it is, moreover, a real note of civilization, and one which

has to be reckoned to the credit of American life and of its equality." But the dangerous side of democracy and the contrast afforded by the American man are brought out in the following passage: "Far from admitting that their average man is a danger, and that his predominance has brought about a plentiful lack of refinement, distinction and beauty, they declare in the words of my friend Col. Higginson, a prominent critic at Boston, that Nature said, some years since, 'Thus far the English is my best race, but we have had Englishmen enough; put in one drop more of nervous fluid and make the American.' And with that drop a new range of promise opened on the humar race, and a lighter, purer, more highly organized type of humanity was born.'"

If the English newspapers are bad, the American are worse. "The Americans used to tell me that what they valued was news, and that this their newspapers gave them. I at last made the reply: 'Yes, news for the servants' hall.'" In summing up Mr. Arnold said: "What really dissatisfies in American civilization is the want of the interesting—a want due chiefly to a want of those two great elements of the interesting, which are elevation and beauty. And what the Americans now must urgently require is a steady exhibition of cool and sane criticism by their men of light and learning. And, above all, better newspapers."

I have touched upon Arnold as a poet, and have dwelt at some length upon his services in teaching the English people that the surest way to preserve their national glory was to train their intelligence. We must now consider more closely his views upon higher education as they appear in his purely pedagogical books. These are three in number: Higher Schools and Universities in Germany, 1868; A French Eton; and Reports on Elementary Schools, a posthumous work, consisting of whatever was permanently valuable in his nineteen general reports to the English Education Department.

Mr. Arnold's position as inspector of schools, to which he was appointed April 4, 1851, and which he resigned April 30, 1886, gave him an ample opportunity of studying the English educational system, and his work as an official investigator of the methods of foreign countries made him an admirable critic of the comparative merits of methods at home and abroad. The system of higher education, as outlined for England in his book on Higher Schools in Germany, approached very near that which

is in operation in Ontario. "Such a system," said Arnold, "can be properly organized only by an Education Minister, with the concert and advice of a Superior Council of Public Instruction, and, if necessary, with the help of a public grant." But it is not so much his ideas on universities that interest us here, but his ideas on school work. Everybody in the present audience ought to feel an interest in what Matthew Arnold had to say on the study of modern languages. "We have still to make the mother tongue and its literature a part of the school course; foreign nations have done this, and we shall do it; but neither foreign nations nor we have yet quite learnt how to deal, for school purposes, with modern foreign languages. The great notion is to teach them for speaking purposes, with a view to practical convenience." After citing Marsh's view, that the speaking of foreign languages tends to superficiality and straining of the mind, and after making what he considers a reductio ad absurdum in showing that the learning to speak a foreign language requires a student to spend his boyhood in the foreign country—an irreparable sacrifice—he continues: "So the learning to speak foreign languages, showy as the accomplishment always is, and useful as it often is, must be regarded as a quite secondary and subordinate school aim. Something of it may be naturally got in connection with learning the languages; and, above all, the instructor's precept and practice in pronunciation should be sound, . . . but all this part is to be perfected elsewhere, and is not to be looked upon as true school business. It is as literature, and as opening fresh roads into knowledge, that the modern foreign languages, like the ancient, are truly school business; and far more ought to be done with them, on this view of their use, than has ever been done yet."

This view makes too little of the value of the study of the spoken language; but we are not so likely to overlook that subject in Ontario at present as we are to overlook the study of modern languages as literature. With regard to the wider question of the collocation of studies, his views will meet with readier acceptance. "There should, after a certain point, be no cast-iron course for all scholars, either in humanistic or naturalistic studies. According to his aptitude, the pupil should be suffered to follow principally one branch of either of the two great lines of study; and, above all, to interchange the lines occasionally, following on the line which is not his own line, such studies as have yet some connection with his own line, or from any cause

whatever some attraction for him. . . . To realize this ideal fully the main thing needful is first, a clear central conception of what one can and should do by instruction. It is, secondly, a body of teachers in all the branches of each of the two main lines of study, thoroughly masters of their business, and of whom every man shall be set to teach that branch which he has thoroughly mastered, and shall not be allowed to teach any that he has not." Need I point out how closely we have approximated, or how anxiously we are trying to approximate, to this ideal? Some instances might be given to show how in special points we are following his advice almost to the letter.

Compare, for instance, his advice, so often repeated, that the study of the best English authors be made a part of the course of instruction of pupil-teachers, and that a short work of classical English poetry be prescribed for candidates for admission, with our own departmental prescriptions in connection with the examinations as contained in the circular of June, 1895. His approval of learning by heart extracts from good authors is also reflected in more than one place in the same circular.

On p. 182 of the Reports on Elementary Schools, Arnold says: "I hope to see the time when Latin, sensibly taught, will be part of the instruction of all pupil-teachers." The same hope was expressed last year by the Honorable G. W. Ross, Minister of Education, in an address to our Ontario Teachers' Association.

The use of a uniform system of text-books, which Arnold found so useful in France and Germany, and recommended to the English education department, has been adopted for several years in Ontario. In view of the hostility sometimes expressed against such use, it may be well to hear what Arnold has to say on this subject: "I really think that it matters little, comparatively, what the text-book is so that it be uniformly adopted. Some of the books now in use are, no doubt, more perfect than others; but almost any one of those with which I am acquainted is adequate for its purpose. In grammar, for instance, the system of almost all of them has its rationale, capable of being comprehended by the mind, if the mind is kept steadily to it, and of serving as a clue to the facts; but, under the present system, the same person often uses one grammar as a scholar, another as a pupil-teacher, another as a student at a training school, another as a schoolmaster. Every one of these grammars following a different system, he masters the rationale of none of them, and in

consequence, after all his labor, he often ends by possessing of the science of grammar nothing but a heap of terms jumbled together in inextricable confusion."

The care he bestowed on the inspection of school fittings and of school organization might be referred to as another parallel to our Ontario system. But perhaps the most important parallel is found in that part of our system which combines the work for a teacher's certificate with the work required for a university matriculation. We in Ontario have thus gone a long way towards realizing the ideal suggested by Arnold in one of his reports (p. 185): "It is my strong hope that it will soon become the rule for every young schoolmaster to matriculate at the London University."

In some respects, however, Arnold might have found fault with our system, especially to the plan of payment by results, although he recognizes the fact that this grant-earning examination "supplies a stimulus of a special and valuable kind" (p. 155). In his desire for simplicity, too, he might possibly have found in our complicated system something to cavil at, although here again we find him recognizing the need "for children under thirteen of elementary mechanics, animal physiology, physical geography and botany.

We may rest satisfied after these comparisons that our schools would not suffer under the indictment drawn up by Arnold against the English schools. We may also hope that our university system would escape the charge that he has made against the English universities: "It is in science that we have most need to borrow from the German universities. The French university has no liberty, and the English universities have no science; the German universities have both."

To his own university training may have been due the lack of system in his teaching with which he was charged by Frederic Harrison, the want of a philosophy—"of principles coherent, interdependent, subordinate and derivative." With his usual candor, and more than his customary humor, he accepts the impeachment. Unsystematic he undoubtedly was; but had he the less on that account a philosophy? An aim he certainly had, and this aim he held steadily in view, and with a success that is bearing fruit at the present day. His aim was to make people think, to interest them in the great problems of which he wrote; in his own words, "to make reason and the will of God prevail." No one can read his books without receiving a stimu-

lus to higher intellectual and spiritual life. His books have been read by thousands upon both sides of the Atlantic, and therefore he has succeeded in his intent, and has interested a great body of readers in these problems who would never for a moment have thought of reading Comte's philosophy, even in the charming recension of Mr. Frederic Harrison.

To sum up: We teachers are indebted to Matthew Arnold for three excellent books on education, in which we have an admirable exposition of the French and German systems, and a candid criticism of the schools of the mother country; we owe him also a debt of gratitude for the influence of his personal example. In the midst of a laborious life (how very laborious it was his letters have just revealed to us), he did not fail to cultivate an outside interest, to give the English world the benefit of his views on the great problems of life, to impress upon that public his conviction that they were falling behind the times in matters of education, and becoming besotted in their glorification of claptrap; above all, we owe him a stimulus, both moral and intellectual. He could say with his own Empedocles:

> "Yea, I take myself to witness,
> That I have loved no darkness,
> Sophisticated no truth,
> Nursed no delusion,
> Allowed no fear!
>
> And therefore, O ye elements! I know—
> Ye know it, too—it hath been granted me
> Not to die wholly, not to be all enslaved.
> I feel it in this hour. The numbing cloud
> Mounts off my soul; I feel it, I breathe free."

OCTAVE FEUILLET.

MAURICE QUENEAU, TORONTO.

Octave Feuillet n'est pas un inconnu pour vous ; deux de ses œuvres vous sont familières : " Le Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre," et " la Fée." Elles sont inscrites au programme de l'examen d'entrée à l'Université ; et, à ce titre, le nom d'Octave Feuillet excite-t-il chez vous un intérêt qui dérive en même temps de l'obligation où plusieurs d'entre vous sont de l'étudier et de l'attrait de ses productions.

En effet, pour faire comprendre aux élèves une œuvre étrangère, pour leur en donner le sens vrai, il est de toute nécessité de leur expliquer non pas seulement la lettre du livre, mais la pensée de l'auteur. Autrement un livre n'est qu'une suite de mots vides de sens.

Or, quelle est la pensée d'Octave Feuillet dans le " Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre " ? dans " La Fée " ?

La même que dans tous ses ouvrages ; et c'est à vous la bien faire comprendre que je vais m'appliquer.

Octave Feuillet est un optimiste. Né dans une situation de fortune excellente, n'ayant jamais connu ni revers ni déception, il n'admet pas la désespérance, et à l'homme de Werther, l' " Enfant du Siècle," tel qu'on le trouve dans Alfred de Musset, il oppose Jeanne d'Athole de " la Fée," Charlotte du " Journal d'une Femme," dont le charme, la grâce, la noblesse de cœur ramènent au sens de la vie de malheureux égarés du pessimisme ; car Octave Feuillet a ignoré l'âpre saveur du pessimisme !

Oh ! par exemple, pour atteindre ce résultat, Octave Feuillet ne recule devant aucune excentricité d'imagination ; il se rappelle volontiers que son enfance littéraire a été bercée aux rêves du Romantisme ; mais le Romantisme était illimité dans ses Rêves, tandis que les Rêves d'Octave Feuillet se limitent à une scène très déterminée ; ses créations n'ont plus ni le monde ni l'infini pour théâtre, mais un château aristocratique, un salon élégant ; et ce rapetissement du cadre, ce rapetissement de l'idée imaginative, tels que Théophile Gautier et Alfred de Musset les avaient conçus, créent chez Octave Feuillet le Romanesque.

Oui, toute l'œuvre d'Octave Feuillet est romanesque ; c'est de plus, une œuvre distinguée, élégante.

Octave Feuillet, écrivain, appartient au troisième Empire ; et on peut dire que ses œuvres sont la peinture élégante de la société qui

régnait en maîtresse aux Tuileries, à Compiégne, à Fontainebleau. Peinture que nous pouvons croire d'autant plus exacte, d'autant plus vraie, que l'auteur occupa jusqu'à la chute de l'Empire la place de "Bibliothécaire des Palais Impériaux"; admis dans l'intimité de l'Empereur, il lui avait été aisé d'observer et de juger la société quelque peu frivole de l'époque, mais si élégante, si exquise, et sur laquelle l'élément féminin, si brillant et si séduisant, exerça un aristocratique et toujours irrésistible empire!

Ausi combien gracieuses, combien charmantes, combien dangereuses, si elles pouvaient l'être, sont les héroïnes d'Octave Feuillet! Sous quelles aimables couleurs il nous les peint! Il les pare de toutes les séductions et déploie pour elles toutes les magies d'un style enchanteur.

Le style d'Octave Feuillet! Mais c'est la grâce même, c'est le parfum capiteux de la passion, c'est la vie dans toute sa puissance et sa splendeur.

"M. de Camors, comme perdu dans sa rêverie, avait les yeux fixés devant lui, sur la portière qui faisait face à la cheminée.—Tout-à-coup cette portière se souleva, presque sans bruit, et la marquise de Campvallon présenta sous les plis de la draperie son jeune front couronné.—Elle embrassa d'un regard l'intérieur du boudoir, et, après une pause, elle laissa retomber doucement la portière, et s'avança directement vers Camors étonné et immobile.—Elle lui prit les deux mains sans parler, le regarda profondément, jeta encore un rapide coup d'œil sur son mari endormi, et tendit ses lèvres au jeune homme.—Il eut le vertige, oublia tout, se pencha, et lui obéit.

"Elle reprit le chemin de la galerie. Camors la suivit. En passant sous la portière, elle se retourna et lui dit à demi-voix:

"Voilà le crime!" (Page 231.)

On a dit que le style d'Octave Feuillet était un style à l'eau de rose, en voulant dire qu'il manquait de consistance. Le pense qui voudra! Mais le passage, que je viens de lire, emprunté à M. de Camors, ne manque ni d'allure, ni d'énergie.

Ouvrez "Julia de Trécœur" et lisez ce portrait: "La pureté sévère de ses traits, l'éclat profond de son regard bleu frangé de longs cils noirs, l'exquise harmonie de ses formes, n' étaient pas ses seules, ni même ses principales séductions: elle devait son attrait rare et personnel à une sorte de grâce étrange, mêlée de souplesse et de force, qui enchantait ses moindres mouvements. Elle avait dans ses jeux de physionomie, dans sa démarche, dans ses gestes, l'aisance souveraine d'une femme qui ne sent pas un seul point faible dans sa beauté, et qui

se meut, se développe et s'épanouit avec toute la liberté d'un enfant dans son berceau ou d'un fauve dans les bois. Faite comme elle l'était, elle n'avait pas de peine à se bien mettre : les plus simples toilettes s'ajustaient sur sa personne avec une précision élégante qui faisait dire à la baronne de Pers, dans son langage inexact, mais expressif :

"—On l'habillerait avec un gant de Suède !" (Page 105.)

Je crois que "Julia de Trécœur" est le roman le plus troublant qu'ait écrit Octave Feuillet. Et certainement cette "Julia" est la femme la plus romanesque que le cerveau de l'auteur ait imaginée ; de là vient peut-être son charme si séducteur, si captivant.

Pendant ses premières années d'écrivain, de 1848 à 1858, Octave Feuillet n'a guère publié que quelques pièces de salon, très favorablement accueillies, mais qui étaient de purs jeux d'esprit. Mais depuis ont paru M. de Camors (1867), Julia de Trécœur (1872), le Journal d'une Femme (1878), Histoire d'une Parisienne (1881), la Veuve (1883), et enfin la Morte (1885).

Dans ces Romans, que je choisis entre ses meilleurs, Octave Feuillet, tout en étant romanesque, très romanesque (et c'est par là qu'il plaît), Octave Feuillet aborde non point l'analyse, mais l'exposé de problèmes d'éducation morale que l'école psychologique reprendra plus tard en détail.

Il soulève les questions qu' Alexandre Dumas fils transportera plus tard au théâtre et qu'un écrivain de nos jours, Paul Hervieu, a repris avec un grand talent, dans la pièce intitulée : Tenailles. C'est le sujet de la "Morte," mais compliqué d'un élément que Paul Bourget a mis en relief dans son roman intitulé : Disciple.

Une femme, Sabine, aime M. de Vaudricourt ; pour l'épouser, elle ne craint pas d'empoisonner la jeune Mme. de Vaudricourt. Et quand l'oncle de Sabine reproche à sa nièce le crime commis, Sabine répond :

"M. de Vaudricourt ignore mon crime ; mais je l'aime et je sais que j'en suis aimée."

"Sabine, ajoute l'oncle, si vous avez compté sur quelque faiblesse criminelle de ma part, vous m'avez méconnu ; mon devoir, dès ce moment, est de vous livrer à la justice et, si horrible que soit ce devoir, je vais le remplir.

"—Vous y réfléchirez auparavant, mon oncle, dit froidement la jeune fille ; car si vous me livrez à la justice, si vous donnez au monde la joie d'un pareil procès, vous devez prévoir ce que dira le monde : il dira que je suis votre élève, et il ne dira que la vérité !

"—Mon élève, misérable ? Vous ai-je donc jamais enseigné d'autres principes que ceux que je pratiquais moi-même ? Leçons de droiture, de justice, d'honneur ?

"—Vous me surprenez, mon oncle. Comment un esprit tel que le vôtre ne s'est-il jamais douté que je pouvais tirer de vos doctrines et de nos communes études des conséquences, des enseignements différents de ceux que vous en tiriez vous-même? L'arbre de la science, mon oncle, ne produit pas les mêmes fruits sur tous les terrains." (Page 248.)

Dans le "Disciple," Paul Bourget fait dire à Sixte, son héros philosophe: "Faut-il rendre la dynamite responsable des crimes que les criminels anarchistes commettent par elle? Cet argument ne compte pas."

Mais dans la discussion des problèmes même les plus délicats, dans la peinture des unions mal assorties et du danger qu'offrent de telles unions, ce qui est le thème habituel d'Octave Feuillet, jamais l'auteur ne se départ des grâces d'un style qui a fait de lui l'auteur favori des salons à la mode.

Voyez Mademoiselle Jeanne Bérengère de Latour-Mesnil, l'héroïne de "L'Histoire d'une Parisienne": "Elle avait heureusement reçu du ciel tous les dons qui pouvaient favoriser l'ambition que sa mère concevait pour elle; son esprit, naturellement très ouvert et très actif, s'était merveilleusement prêté dès l'enfance à la délicate culture maternelle. Plus tard, des maîtres d'élite, soigneusement surveillés et dirigés, avaient achevé de l'initier aux notions, aux goûts et aux talents qui sont la parure intellectuelle d'une femme. Quant à l'éducation morale, elle eut pour maître unique sa mère, qui, par le seul contact et par la pureté du souffle, en fit une créature aussi saine qu'elle-même."

A ces mérites ajoutons-en un autre, dont il est impossible à l'humaine faiblesse de ne pas tenir compte: elle était extrêmement jolie; elle avait la taille et la grâce d'une nymphe avec une mine un peu sauvage et des rougeurs d'enfant (page 3). Et que deviendra ce bijou de sensibilité exquise et raffinée? Lisez plutôt "Le Roman d'une Parisienne" et vous aurez la sensation d'une œuvre forte.

Le "Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre" et "La Fée," qui vous intéressent directement, sont d'une conception très différente. Dans "La Fée," Octave Feuillet ressuscite la fée "Urgel," enchaînée par le vieux Merlin et condamnée à porter sous de misérables haillons le deuil de sa jeunesse ravie. Mais un prince jeune et beau se présente et brise l'enchantement: tel est le rêve vécu par Jeanne d'Athol. Elle a promis à la mère du Comte de Comminges de faire tout ce qui est en son pouvoir pour ramener son fils à une saine appréciation de la vie et elle emprunte, pour y réussir, les traits de la Fée Urgel. M. de Comminges est le jeune prince libérateur.

Cet acte de comédie, écrit avec enjouement, est d'un style simple, facile; c'est une conversation élégante, parfois enjouée, entre deux

personnes de beau monde et de belle éducation. Le rôle de Melle de Kerdic est vif, empreint d'une certaine raillerie qui ne manque pas de piquant ; elle feint de ne pas croire au désespoir de M. de Comminges, pour mieux relever son courage : "Alors, c'est d'un bon suicide qu'il s'agit, M. le Comte ?—Encore un aileron de bécassine ; M. le Comte."

"Bref, dit M. de Comminges, après quelques luttes intérieures, je pris le parti, désormais immuable—de briser ma coupe vide, et de mourir tout-à-fait."

Et Madelle de Kerdic, de répliquer :

"Vous prenez du café, n'est-ce pas ?"

Et que vous dirai-je de la délicieuse ballade de Roger de Beaumanoir ?

N'est-ce pas délicieux, ce cadre qui l'enveloppe, cette jeune femme à demi-penchée sur le comte et chantant, accompagnée de l'orchestre :

I.

Dans la brume du soir
Qui dort sous ce vieux chêne ?
C'est Roger Beaumanoir,
Le jeune capitaine . . . . . .
Pendant qu'au fond des bois
Courent ses chiens danois.

II.

Il effeuille, en rêvant,
Dans la verte fontaine,—
Il effeuille, en rêvant,
Des fleurs de marjolaine . . . . .
Pendant qu'au fond des bois
Courent ses chiens danois.

III.

O mon jeune amoureux,
Des fleurs que ta main sème,
Dit la fée aux yeux bleus,—
Je tresse un diadème . . . . .
Pendant qu'au fond des bois
Courent tes chiens danois.

Le "Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre," se distingue de toutes les autres œuvres d'Octave Feuillet non par l'idée qui est très romanesque, mais par l'exécution. Il peut se diviser en deux parties distinctes : Maxime à Paris ; Maxime au Château de Laroque, en Bretagne.

La première est très réaliste, la seconde appartient au domaine de la fantaisie.

Le réalisme qui s'étale aux premières pages est d'une parfaite vérité ; et si cet essai en un genre qui n'est pas le sien est le seul qu'on

relève chez Octave Feuillet, on peut dire que cet essai est un coup de maître.

Octave Feuillet a si heureusement réussi dans la peinture des misères quotidiennes qui déconcertent les longs jours sans pain du jeune marquis ruiné, qu'elles nuisent beaucoup à l'intérêt de la seconde partie. Il est impossible de mieux dépeindre qu' Octave Feuillet les angoisses de ce pauvre jeune homme, fier, honnête, luttant contre l'humiliation d'un aveu et vaincu par la délicatesse et la bonté de son ancienne domestique, aujourd 'hui la concierge de son hôtel, Madame Vauberger.

La pauvre femme a deviné les souffrances de Maxime : elle monte en cachette un bon petit dîner dans sa chambre ; Maxime rentre et feint de ne pas comprendre que ce repas est pour lui.

" Monsieur a probablement dîné, dit Madame Vauberger d'une voix timide.

—Probablement.

—C'est dommage, car le dîner était tout prêt ; il va être perdu, et je vais être grondée par mon mari. Si monsieur n'avait pas eu dîné par hasard, Monsieur m'aurait bien obligée. . . . . .

—Allez-vous en, lui crie Maxime.

Puis, comme la pauvre femme sortait, il s'approche d'elle :

—Ma bonne Louison, je vous comprends, je vous remercie ; mais je suis un peu souffrant ce soir, je n'ai pas faim.

—Ah ! Monsieur Maxime, s'est-elle écriée en pleurant, si vous saviez comme vous me mortifiez ! Eh bien ! vous me payerez mon dîner, là, si vous voulez ; vous me mettrez de l'argent dans la main quand il vous en reviendra ; . . . mais vous pouvez être bien sûr que quand vous me donneriez cent mille francs, ça ne me ferait pas autant de plaisir que de vous voir manger mon pauvre dîner ! C'est une fière aumône que vous me feriez, allez ! Vous qui avez de l'esprit, Monsieur Maxime, vous devez bien comprendre ça, pourtant.

—Eh bien, ma chère Louison . . . que voulez-vous ? Je ne peux pas vous donner cent mille francs . . . . mais je m'en vais manger votre dîner . . . . Vous me laisserez seul, n'est-ce pas ?

—Oui, monsieur. Ah ! merci, monsieur. Je vous remercie bien, monsieur. Vous avez bon cœur.

—Et bon appétit aussi, Louison. Donnez-moi votre main : ce n'est pas pour y mettre de l'argent, soyez tranquille . . . Là, au revoir, Louison.

L'excellente femme est sortie en sanglotant (page 55).

Peut-être est-ce que nous nous intéressons plus au malheur qu'au bonheur ; mais cette page vaut toute la seconde partie.

Quelque temps avant sa mort, qui arriva en Décembre 1890, Octave Feuillet fit paraître une comédie en trois actes : "Le divorce de Juliette."

Le sujet est des plus simples : deux jeunes gens mariés depuis peu s'imaginent qu'ils ne s'aiment pas ; et la jeune femme est bel et bien résolue à divorcer. Elle en appelle à un ami commun, un avocat, qui joue le rôle très amusant de l'homme sympathique : il entend les condoléances du mari et de la femme ; c'est un esprit fin, délicat ; il est de plus honnête homme, ce qui est essentiel à son rôle. Il promet à Juliette de presser le jugement de divorce, et un jour il lui annonce que tout est fini : elle est divorcée. Juliette fait à son mari ses adieux, et la pauvre éclate en sanglots : "Je t'en prie, je t'en prie . . . . laisse-moi ! va-t-en !

"—Eh bien ! Adieu donc ! Adieu !"

L'ami intervient : Eh bien ! Mais alors !

"—Après deux ans d'intimité, dit Juliette, on ne se sépare pas. . . ."

L'ami :

"—Sans émotion . . . n'est-ce pas ? Mais quand cette émotion est aussi vive et aussi tendre, il me semble qu'il vaudrait mieux ne pas se séparer . . . . . Qu'est-ce que vous en pensez, Juliette ?

"—Mais c'est impossible . . . . . le jugement prononcé . . .

L'ami réplique :

"—Ce jugement . . . . . ne pourrait—il être une épreuve imaginée par un ami curieux, plus habitué à aimer qu' à être aimé ?

Juliette avec joie. Ah ! Ne dites pas cela, mon ami ! Car je vous assure que je vous aime bien !

De Rhodes à d'Epinay : Vous entendez, d'Epinay . . . Elle vous aime bien. . . .

D'Epinay :

Quel brave homme vous êtes !

Ce dénouement rappelle celui de "Divorçons," de Victorien Sardou ; seulement, dans "Divorçons," les deux jeunes époux sont réellement divorcés.

Telle est, dans ses traits essentiels, empruntés à ses plus belles productions, l'œuvre d'Octave Feuillet, de son vivant Membre de l'Académie française. Œuvre romanesque, brodée sur un canevas tout parisien auquel elle doit sa légèreté et son élégance ; œuvre exquise et d'un parfum parfois capiteux ; œuvre d'artiste par la richesse de ses peintures et le coloris de ses portraits ; œuvre morale, parce qu'elle est aussi un enseignement et qu' Octave Feuillet est, non le complice, mais le juge de ses personnages.

SHAKESPEARE'S KINGS.

T. A. Brough, B.A., Owen Sound.

In Sartor Resartus, that strange storehouse of fertile suggestions, Carlyle, in speaking of titles of honour, puts into the mouth of Teufelsdröckh these significant words: "The only title wherein I, with confidence, trace eternity, is that of King. Well was it written by theologians: a king rules by divine right. He carries in him authority from God, or man will never give it him. Except in obedience to the Heaven-chosen freedom is not so much as conceivable." By this I suppose the writer means that men will ever be ruled by the greatest minds and strongest wills; and that in accepting such as guides they will become conscious that they are realizing their own true selves and growing in the likeness of God, whose true shekinah on earth man is.

Kings have occupied a rather large place in history. Some historians, indeed, have treated the subject as if kings so-called were almost the only persons worth knowing much about. Though this is not the view presented in Shakespeare, it is yet worthy of note how prominently sovereigns of one grade or another figure in his plays. In this paper I shall not attempt to survey the whole field, but shall endeavor merely to outline the character of those English kings whose story he has dramatized, and to suggest something of the lesson the world has learned, or may still learn, from them. I am aware that able critics contend that Shakespeare had no thought of teaching anything whatever through his plays. But this need not trouble us at present; our concern here is not with what Shakespeare may or may not have intended to teach, but rather with the lessons that may be fairly drawn from his moving pictures of human life.

Though not the first written, the play of King John is the earliest in point of time of the English historical dramas. In it the character of King John is drawn without a single kingly or even manly trait. For kingly statesmanship he has nothing better than the most barefaced treachery. This of itself would deprive him of the support of men of strength and honor. His scheming, heartless mother, during her life, directs his policy and action; and when she is gone, the only capable supporter who continues with him throughout, and without whom he would be worse than helpless, is Faulconbridge, whose talents the queen-dowager has recognized and skilfully enlisted in her son's cause.

Instead of kingly courage and fortitude he displays the basest cowardice. His one fixed idea is to be king; king over all the inheritance of the crown if possible; but if that prove beyond his power, then to be king over as much of it as he can. He is ready to buy the neutrality of the French king by granting the dauphin the hand of his niece, and endowing her with a princely territory, to be severed from the English crown. He defies the papal legate with bold words:

> "No Italian priest
> Shall tithe or toll in our dominions;"

but, threatened by a foreign invasion and a revolt at home, he yields up his sovereignty to the pope, to receive it again as a vassal. Regardless of kingly justice and mercy, he usurps his nephew's throne, and with fiendish heartlessness flatters the fellow Hubert, that the tender, loving, innocent boy may lose his eyesight and his life. His mother's death excites in him no sorrow; his son's sympathy no response. His meanness is immeasurable. He desires Arthur's murder; but when he is believed by his nobles to be guilty of the child's death, and they revolt in consequence, he would fain escape their vengeance and the wrath of heaven by laying all the blame on his miserable agent in the bloody deed. The papal legate has hardly received his humble submission and gone to negotiate on his behalf, when he authorizes Faulconbridge to disregard his solemn pledge if that course should seem advantageous. We behold without pity this wretch whom no human tenderness has ever touched, tortured in his last hours by the consuming fires of hell.

From King John it seems natural to pass to Richard III., that other monster among our English kings. Not that they are altogether alike, for in some respects they are as far apart as the poles. Instead of the coward in battle, who takes prisoner a defenceless boy, and allows his aged mother to fall into the hands of the enemy, from whom he makes no effort to rescue her, we have one who fears neither man, devil, nor the vengeance of the Almighty. His enemy, Queen Margaret, characterizes him as

> "A foul, mis-shapen stigmatic,
> Mark'd by the destinies to be avoided,
> As venom toads, or lizard's dreadful stings."

The mild, forgiving King Henry VI. says:

> "Good Gloster and good devil were alike."

while his aged mother thus paints to him his life:

> "Tetchy and wayward was thy infancy;
> Thy schooldays frightful, desperate, wild and furious;
> Thy prime of manhood daring, bold and venturous;
> Thy age confirm'd, proud, subtle, sly, and bloody."

But we have a still nearer view of this monster in body and spirit; he is quite plain with us himself:

> "I can smile and murder while I smile."
> "And seem a saint when most I play the devil."
> "I that have neither pity, love, nor fear;
> Then since the heavens have shaped my body so,
> Let hell make crook'd my mind to answer it."

He is as crafty and treacherous as he is ruthless. He has the power of the serpent in charming whom he would destroy. He woos and wins the Princess Anne as she stands the chief mourner by the coffin of him whom he has murdered. After enduring the bitterest taunts of his brother's widowed queen, whose sons he has sent to their graves, he wins from her the kiss that seals her consent that her daughter shall become his wife. One victim after another is wiled into his confidence, used to serve his purpose, and then with a smile hurled to destruction. But this foul slander of his blood is not without qualities which, if not redeeming features, yet raise him immeasurably above the weak and cowardly John. We can scarcely forbear to admire the terrible energy of mind that carries him from one bloody crime to another. In battle he knows not the name of fear, and can see and acknowledge the same good quality in others. Salisbury's deeds of might at St. Alban's, and his own father's at Mortimer's Cross, call forth his enthusiastic remark. From the first he is the strongest and most resolute defender of the House of York. He offers bail for his father with weapons, not with words. He thrice bestrides the body of Salisbury and beats off the opposing swords; and at the close of the battle wins from his father the confession:

> "Richard hath best deserved of all my sons."

Some remnant of a conscience even appears in him in his closing hours. His wife is still awaked with his timorous dreams; he "has not that alacrity of spirit, nor cheer of mind that he was wont to have"; once a prayer escapes his lips, "Have mercy, Jesu"; but when he awakens into full consciousness, he checks himself with "Soft! I did but dream." To him,

"Conscience is but a word that cowards use,
Devised at first to keep the strong in awe."

The approach of Richmond recalls his halting courage:

"A thousand hearts are great within my bosom;"

and he goes into battle to die as he has lived:

"March on, join bravely, let us to't pell-mell;
If not to heaven, then hand-in-hand to hell!"

From Richard III., who gathers up in himself the selfishness, treachery, bloodiness and irreligion of the civil wars, let us now turn back to his namesake Richard II., with whom the Wars of the Roses were ushered in. His cardinal defect as a king is read in the first scene of the play. He is weak; and to his weakness all his other faults can be traced. He prejudges Bolingbroke before he has heard his accusation of Mowbray; when the men accuse each other in his presence, he, without investigating the charges, commands them to be friends, but is not obeyed; and when in the lists they appeal to the judgment of heaven, he persuades the council to forbid the appeal and to punish both. Then he takes leave of them as friends, pledging them, though banished, never to seek his injury; and departs to unmask his hypocrisy in the company of the low-born favorites, to whose flattery his lack of manly spirit has betrayed him. He has already earned our contempt; but he is to sink still lower. His flatterers have succeeded in transforming his weakness into insolence, petty tyranny and shamelessness. Extravagance has emptied his coffers, but blank charters will fill them, and afford him means against the Irish rebels. Just at the moment of this resolve Gaunt sends for him to hear his dying admonitions. The King breaks out:

"Now put it, God, in the physician's mind
To help him to his grave immediately!
The lining of his coffers shall make coats
To deck our soldiers for these Irish wars.
Come, gentlemen, let's all go visit him;
Pray God we may make haste and come too late!"

His conduct in his dying uncle's presence is in keeping with this preface. The earnest, loving warnings of aged Gaunt are answered by insult and sneering reference to his approaching end. His farewell to his uncle is—

"And let them die that age and sullen have;
For both hast thou, and both become the grave."

But another side to the king's character is revealed in his adversity, an aspect that makes us almost forget how mean and despicable he has appeared. In private life he is amiable. When he parts from the queen for Ireland he begs her

> "To lay aside life-harming heaviness,
> And entertain a cheerful disposition."

But, though to please him she promises, she cannot be cheerful in the absence of her sweet Richard. In the garden scene her grief for her deposed husband excites the gardener's tenderest pity. And when she meets the deposed king on the way to the Tower she goes from his presence with a breaking heart. In his captivity he is visited by a former poor groom of his stables, who, remembering his old master's kindness, seeks him out in his distress to cheer and comfort him. Weeping compels a pause in York's narration of his last progress through the capital.

There is another trait that cannot escape a passing notice. He is a shrewd observer, almost at times a philosopher. How better could the vanity of a misspent life be expressed than by the speech beginning—

> "Of comfort no man speak;
> Let s talk of graves, of worms, and epitaphs!"

But even in such speeches the fatal taint of weakness comes in, and at times they pass into extravagance or descend into drivel that excites the unconcealed laughter of his friends. In but one speech, it seems to me, he strikes a truly manly note—

> "Northumberland, thou ladder wherewithal
> The mounting Bolingbroke ascends my throne,
> The time shall not be many hours of age
> More than it is, ere foul sin, gathering head,
> Shall break into corruption: thou shall think,
> Though he divide the realm and give thee half,
> It is too little, helping him to all;
> And he shall think that thou which know'st the way
> To plant unrightful kings, will know again,
> Being ne er so urged, another way
> To pluck him headlong from the usurped throne.
> The love of wicked men converts to fear,
> That fear to hate, and hate turns one or both
> To worthy danger and deserved death."

He dies as we might have expected. Like Louis XVI., he meets the instruments of death with the impotent fury of a madman.

It is significant that in the characterization of so weak a king Shakespeare has chosen to set us thinking upon that much-vexed question, the divine right of kings. King Richard supports the claim in more than one passage:

"Not all the water in the rough rude sea
Can wash the balm from an anointed king;
The breath of worldly men cannot depose
The deputy elected by the Lord:
For every man that Bolingbroke hath press'd
To lift shrewd steel against our golden crown,
God for his Richard hath in heavenly pay
A glorious angel: then, if angels fight,
Weak men must fall, for heaven still guards the right.
"Show us the hand of God
That hath dismissed us from our stewardship;
For well we know no hand of blood and bone
Can gripe the sacred handle of our sceptre,
Unless he do profane, steal, or usurp.
"God omnipotent
Is mustering in His clouds on our behalf
Armies of pestilence; and they shall strike
Your children yet unborn and unbegot,
That lift your vassal hands against my head
And threat the glory of my precious crown."

But the king is not alone in thinking as he does. Gaunt thus resists the appeal of Woodstock's widow:

"God's is the quarrel, for God's substitute,
His deputy anointed in His sight,
Hath caused his death: the which, if wrongfully,
Let heaven revenge; for I may never lift
An angry arm against His minister."

Carlisle exclaims:

"What subject can give sentence on his king?
And shall the figure of God's majesty,
His captain, steward, deputy-elect,
Anointed, crowned, planted many years,
Be judged by subject and inferior breath?

"My Lord of Hereford here, whom you call king,
Is a foul traitor to proud Hereford's king;
And if you crown him let me prophesy
The blood of England shall manure the ground,
And future ages groan for this foul act."

So much on one side; there is a good deal to offset a hasty conclusion. Curiously enough, we may gather from these very

speakers that Heaven's gift of the kingship is conditional, and that if there is a divine right of kings, there is a divine right of subjects. Gaunt tells Richard that he has become possessed of the crown that he may depose himself. Carlisle reminds him that:

> The means that heaven yields must be embraced
> And not neglected ; else, if heaven would,
> And we will not, heaven's offer we refuse,
> The proffered means of succor and redress.

The king himself confesses the impotence of misused kingship:

> " Within the hollow crown
> That rounds the mortal temples of a king
> Keeps death his court, and there the antic sits,
> Scoffing his state and grinning at his pomp,
> Allowing him a breath, a little scene,
> To monarchize, be feared and kill with looks,
> Infusing him with self and vain conceit,
> As if this flesh which walls about our life
> Were brass impregnable, and humor'd thus
> Comes at the last and with a little pin
> Bores through his castle wall, and farewell king ! "

He admits, too, that he is but suffering for his own folly:

> " I for the concord of my state and time
> Had not an ear to hear my true time broke,
> I wasted time, and now doth time waste me."

In the case of Henry VIII., the central figure of Tudor sovereignty, we might expect to hear a great deal upon the same subject. But Henry is too great a force to talk about the matter at all; he acts the part he conceives to be that of the deputy anointed of the Lord. He loves Katharine; but he loves Anne Boleyn more. He has, therefore, no great difficulty in persuading himself that his marriage with the former is unlawful, and that it is his duty to have her divorced. That being decided, the pope must grant the divorce; and when the pope delays, some other power must act. Cranmer is elevated to the see of Canterbury, and forthwith the will of the king is carried out. Henry is served by the strongest men of his time; but however strong in themselves, they are with him but clay in the potter's hands. Wolsey, to quote his own words, "falls like Lucifer, never to rise again." When Cranmer is accused by the Lords of the Council, the king permits them to go just far enough to disclose their intentions, and, with an imperiousness

that brooks no question, commands his trembling servants to be reconciled to the archbishop; receives instant obedience; and then with kingly condescension begs the man so lately sentenced to the Tower to become the godfather of the infant Elizabeth. We do not leave the play, however, in perfect sympathy with this proud autocrat. While our ears listen to Cranmer's prophecy of the glories of the virgin queen, and of him who should rise starlike from her ashes, we cannot forget the deathbed of Katharine, with its vision of the "sweet spirits of peace," and her dying blessing of him who had so foully wronged her and her more than orphaned child.

We have had one type of weak king in Richard II., we have another in Henry VI. Henry is a bookish king, a mediæval saint, whose weakness, unlike that of Richard, is scarcely ever dissociated from that saintliness so esteemed by the Christianity of the middle ages, exercising itself not in self-assertion, but in self-repression. The kingship is a burden to him:

> "No sooner was I crept out of my cradle,
> But I was made a king at nine months old:
> Was never subject longed to be a king
> As I do long and wish to be a subject."

He reproaches himself with the fruit of his weakness:

> "For yet may England curse my wretched reign."

He would gladly see his son king in his place. Nay, he goes further:

> "O that my death would stay these ruthless deeds."

Throughout his life disaster attends his feeble efforts. His attempt to reconcile Somerset and York by wearing the Lancastrian rose and making York regent of France, pleases neither, is answerable for the death of the heroic Talbots, and hastens the loss of France. When he is won over by the designing Suffolk to break his engagement to the daughter of the Earl of Armagnac and to marry Princess Margaret instead, he shares his throne with a second Helen, who paves the way to his own death and the ruin of his house. He is chid from the battlefield by his queen and Clifford, since they prosper best when he is thence. But this mild, meek, religious enthusiast, whose lack of force cost England rivers of blood, and permitted every social tie to be trodden under foot, receives the assassin's dagger with calmness and dignity, and with his last breath prays for his murderer.

Two kings remain for brief notice, and both are strong. It might be claimed that the chief defects in the character of Bolingbroke, or Henry IV., are selfish ambition and hypocrisy. But he is no true hypocrite. He employs deceit as the servant of his ambition; but he never deceives himself by it; nor does he attempt to hide from his son the motives that have governed his life. He says,

> "God knows, my son,
> By what by-paths and indirect crook'd ways
> I met this crown";

and if he has vowed a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and on his deathbed counsels his son to plunge into foreign quarrels, he freely confesses that his prime motive has been and is the keeping of the hard-won crown. Something, too, may be said in palliation of his ambition. He was near to the crown in blood; Richard had proved himself incapable; instead of guarding the realm he was wasting its resources, and allowing it to swarm with human caterpillars. Bolingbroke noted all this; he felt himself

> "More like a king, more kingly in his strength."

and determined that the tools should come to the hands that could use them. The great stain on his character is the death of the deposed king, whom, to secure his throne, he felt compelled to sacrifice. But once firm upon the throne he is not bloody. He pardons the two-faced Aumerle, although he has broken his father's bond on his behalf and may prove a dangerous rival to his throne, converting him to a friend and supporter, who at a later day lays down his life for king and country in the English van at Agincourt. If he sends Worcester and Vernon to the block, they have refused his mercy, and lack of decision and promptness would plunge the country into the disorder from which his firm rule is guarding it. His disloyalty to Richard is met by almost life-long alienation from his own son, whom he fears may prove another Richard. He does not for the last time lay down the uneasy head without drawing from us a measure of pity, and we are glad that even for an hour he is permitted to know the true nobility and greatness of him who had been thought the madcap prince.

When once in the presence of Henry V. we do not need the praises of the Archbishop of Canterbury to persuade us that we are face to face with a kingly king. He responds to the first trust his father reposes in him; proves himself a hero in the field; utters enthusiastic commendation of the courage of his

younger brother John of Lancaster, who has had his place at the council board; is proud to encounter a worthy foeman in the noble Scot, Lord Douglas, and at the close of the fight rejoices to dismiss him ransomless. Though he has been the companion of Falstaff and his crew, he has never lost his self-control, and was probably attracted to such companionship by the free expansion which it permitted to his mind and which the close and politic court denied him. When he becomes king he gains the confidence of every true man when he forbids Sir John to come within ten miles of his court; while he avoids our censure for his treatment of the shameless old knave by assuring him that if he conducts himself properly he will not see him want. He emphasized his determination to rule well by taking as his chief adviser the judge who had been courageous enough to sentence him while prince for contempt of court. He is merciful to the man who has insulted his person, but sends to the block the conspirators who, for foreign gold, would have betrayed the nation. He gives quarter to those who yield in battle; but if the enemy compel him he will kill his prisoners to renew the fight. His character has limitations rather than defects. Thus he charges the French king with being a usurper, forgetting his own similar seat on the English throne; and though he will not lift a finger against France until Canterbury has assured him that his cause is just, he does not see what is very plain to one in modern times, that a kingdom is not like a private inheritance, and that the subjects as well as the king of a foreign land deserve consideration before war is declared. His most prominent characteristic, perhaps, is that universality of intellect and sunny though serious disposition which we read in Shakespeare himself, our king of men. His seriousness we see in his humble ascription to God of all the glory of victory. His universality of powers calls forth the admiration of the archbishop. His rich, genial, open nature enables him to see the equality of all true men, saves him from contamination by loose companions, sends him from tent to tent to converse as a brother with the common soldiers, and gives us his charming and kingly courtship of the French princess. His character must have called forth the devotion and worship of Elizabethan England ("mewing its mighty youth"), and we can well believe that it would recall in their pride of spirit the words of Faulconbridge in King John:

> "This England never did and never shall
> Lie at the foot of a proud conqueror
> But when it first did help to wound itself."

And now the question occurs, Did Shakespeare's writings exercise any influence in the events which followed close upon the accession of the Stuarts? Some argue that his work was obscured by the Hebraistic spirit that so obstinately opposed these kings. But I cannot believe this; I feel disposed to think that in their struggle with the Stuarts Shakespeare proved an ally of the Puritans. The Puritan ideal of a king was David, the shepherd of Israel; hence they had little sympathy with those whom they looked upon as the enemies of God's chosen people. Those whose sympathies went naturally with the court, those who had imbibed the lesson of Elizabethan culture and sat at the feet of the teacher of the age, could not regard with complacency the gross, slovenly, clownish King James; nor when the amiability of Charles I. was set up as quite offsetting his license, perfidy, and tyranny, could they forget that England had been almost ruined by kings as amiable as Charles. Shakespeare had shown his countrymen what a king should be, and the lesson, if observed at all, could not but be fatal to the Stuarts. The lesson is now open to all the world, and is being directly or indirectly learnt.

Not that it is friendly to the rule of the mob, or assures the permanence of modern republicanism. Shakespeare's good-natured contempt for the mob comes in in play after play. We must have kings, whether kings so-called or not, and the assassination of American and French presidents is almost as ominous as the assassination of a czar.

If republican government is to be in reality what some of its admirers claim, the ideal form of government, then must every citizen be himself a king, and exhibit in his daily life "the king-becoming graces,"

> "Justice, verity, temperance, stableness,
> Bounty, perseverance, mercy, lowliness,
> Devotion, patience, courage, fortitude."

EXAMINATION TESTS IN FRENCH AND GERMAN.

MRS. BARBARA KIRKMAN, SEAFORTH.

We live in the closing years of the nineteenth century—years in which the wonderful progress of scientific knowledge and the remarkable development of inventive genius have produced startling results, and yet these seem to be only the prelude to still greater achievements. Already, by means of the telephone, friends separated by the width of a continent are brought within speaking distance; while across the submarine cable are flashed to our shores the news of events in far off lands. In these days also the facilities for travelling are so abundant that the remotest corners of the earth are within easy access, and a return ticket for a trip around the world can be secured at a cost that brings such a pleasure within at least the fond anticipation of the Canadian school teacher. In this progressive age we require to exercise our imagination to believe, as we were taught in our school days, that this venerable globe is actually 25,000 miles in circumference. Hence it is no surprise to find people of many nationalities in almost any country of the world, some on pleasure bent, others with more sordid motives, but all coming into more or less close contact with those who speak a language different from their own. Even to our fair Dominion there are flocking every year thousands of immigrants from every country in Europe, as well as from the more distant regions of Asia, so that within our own borders are to be heard many and diverse languages.

Under these circumstances is it not imperative for the English-speaking population of Canada to have some acquaintance with the languages spoken by other nations? And is this not specially important in regard to countries with which Canada has such direct and frequent communication as she holds with France and Germany? It is, therefore, a matter for congratulation that during the past few years greater attention has been given in our educational institutions to the study of French and German, and more practical results are now demanded.

This being the case, it behoves modern language teachers to consider what is the ideal to be aimed at in the teaching of these languages. Is it not to have our pupils so conversant with French and German that the knowledge acquired will be of practical utility in the business transaction, the casual meeting, or the perusal of a favorite author? For, while it is true, notwith-

standing what has been said, that the majority of our scholars may never see France or Germany, it is at the same time true, as has also been pointed out, that natives of these countries are our fellow-citizens in this Dominion, and that very many Canadians at some time in their lives find themselves greatly embarrassed on account of their inability to understand or use any language but English.

Let us ask, therefore, when a student may be said to have a practical knowledge of the French and German languages? We answer, when he has a speaking knowledge, a reading knowledge, and a writing knowledge.

Advisedly we put speaking first. Prof. Gouin tells us of a child that in six months had become so familiar with a language (his mother tongue, of course,) that he could understand all that was said to him and could make known all his wants. This must have involved the training of the ear to detect the various sounds employed. Then the child must have learned to associate the sounds with the objects that these sounds combined into words were used to designate, and, finally, to reproduce the sounds with which he had become familiar. Similarly, our students must in the first place become familiar with the sounds of the language to be studied, then they require to know by what names things are called, and not the names of objects merely, but of actions also. They must be trained, too, not only to identify the sounds as they hear them, but also to reproduce them. In short, it is necessary for students of French to be able, like the child to whom reference has been made, to comprehend thoughts uttered by others, and to express their own ideas intelligibly.

As the aim of this paper is not to discuss methods, but simply results, we pass on to notice the second requisite—a reading knowledge.

The heaven-inspired ideas of master minds are by the writer's and printer's art transmitted to succeeding generations, enriching, elevating and ennobling all who have an opportunity and possess the knowledge necessary to read and understand them. Many works abounding in such noble thoughts are to be found in French and German literature. Where, for instance, can be seen a more perfect gem in this respect than "Un Pilosophe Sous les Toits"? Who can read that book without feeling more sympathy for the unfortunate, a greater responsibility in living, and loftier aspirations towards a high ideal?

In order, then, that students of French and German may not be deprived of such an important means of culture, but may be

able to hold intercourse with noble men and women, from whose recorded thoughts they cannot fail to derive benefit, they must have sufficient acquaintance with the language to gather the author's meaning from the printed page. And here, let me say in passing, that the more I become acquainted with methods and the more I watch results, the more firmly am I convinced that merely to require the translation of an extract from a text studied in the class is, I had almost said, no test at all of the candidate's familiarity with the language. For, in spite of the utmost care and vigilance on the part of the teacher, and, indeed, from the very circumstances of the case, the pupil will take the teacher's own translation of the passage, and, by an effort of memory, will reproduce in English the ideas of the author without in many cases even recognizing the words of the language from which he is translating. But if a student can from an unseen passage obtain a clear grasp of the thoughts that have been expressed in French or German, it is fair to conclude that he knows something about the foreign tongue.

Besides this, however, in order to a just appreciation of any language, some acquaintance with the history of that language and of the literature of the country is desirable. For example, it is interesting and instructive to learn the sources whence the language is derived, the changes that have taken place in it, corresponding to the progress and development of the nation, the different schools of thought which at various crises in the national life have given utterance to the people's desires or fears, to their joys or their sorrows. An exercise like this will greatly assist in lending a charm and giving a spice of variety to the otherwise rather monotonous routine of ordinary class work.

There remains to be noticed the third point mentioned—a writing knowledge.

The remark may at times be heard within the sacred precincts of the Collegiate Institute sanctum, "That pupil cannot compose two sentences in good English." Surely, then, he can not be regarded as having a practical knowledge of English. The same is true for the student of French or German. Until he can express his own thoughts not only orally but also in writing, in the idiom which will be recognized and readily comprehended by his foreign correspondent or reader, he must certainly be deficient in linguistic attainments.

Now, as an examination is designed to test the candidate's knowledge of the subject studied, an ideal examination in French

and German is one that would test the student's ability to express in these languages his ideas, both orally and by writing, in an intelligible manner, and at the same time intelligently to understand the ideas of others as communicated to him. This includes a test in conversation, sight translation, and original composition, to which might profitably be added an examination on the history of French and German literature.

EXAMINATION TESTS IN FRENCH AND GERMAN.

Miss M. E. T. Addison, B.A., Stratford.

Not long ago, in conversation, a gentleman was heard to say, "This is a constructive age. Do you notice how the world turns to those whose powers lead to the building up of society, to the establishment of reform, to invention, to anything, indeed, which is accomplished? People are so weary of mere criticism which results in nothing." Then he went on to show that the patient seekers after truth are striving more earnestly than ever before, to put the ideal into tangible reality.

If this be true, and the close student of the times cannot doubt it, is there any question of more importance to us than the realization of the ideal teaching in practical results of the highest order, not only through method, but also through one of its ablest promoters, the examination?

However much we may sometimes wish otherwise, and however conscientious we may be, the fact still remains that the examination, whether departmental or private, determines to a great extent the character of the teaching done, and this, the character of the pupil's study. Hence it is, that an ideal test in examination ought to and will raise the standard of both teaching and study, of both teacher and student.

This ideal examination must, therefore, compass all the departments or divisions of the ideal standard in the study of French and German; nor must it be a test of the pupil's knowledge only, but much more of his training.

Now, as a speaking knowledge of a modern language implies the training of the ear to catch quickly and exactly the sounds of the language, the training of the ear and vocal organs in order to reproduce these sounds, a large vocabulary, and an acquaintance with grammatical forms; as a reading knowledge denotes the acquisition of idioms, comparison of the peculiar modes of expression, and an understanding of the genius of the language and its literature; as a writing knowledge includes accuracy, the exercise of thought and judgment in comparison, in the rejection of one form for the choice of another, with a further comprehension of the spirit of the spoken or written matter; an ideal examination test must cover all these points, i.e., it must test :—

1. The training of the ear.
2. The power of reproducing the sounds heard.
3. The vocabulary.

4. The knowledge of grammar and idiom in application rather than in the abstract.

5. The power of translation, i.e., the ability to understand the sense of the foreign language, expressing it exactly and correctly in the mother tongue.

6. A slight but appreciative knowledge of the literature, of the history, of the language, of its spirit, of the people speaking it.

7. Literary insight into the choice of words and expressions.

Is such an examination desirable, possible and practicable under the present circumstances? Hitherto it has not been, when in one year we had to give our highest forms three and four years' work; but under the new regulations, we answer yes.

If a pupil can read with proper accent and expression; if when a passage is read to him he can understand it, and if he has at his command a good vocabulary of words and idioms, with the power to apply grammatical forms, has he not all the essentials of conversation? All he needs is practice, and a very few weeks among those who speak the language will give him readiness in utterance. If, therefore, an examination will test his reading and his ability to understand what is spoken, is not that sufficient, and is not this examination practicable? It is easy enough in our own school-rooms, where we can have daily reading, conversation and dictation. Could we not have the first and last of these on the final examination also? Could there not be during, or just preceding the departmental examinations, an exchange of language teachers, who would read some passage for dictation and hear the various candidates read another passage in the foreign tongue, the candidates to be required to pass successfully in these two branches as well as in the others? Another alternative would be the appointment of someone who would go from school to school and examine, as the reading in English is now examined. A final test of this kind would be a tremendous impulse in the teaching and studying of modern languages.

The knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and idioms, with the ability to intelligently translate, have a sufficient test in the present papers. But what of the outlines of the history of the language, of its literature, and, above all, of the power of the student to distinguish between synonyms; to speak or write idiomatically; to choose an essentially French or German expression in place of a literally translated one; to show a literary insight into and a comprehension of the language; in short, to grasp the spirit of the language? The passages for sight translation

aroused German hearts, and after the War of Liberation, all Germany rose against his being deposed from his position at the University of Bonn, and demanded that he should be reinstated.

Theodor Körner was an ardent worshipper of Schiller. His strong, noble ideals and his pure life endeared him to his country. His patriotic songs display much youthful enthusiasm, particularly his "Leier und Schwert," his "Gebet während der Schlacht," and his "Schwertlied," his swan song.

"Du Schwert an meiner Linken
Was soll dein heitres Blinken?"

Another of these poets, Max v. Schenkendorf, wrote a wondrously beautiful poem, "Muttersprache,"

"Muttersprache, Mutterlaut, Wie so wonnesam, so traut."

These patriotic lyrics have not the same significance for us foreigners as for the genuine Germans, though we can see that they voiced the popular spirit at the time of their appearance, and did much to awaken enthusiasm both for freedom and the fatherland.

One of Germany's best beloved poets is Ludwig Uhland, who lived in Suabia, Tübingen and Stuttgart, and died in 1862. He studied the literature and history of the middle ages—the folk-lore of mediæval times, and had some affinity with romanticism. He is often called a new romanticist, differing from first romanticists, that he did not lose himself in dreams, but worked well and truly. His lyrics and ballads are excellent, and he sang himself into the very hearts of the German people by such songs as "Des Sängers Fluch" and "Des Knaben Berglied." Professor Hermann Grimm says of Uhland:

"We all have learned chivalry, patriotism, loyalty from Uhland's poems."

A group of Suabian poets formed itself about him, consisting of Gustav Schwab, a preacher, who reminds one of Uhland in his "Der Reiter und der Bodensee," and Justinus Kerner, a doctor, who believed himself in direct communication with spirits, and had in his house a somnambulist. Kerner's poems are imbued with a spirit of melancholy, and he writes much of death.

Endowed with greater genius and talent than Uhland was Heinrich Heine, who, however, did not do so much good for German youths. At Bonn University, from v. Schlegel, Heine imbibed ideas of romanticism—dissatisfaction with the world and its interests. In 1820 everybody in Germany read Byron. People had conflicts over the disparity between the world and

their ideas—Weltschmerz—the gap between the real and the ideal, a morbid sensation, so often found in Byron's writings. Heine worked on this spirit, and tore it into shreds and tatters. His style is clear, graceful, light and airy. But too often he expressed cynicism for all that we revere. Heine is not a moral character. He was intensely selfish and egotistical, and regarded nothing as holy and sacred. Yet in his "Buch der Lieder" we find most exquisite poems. After Goethe, Heine is Germany's greatest lyric poet. God gave him most splendid gifts. Like Goethe, he took the simple tone, the simple strains of the Volkslieder, which live with the German people forever. In his poems we often find a tone of melancholy and pain. By melody and flow of words he puts one into his mood, with no artifice, but with exquisite charm.

Disappointed in love, Heine wrote satirical poems, and became the leader of Young Germany, young men who strove to show all the weaknesses of the world, while they clamored for reform. From Jung Deutschland developed another group of authors, who worked for freedom and wrote to incite people to rebellion, to work for a constitution.

Of these political poets, Ferdinand Freiligrath and Kinkel had to leave their country and work in the "Ausland." They found refuge in England, and there Freiligrath translated "The Ancient Mariner" and the poems of Burns and Bret Harte. He is the most fiery and passionate of the political poets, as is seen in his Löwenritt. One of his sweetest songs is "O lieb, so lang du lieben Kannst."

Kinkel's political poems are now forgotten. While in London, he married a very accomplished lady, who in a fit of insanity threw herself from a high window. Kinkel fled to Zürich, and died there a few years ago.

"Es ist so still geworden."

and others of his poems are charming.

Hoffmann von Fallersleben gained some fame for his political lyrics, but showed more poetic talent in his Spring, Morning, Evening, Children and Cradle Songs. His best known poem is "Das Lied der Deutschen."

"Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles
Über alles in der Welt."

and "Mein Vaterland":

"Treue L'iebe bis zum Grabe
Schwör ich dir mit Herz und Hand."

These songs are preserved in the magnificent national monument erected on the Niederwald, and commanding the most beautiful portion of the Rhine, as well as the far-famed "Die Wacht am Rhein":

> "Lieb Vaterland, magst ruhig sein
> Fest steht und treu, die Wacht, die Wacht am Rhein"

The remaining lyric poets cannot be assigned to definite classes, unless we group them together according to their respective countries or cities.

One Austrian poet, Nicolaus Lenau, was of noble birth, and possessed a lovely, beautiful nature, true and good, but was extremely nervous and lived under circumstances unfavorable to his development. He was a true poet, nervous and idealistic. After two disappointments in love, which almost crushed him, he came to America, but finding only materialism, everything seemed repulsive to him. He regretted keenly the loss of nightingales and wine. Returning to Germany, he found himself celebrated. His beautiful Schilflieder are set to music by Schumann.

Emanuel Geibel of the University of Munich is a lyric poet *par excellence*. His poems are deep, pure, earnest. He had not the creative genius of Heine, but sings with earnest, deep feeling and true piety. All is pure and good in Geibel's lyrics, and the German nation regard him as one of their favorite lyric poets.

Paul Heyse also lived in Munich, and was the spirit and centre of a literary circle there, until differences with Geibel caused him to return to his early home, Berlin. Though his literary fame rests chiefly upon his historical novels, yet he has also written some charming lyrics. His constant topic is love. Heyse does not jeer at religion, but takes it for granted that "vornehme Leute" do not believe in these things. Yet his poems are refined and beautiful, and show consummate art.

Of the Swiss poets, none manifests more the character of the nation than Wackernagel, whose poems are full of power and earnestness. Along the Rhine, from Cologne to Strasburg, are many villas, in which dwell poets, who sing the praises of the Rhine. Karl Simrock and Müller have both glorified nature and the legends of the Rhineland.

A great number of poets have their homes in North and in Middle Germany. The breath of patriotic inspiration and genuine poetry appears in Redwitz's "Song of the New German Empire," a collection of sonnets in which the war of 1870-71 is depicted. Otto Roquette, Albert Träger and Theodor Fontane are all creative poets, and have produced a few absolute masterpieces.

The religious lyric of the present time does not yield in beauty or smoothness of form, or in genuine spirituality, to the religious lyric of past ages. The hymns and spiritual songs of Spitta, Hammer and Sturm, such as "Gott Grüsse Dich," are distinguished by beauty of language and fulness of thought.

But after Goethe, Schiller, Heine and Uhland, Friedrich Rückert is Germany's greatest poet. His "Liebesfrühling" is full of most exquisite, delicate and heartfelt devotion, breathed to a lady, who afterwards became his wife:

"Was ich nicht gelebt, das habe ich nicht gedichtet."

says Goethe,

'Was ich nicht gedichtet, das habe ich nicht gelebt."

says Rückert.

Rückert knew Sanskrit, Persian and Arabian, besides all European languages. He translated holy Sanscrit poems, also much from Persian and Arabian. These latter are full of quips, cranks, assonances and alliteration. In the technique of all possible verse-forms, Rückert is unexcelled. He could do anything with the German language in rhythm, rhyme and melody. He wrote also exquisite, naïve poems for his children.

Another poet who paid much attention to highly perfected forms of verse was August v. Platen. He spent most of his life in Italy, and there studied classical literature. His lyrics are wonderful works of art, but they are too artistic, and do not live with the people. His Venetian sonnets are exceedingly pretty, but this form of poetry, introduced by Schlegel, has always something foreign to German literature. Von Platen introduced also other verse-forms, as Terzinen, Madrigals, Ritornellos and Ghaselen. His views are generally pessimistic, but in form his works are models.

The work of many other poets possesses originality, and is pure and delicate, with manly strength. Victor Scheffel introduced many exquisite lyrics into his epic. Julius Wolff has too much artificiality and pretension in his poems, though they are fresh and flowing. Baumbach has produced a volume of lyrics which are light, airy and pleasing. Theodor Storm, born near Bremen, on the German Ocean, can beautifully describe the sea. His style is delicate and pretty. He is not passionate, but a quiet sadness pervades his poems; he is not sentimental, but shows almost too much resignation.

Nor are women unrepresented in this field of poetry. From the royal Carman Sylva down to some of humblest rank, many

have produced work which is naïve, original and natural. Carman Sylva's poems breathe real, maternal love and womanly devotion. Marie v. Ebner Eschenbach possesses genuine creative genius, and shows in "Ein Kleines Lied" that she recognizes the essence of poetry, that there must be in it not only melody and song, but "eine ganze Seele."

And so we might continue, for the list of German lyric poets seems about endless. In a choice little book, which I happened upon in Berlin, containing German Lyrics since Goethe's death, selected by Maximilian Bern, I have counted the names of two hundred and thirty poets. Indeed, almost every German, cold and stolid as he appears to strangers, but emotional as he really is, a compound of a strong martial nature and a child-like simplicity, almost every German expresses himself with ease in lyric poetry. It seems to be his vital breath.

To speak generally, the German lyric is characterized by depth and warmth of feeling. The theme is often love, and nowhere is this emotion more delicately portrayed. A sweet sadness often lends a charm to these poems, and one feels that they are the real language of the heart. Grief, pain, melancholy and death receive poetic treatment. The delights of spring and summer are pictured. The praises of wine are often sung. Nor are children forgotten, and many of the sweetest poems are cradle songs and simple ballads for the little ones. The glories of the Rhine and the legends of the Rhineland appear again and again. The sea receives attention. The religious lyric shows ardent and pure love of God and humanity. The political, the war and the patriotic lyric have a genuine martial ring about them, and by rousing to enthusiasm the patriotism and chivalry of the Germans, these contributed no mean share to the consolidation of the German Empire.

In form these poems are varied. Mention has already been made of the light, airy grace of many of them. In general, they are brief, and pass from simplest movement to complex. They are often highly artistic in form, and full of figures of speech, fitting of harmonies and arts of diction.

After even a cursory acquaintance with the German lyric since Goethe's time, one must recognize that Heine, Uhland, Rückert and Geibel have been genuine lyric artists, while all through the century Germany has ever had a whole forest of singing birds.

HENRIK IBSEN.

(ABRIDGED.)

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Ibsen's work may be roughly divided into three classes. These are:

1. Historical and legendary dramas.
2. Dramatic poems.
3. Social dramas of modern life.

The historical dramas are four in number, namely: "Lady Inger of Ostraat," "The Vikings at Helgeland," "The Pretenders," and "Emperor and Galilean." Of these, "Emperor and Galilean" deals with the Emperor Julian and his persecution of the early Christians; while the remaining three treat of early Norwegian history and legend. These Norse historical dramas are exceedingly interesting. Few people, it seems to me, could read them without being excited to take more than a mere languid and passing interest in the history and character of the "little rock-fast rock people," as the Norwegians are pleased to call themselves. But these dramas are more than historical dramas, they are tragedies of the human soul. For example, Lady Inger of Ostraat has for its motif the struggle between her patriotic duty and her maternal love, and it is this human element, this old but ever-new conflict between two apparently opposed duties, that gives the drama power over our hearts and imaginations. Lady Inger of Ostraat is perhaps the best adapted for my purpose in this paper, and I shall therefore take it as the typical example of Ibsen's historical dramas.

The time of the play is the age of the Reformation. That was the period of Norway's deepest political degradation. She was under the yoke of Swedish and Danish rulers. Almost all the old aristocratic families had fallen into decay, and among those that were left there was hardly any Norwegian sentiment. Love for their Fatherland was to be found only among the lower classes, and a few outlawed Norwegian nobles. In the words of the play, "an empty helmet, an edgeless sword, a shield without a grip," were suitable symbols of Norway's faded glory.

Lady Inger was the last of the nobility in whom there flickered a single spark of patriotic love, and in her the Norwegian patriots rested their hopes. While yet a young girl, she had sworn over the bier of Knut Alfson, the murdered Norwegian pa-

triot, to venture life and lands to avenge his death on the foreign rulers. Before she married Nils Gyldenlöve, the foreign High Steward, she had met Sten Sture, the Swedish Chancellor, and had fallen in love with him. Their natural son became the unhappy and innocent cause of all her trouble. Fearing lest so close a union with the powerful Swede might endanger her position of influence in Norway, she sent the boy-child away to be reared by her friend, Peter Kanzler, a devoted Norwegian patriot. Then arose that heartrending conflict between two impelling motives that comes to so many men and women. Her love for her son and her devotion to her native land came into mortal combat, and the result was paralysis of action in life and a broken heart in death. Fear lest any step she should take might endanger her son's life rendered her incapable of any decisive action. Finally, to win Denmark's friendship, and thereby, as she fancied, to save her son's life from death at Danish hands, she married Nils Gyldenlöve, the Danish High Steward, and by that act became "homeless in the hearts of her people." By this marriage she had several daughters, two or three of whom she married to Danish noblemen. But she had not given her heart with her hand, and, as a consequence, her "wifely duties were as serfdom to her," and she had "no mother's heart for her daughters." But her son was the "child of her very soul," and the "one thing that brought to mind the time when she was a woman and nought but a woman." During all the years from her son's birth to the night during which the events of the play take place, Lady Inger has never once seen her son. Peter Kanzler, the boy's foster-father, has retained him as a hostage for his mother's fidelity to the Norwegian cause, and Lady Inger's mother's heart had sorrowed and wept for the love of her son. At the time of the opening of the play, the peasants of the Dales are in revolt against King Gustav of Sweden. They wish to put the so-called "Dalejunker" on the throne. This "Dalejunker" is supposed by all to be the legitimate son of Sten Sture, but in reality Sten Sture's legitimate son is dead, and the "Dalejunker," around whom the peasants are flocking, is no less a person than Lady Inger's and Sten Sture's son. He comes to Ostraat, and is received by Lady Inger as the heir to the throne, and she by various means is persuaded to come out boldly in support of him. But a new thought has entered into her breast. If this young man has a claim to the throne, why should not her son, who is equally the son of Sten Sture, not have a claim also, and why should he not be king?

This thought insinuates itself into her soul, until it possesses her wholly; ambition for her son becomes her passion and leads to disastrous results. This "Dalejunker" in her home stands in the way of her son, and he must, therefore, be put out of the way. She gives orders for his death, little dreaming that in reality he is her own son. Even before the deed is done remorse seizes her; she repents and wishes to prevent the murder. But it is too late; she arrives but in time to hear the blow struck and the awful thud of her son's body falling upon the floor. Even yet she knows not that it is her son she has had murdered, but the thought of her deed fills her with awful fancies and fearful hallucinations. In her brain the procession that will celebrate the crowning of her son as king mingles in fancy with the funeral procession of the murdered youth. As the men-at-arms bear the coffin through the hall she beholds for the first time Sten Sture's ring about the neck of the dead man. In an instant she recognizes her son and realizes that she is his murderer. With an agonizing shriek she falls senseless upon his coffin. The lights are out and the play is done, and Lady Inger needs only another coffin and a grave beside her child.

In this brief outline of the main action I have perforce omitted any reference to the minor episodes that go to make this a soul-stirring tragedy. The wooing of Elina, Lady Inger's daughter, by Nils Lykke, the breaker of women's hearts and the betrayer of her sister Lucia, is well wrought, and challenges favorable comparison with the similar episode in Shakespeare's Richard III. Ibsen has made good use of the tragic elements with which his story abounds, and has produced a powerful drama. One is inclined to say that it is too powerful. An atmosphere of gloom pervades the play from beginning to end, and not even the faintest ray of sunshine is permitted to penetrate as a relief to the all-encircling sombreness. This is true of all these historical plays. They are dark, foreboding tragedies, without a glimmer of cheerfulness.

Each scene adds something to heighten the tragic tone and effect, until the intensity becomes almost painful. The play gains undoubtedly in force and concentration, but some of the effect is assuredly lost when it becomes more tragic than the reader or spectator can bear. Another feature of these historical plays is the melodramatic quality that characterizes them. Again, it must be observed that, like the dramas of the Greek stage, Lady Inger of Ostraat presents only the crisis of the action. It is true of a great many of Ibsen's best plays that a

great deal of the action has preceded the opening of the play. A necessary consequence of this is that not a little of the dialogue must be devoted to an unfolding of the past, and nothing is more admirable than the skilful and natural way in which Ibsen manages his materials in this respect. He is, indeed, a master-artist of dramatic technique. As a result of his representing the crisis of the action, not a few of the plays observe the unities of time and place as well as of action. To these facts may be partially attributed the impression of artistic wholeness that Ibsen's best work seldom or never fails to make on the reader.

DRAMATIC POEMS.

Ibsen has written three dramatic poems, "Love's Comedy," "Brand," and "Peer Gynt." "Love's Comedy" is as yet untranslated, and I must, therefore, confine my attention to "Brand" and "Peer Gynt." They are two noble poems, and upon them Ibsen's fame in the future will doubtless depend. His social dramas deal with questions that have a special interest for this fin-de-siècle age, but "Brand" and "Peer Gynt" are poems for all time. Their full significance does not yield itself to the careless reader, nor even to the careful reader upon first perusal. As to "Faust," one can return to them time after time, with the assurance that each re-reading will disclose ampler meaning and greater beauty.

"Brand" and "Peer Gynt" are companion pieces, and should be read together. They are totally unlike in many ways, but their spiritual significance is the same. Both deal with the solemn problem of self-realization. "Brand" shows one way to this great end, the way that leads to success; "Peer Gynt" presents another way, the way that ends in sad, hopeless failure. "Peer Gynt" is Ibsen's life-like portrait of what the Norwegian people are; "Brand" is his picture of what they ought to be. But they are more than this. Few of us care two straws for knowing what kind of people Norwegians are. But Norwegians are more or less like other people in the world, and what applies to them applies to Canadians as well. If the man, Peer Gynt, be the incarnation of all that is weak in the Norwegian character, we must surely confess that the Norwegian character is remarkably like the Canadian character. In other words, "Brand" and "Peer Gynt" are world poems, not merely national poems. "Brand" is filled with angry denunciation of mankind, as represented by the man Peer Gynt, and the elevation of a lofty though terribly severe ideal for men to aim at attaining. I shall try to

set forth the charge that Ibsen makes against the age, and the ideal that he sets up.

In the first place the age is half-hearted in everything. It is neither good nor bad; it is only half good or half bad. A spirit of cowardly compromise has eaten its way into the very vitals of mankind; men are no longer men, they are only half men. They are not anxious to be wholly good, and dreadfully afraid to be wholly bad. To Ibsen's mind this half-heartedness is worse than downright wickedness. With Browning, Ibsen could have said:—

> "Let a man contend to the uttermost
> For his life's set prize, be it what it will!
> . . . . . .
> And the sin I impute to each frustrate ghost
> Is, the unlit lamp and the ungirt loin,
> Though the end in sight was a vice, I say."

For Ibsen this spirit of compromise is Satan; it is this lukewarm half-heartedness that renders the task of raising men so difficult. As Brand says: "From the mean comes meanness, pure and simple; but active evil can easily be converted into good."

In addition to being half-hearted, men are hypocritical. They pretend to believe one thing, but their actions are wholly out of harmony with their beliefs and professions. As Brand puts it: "Men separate life from faith and instruction; they have built no bridge between life and religion, or between action and idea." They have not yet learnt that their religion should be more than mere profession, that it should show itself in daily life. They are very glad to believe that centuries ago on the cross One bore the penalty for them; but they exhibit no life to indicate that they have any conception of what such a belief means. They fancy they can now dance through life, and never for one moment realize that the acceptance of His sufferings brings to them any responsibility of love and sacrifice. Sacrifice! They know not what it means. They are too lazy and too slothful; they are, as Brand says, "slack of heart and dull of soul." They pray, but not with depth of feeling and anguish of soul, and as a result their prayers never reach Heaven. One petition alone do they utter with intensity of desire, and that is, "Give us this day our daily bread," for material comfort is the only thing they ardently wish.

Half-heartedness, then, hypocrisy, slothfulness, absence of genuine feeling and low desires, are the items in Ibsen's indict-

ment of the age, and who is there to deny the general justice of the accusation ?

Brand is a Norwegian pastor, who believes with all his heart that he has a call to cure this sickly generation. He has an inspiring certainty that he not only knows where the sickness in mankind is, but also that he has the gospel that will heal men. For him, there are three classes of men who need to be regenerated. These are the light-hearted, the faint-hearted and the wrong-hearted. The light-hearted dance through life and forget the yawning precipice of death at their feet; the faint-hearted are unwilling to engage in a desperate struggle with sin; they have lived in a rut of habit, and are too lazy to take the trouble to rise to a higher level. The wrong-hearted cannot distinguish between the evil and the good; indeed, they take the evil for the good. Against such as these Brand fights with all the strenuousness of his earnest soul.

The first proposition of his gospel is that man should be himself, whatever that self may be. Let him be what he ought to be; but if he cannot be that, let him be wholly and solely a man of clay. But the great question is, How can a man be himself ? There is one sure way, and that is to slay himself. "In the power of self-sacrifice, says Brand, lies the possibility of uprising." The path of self-renunciation is the only path that leads to perfect self-realization.

But this sacrifice must not simply be outward form; it must first be an inward, spiritual feeling that will manifest itself in life. It is in the heart that the "vulture of self-will must be slain; there the new Adam must be born." Furthermore, the sacrifice must be glad and willing. "Dying in anguish upon the tree is not martyrdom; but this first, *willing* the death of the Cross, this is taking hold of salvation." It is this willing that avails. With Browning, again, Ibsen seems to be in accord. Both agree that "'Tis not what man does that exalts him, but what man would do."

Once again this sacrifice must be complete; in it there must be no cowardly compromise. In it, as in everything, Brand demands "all or nothing." Everything must be given up if necessary; even life itself must not be denied if it be required. There must be no haggling, for "every sacrifice that is not all is as though it were cast into the sea." Finally, the sacrifice must not end with to-day. It must last through life, till one's all has been sacrificed, till the will is completely under control, till the commandment "all or nothing" holds supreme sway in the soul.

Joyous, whole-souled, life-long self-surrender is the golden way to complete self-realization. The reward of such sacrifice is the "cleansing of the will, soaring faith and unity in the soul." This is the stern but blessed gospel that Brand preaches to frail mankind. But he does more than preach it; first, like Chaucer's poor parson, he followed it himself. If he requires "all or nothing" from his flock in the Norwegian highlands, he is no less rigorous in his demands upon himself. His people unanimously and spontaneously acknowledge that, while other people pointed out the way, he alone walked in it. Throughout the poem we see him pass through the waters of tribulation in his resolute adherence to his principle. He sacrifices fame, pleasure and wealth; nay, more than that, he gives up child and wife; but in doing so he reaches lofty spiritual heights of which not many so much as dream, and but few attain. And yet he fails as far as lifting up the people is concerned. Notwithstanding his noble example, his flock do not follow him; they are willing to go a certain distance, but no farther; they soon falter and fall off, and he is left alone on the heights. The ponderous vis inertiæ of the people overcomes him. As the provost puts it, "No one wins a struggle who has not the times on his side," and Brand sadly confesses that "he fights forlorn who fights alone." But, nevertheless, he has won the greatest of victories; he has been true to his ideal, he has won victory over self. He has won that inner, spiritual victory that will surely bring its eternal reward.

From this cold, prosaic statement of Ibsen's "criticism of life" one might imagine that "Brand" is a homily from the lips of a stern Puritan divine. But "Brand" is not a sermon. It is a beautiful poem, filled with many poetical images and stimulating thoughts expressed in appropriate form. For pure pathos few scenes surpass the remarkable scene in the fourth act, in which "Brand" demands of his wife the last and most heart-rending sacrifice of all. This and other beautiful passages must be read to be appreciated.

As I have already said, the poem "Peer Gynt" is a companion piece to "Brand." Both give the same solution to the problem of self-realization. The answer of both to the all-important question is that "To be oneself is to slay oneself." Brand realizes himself because he treads the path of generous, unselfish sacrifice. On the other hand, "Peer Gynt" is convinced that no one can be himself who makes of himself a "sumpter-mule for others' woes and others' weal." His motto is, "To thyself be enough." He chooses the path of selfish self-sufficiency, and the end is sad ruin and the loss of his soul.

Peer is the incarnation of all that Brand so angrily denounces. He is a typical half-man. He lives in the memories of his ancestors, and fancies that some day "great things will come of him." He never sets about doing anything great; it is so much easier to dream of doing great things. He never looks facts squarely in the face; if obstacles present themselves, he will avoid them, and never by any chance attempt to overcome them. His motto in life is never to take the inevitable step. Regarding a particular action that is performed before his eyes he confesses that it would be possible for him to

> "Think of it, wish it done, will it to boot,
> But do it! No, that's past my understanding."

He is only one of your middling sinners. He has not been an out-and-out sinner, but has always hedged and tried to strike a balance by doing something good. If he has made money by selling idols to the heathen in the spring, he has made up for his wickedness by sending out missionaries to them in the fall; even from this laudable enterprise he derives personal advantages, for he is careful to sell the missionaries Bibles—always at a handsome profit. If he has taken on the outward form of Christianity it is only to quiet his conscience, and because, after all, it is "best to follow the fashion a bit."

Such a man, then, is Peer Gynt, and doubtless there are many more like him. He has failed in the purpose of life. He has tried to be himself, but has taken the wrong path, and has never been himself at all. He has only been a half-man. For such half-men as Peer Gynt there is, according to Ibsen, no individual immortality. The souls of all such men are gathered into one melting-pot and moulded over. This idea Ibsen develops in a conversation between Peer Gynt and a Button-Moulder, who is Death in disguise. From this dialogue I make some quotations:—

> PEER—
> At worst you may call me a sort of a bungler,
> But certainly not an exceptional sinner.
>
> THE BUTTON MOULDER—
> Why that is precisely the rub, my man;
> You're no sinner at all in the higher sense;
> That's why you're excused all the torture pangs
> And land, like others, in the casting ladle.
> . . . . . .
> You're nor one thing nor t'other then, only so-so,
> A sinner of really grandiose style

Is nowadays not to be met on the highways.
It wants much more than merely to wallow in mire ;
For both vigor and earnestness go to a sin.
. . . . . .
The sulphur pool
Is no place for you, who but plashed in the mire :
In consequence, friend, I must melt you up.
. . . . . .
Now you were designed for a shining button
On the vest of the world, but your loop gave way,
So into the waste-box you needs must go,
And then, as they phrase it, be merged in the mass.

PEER—

You're surely not meaning to melt me up,
With Dick, Tom, and Harry, into something new ?

THE BUTTON MOULDER—

That's just what I do mean, and nothing else.
We've done it already to plenty of folks.

PEER—

But I wont be deprived of one doit of myself.
Have me judged by the law in the old-fashioned way.
. . . . . .
But this other notion—to have to be merged
Like a mote in the carcass of some outsider—
This casting ladle—this Gynt cessation—
It stirs up my innermost soul in revolt.

It is not surprising that Peer's soul should be stirred. The idea is a novel one for him. We do not like the idea any more than Peer does, for though most of us are half-men, just like Peer, we are equally as convinced as he of our own value, and are equally as sure that we deserve individual perpetuation. But what right has any man to expect that he will have an individual immortality, if he has had no individuality on earth ? According to Ibsen, men who are really good men may expect an eternity of bliss; really downright sinners will undergo an immortality of pain; both will be preserved as individuals, for they have been themselves wholly, whether good or bad, and that, after all, is the principal thing. The startling nature of this proposition is only increased by the realization that there are a good many Peer Gynts in the world, and that if men are judged by this standard the majority will end in the melting-pot. Like Peer, most men fail to fulfil their purpose in life; they "set at defiance their life's design," and as a consequence must be "clapped into the casting-ladle with other spoilt goods." But how is a poor human

wretch to know what is his "life's design"? This is the riddle that every man must solve. Let me quote again another portion of the dialogue between Peer Gynt and "The Button-Moulder":—

PEER—

What is it, at bottom, this "being oneself"?

THE BUTTON MOULDER—

To be oneself is to slay oneself,
But on you that answer is doubtless lost;
And therefore we'll say: to stand forth everywhere
With master's intention displayed like a sign-board.

PEER—

But suppose a man never has cause to know
What Master meant with him?

THE BUTTON MOULDER—

He must divine it.

PEER—

But how oft are divinings beside the mark,
Then one's carried into the depths in middle career.

There is the heart-breaking tragedy of life in a nutshell. Life is a problem of maximum importance, but man has but a minimum of light and guidance to the solution thereof. Men spend the energy of a lifetime in trying to guess the vast riddle of the Sphinx, but the end is often flat failue. So it is with poor Peer Gynt; he has miserably failed in life's great purpose. In the poem, however, his final fate is not absolutely decided, and from the last scene it would appear that Ibsen intends to suggest that the love of a pure woman may avail even so far as to rescue him from the extinction he so richly deserves.

I must confess that I have failed to give any adequate account of this remarkable poem. It would require a whole article to give anything like a full conception of the humour and pathos, the whimsical fancies, the delicious and wholesome satire and the meaningful thought that render this dramatic romance a marvellous poem. My only hope is that by what I have said of it and "Brand" and the historical dramas, may inspire some of my hearers to go to the originals.

FIXED FORMS OF FRENCH VERSE.

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The group of fixed poetic forms (*poemes traditionnels à forme fixe*) which comprises the Ballade and chant Royal, the Rondel and Rondeau, the Triolet, the Villanelle and the Virelai, has no analogy outside of French literature. In the other Romanic languages, especially in Provençal and Italian, we may observe the phenomenon of poems—in all cases of popular origin—for which certain rules are prescribed (e.g., the Provençal Balada had to have a refrain and a cheerful accompaniment); but these rules concern usually rather the contents than the form, and nowhere in the literature of the south do we find the strict exactitude of structure manifested in the northern French forms. The origin of these poetic forms seems to be, briefly, this: In all the Romance countries the early lyric was anonymous, and was always sung or recited to the accompaniment of music. Certain stanzas and certain combinations of stanzas appealed more to the popular ear than others, probably in some cases on account of the accompaniment; and other poems (songs) were constructed on the same models, which eventually became traditional. In the other Romance languages such forms never became very exact, preserving thus to a greater extent the character of their popular origin. But in France that need of precision in matters of versification which gave us the classic alexandrine and the law of the succession of rhymes, seized upon these rough diamonds and cut and polished them into poetic gems.

It will be impossible within the limits of this paper to state the rules for the composition of poems according to the various forms, or to investigate their origin in detail; it will be sufficient to enumerate the principal characteristics and indicate the present status of our knowledge concerning the derivation of the forms.

Two well-defined characteristics are common to all these forms: 1. The Refrain, one or more verses, sometimes also only part of a verse repeated at definite intervals. 2. All the stanzas of any of these poems run on the same rhymes, so that if, for example, the first stanza is constructed on two rhymes, all the rest of the poem must employ only these two rhymes. In all cases the structure and extent of the poem is rigorously prescribed, for instance, a

ballade of type A (the first of two chief types) must consist of three eight-lined stanzas written in octosyllabic verse, the last line of the first stanza repeating as the eighth of each of the others, and as the fourth of the *Envoi*, a half stanza which completes the poem. The refrain and the *Envoi* are perhaps the two most interesting marks of this group of forms, and they are at the same time incontrovertible proof of its popular origin.

The refrain is common to the early lyric of many languages, including Greek, Latin and Hebrew, and seems to have arisen from the practice of choral singing, it representing the part of the chorus while the rest of the stanza represents the solo. But in the case of the forms under discussion it received an artistic development far beyond its original purpose. It came to serve as a kind of climax, a peroration to the stanza it concluded, containing and being a recapitulation of the thought therein expressed. Or in the hands of a master it often came to be the instrument of pleasant and artistic surprise, as in the following perfect Rondeau by Voiture:

Je ne sçaurois faire cas d'un Amant,
Qu'autre que moy gouverne absolument,
Car chacun sçay que j'aime trop l'empire.
Ce n'est ainsi qu'il me falait écrire,
Vous n'y sçavez que le haut Allemand.

Je veux qu'on soit à moi parfaitement:
Et quand je fais quelque commandement,
Je n' entends pas que l'on me vienne dire:
Je ne sçaurois.

Je vous rendray le même compliment,
Et quelque jour quand voudrez longuement
Veiller icy, je vous diray sans rire
Ma mère entend que chacun se retire,
Ne pensez pas m'arrêter un moment,
Je ne sçaurois.

The *Envoi*, which is found chiefly in the Ballade and Chant Royal, is usually in form a metrical repetition of the latter half of the preceding strophe; in contents, an invocation, message or dedication. The origin of the form of the envoi is to be found in a musical repetition or flourish, with which in time a text came to be conjoined. The function of the *Envoi* as to contents was originally filled by the last stanza of the poem: in the older *romances* and *pastourelles* we frequently find this last stanza containing the dedication, which eventually the *Envoi* usurped. In the older ballades this dedication begins regularly with the word *Prince*, or *Sire*. Regarding the origin of this curious formula there has been much discussion. The most natural explanation seems to be that it was an address to the patron of the poet, and this view is

borne out by the fact that the poets were often on familiar terms with kings and princes, as for example Clément Marot with François de Valois. Another view represented by Charles Asselineau in his *Histoire de la Ballade*, which serves as a preface to De Banville's *Trente-six Ballades Joyeuses*) is that the word *Prince* may have referred originally to the poet crowned in the last poetic contest, who also assigned the subject of the next contest in those *Puys*, or academies of the middle ages to which poets submitted their productinons in competition for crowns and rewards. In this sense, too, the word would have a concrete meaning, but in the later poems it became figurative, e.g., *Prince des Coeurs*, *Reine de Grace*, etc., or often a mere formula, as meaningless as are the stock epithets of Homer.

These forms are all of considerable antiquity; the first Ballade mentioned by Littré is by Guillaume de Machaut (1290-1377), but in *Le Dit de la Panthere d'Amours* by Nicholas de Margival, which dates from early in the thirteenth century, occurs a well defined *Balade*, and also a *Baladele* or Ballade in miniature.

The Rondel, which is the earliest form of the Rondeau, came to its perfection in the hands of Charles d'Orléans, father of Louis XII., who has been called the last of the *trouveres* (1391-1464) The Rondel is a poem of thirteen lines on two rhymes. The two first lines form the refrain, and are repeated twice, in the middle of the poem and at the end. In the Rondel of C. d'Orléans these two refrain-verses form a syntactical whole, and are connected only by their contents with the rest of the poem. In the Rondeau, into which at the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth centuries the Rondel developed, only the initial verse, often indeed only the first few words thereof were repeated as refrain, as in the specimen quoted above. The Rondeau, both in name and in structure seems to be related to the musical form of composition known as Rondo. The problem of this connection is, however, as yet unsolved.

While obeying the same fundamental laws as the form just mentioned, nothing could show a greater contrast with it than the Chant Royal, a poetic structure worthy, by reason of stateliness and harmony, of comparison with the Olympian odes of Pindar. It is a poem of five eleven-lined stanzas written throughout on five rhymes, for which, as in the Ballade and Rondeau, the first strophe forms the model for all succeeding. The extreme difficulty of composing in this form will be apparent to all, and according to certain authorities (e.g. De Gramont) the epithet "royal" refers to the greater difficulty of the form. Others interpret the name

as implying the especial sublimity of the subject-matter treated in such a poem, or connect it like the ballade-formula "prince" with the poets crowned as kings at the literary festivals. It is certain that it is peculiarly adapted to serious and stately subjects. The Chant Royal really represents a further development of the Ballade. A swarm of variations accompanied and followed the appearance of what we now know as the Ballade, but the two types of the latter, the Ballade of three eight-lined stanzas in octosyllabic verses, and the Ballade of three ten-lined stanzas in decasyllabic verses, together with the Chant Royal, have alone persisted. This, by the way, is an additional proof of the popular origin of the form. Had it been the invention of a single poet it would not have taken on so many shapes in the process of its evolution.

We now come to one of the most graceful and original forms of the group, to the Villanelle, which may be defined as follows: A poem in heptasyllabic verse on two rhymes, consisting of an even number of successive tercets of the rhyme order *aba*, the rhyming verses of the first tercet forming a refrain which runs throughout the poem, alternating as the final verses of the successive tercets. In the last stanza both lines appear as refrain, thus converting the last tercet into a quatrain with the rhyme-order *abaa*. As an example of the Villanelle we quote the following of Joseph Boulmier:

EN HIVER.

C'en est fait, je deviens sage,
Sage, helas! faute de mieux;
Et voilà pourquoi j'enrage.

Espérance, ô doux mirage,
Tu n' enchantes plus mes yeux;
C'en est fait, je deviens sage.

Plus de fol enfantillage,
Plus d'enivrement joyeux;
Et voilà pourquoi j'enrage.

A cheval sur un nuage,
Plus de chasse aux rêves bleus;
C'en est fait, je deviens sage.

Hiver, ton blanc paysage
A déteint sur mes cheveux;
Et voilà pourquoi j'enrage.

Chaque jour, à mon visage
Le miroir dit "Pauvre vieux!"
C'en est fait, je deviens sage,
Et voilà pourquoi j'enrage.

According to Lubarsch (*Franz. Verslehre*, p. 383,) the word villanelle is connected with the Spanish and Italian *villano*

(peasant), and denoted originally songs which were sung in the country at the hearth-fire during the long winter evenings, or else for dancing in the open air. The Villanelle seems to have retained its popular character longer than any other of the group, for as late as the end of the sixteenth century the name was used to denote any light and merry poem with a refrain. Jean Passerat (1534-1602) was the poet who gave it the artistic development so evident in the specimen quoted. The exquisite strophic rhythm of the Villanelle, in which a verse on the second rhyme is regularly enclosed between two on the first, of which one bears the refrain, Banville has compared, not inaptly, to a woof of silver and golden threads traversed by a third of rose colour.

The Triolet, which we have now to mention, is related to the Rondel of Charles d'Orléans; it is perhaps only an older form thereof. In the sixteenth century it even passes under the name of Rondel or Rondeau. It is nevertheless a distinct form, and eventually differentiated further by confining itself to the octosyllabic metre, whereas it was at first written in decasyllabic verse as well. It has been found to be best adapted for light, playful verse, or else for delicate satire. Here is one by De Banville of the former character:

TRIOLET, A AMARANTE.

Je mourrai de mon désespoir
Si vous n'y trouvez un remède.
Exilé de votre boudoir,
Je mourrai de mon désespoir.
Pour votre toilettedu soir
Heureuse la main qui vous aide!
Je mourrai de mon désespoir
Si vous n'y trouvez un remède.

We find also in modern times longer poems composed of a series of triolets, e.g., *Les Prunes* of Alphonse Daudet. The origin of the name triolet is uncertain. An obvious suggestion is that it arose from the threefold repetition of the refrain. Or it may have been originally destined for three-part song. Characteristic of the Triolet is the predominance of the rhyme *a* which recurs four times over the rhyme *b*, which recurs but twice.

The Virelai deserves mention for the sake of the distinction between Virelai ancien and Virelai nouveau. The Virelai ancien is a rarity in French verse, and with the Virelai nouveau has nothing in common but the name. The Virelai nouveau reminds one somewhat of the Villanelle. It is a poem in free verse on two rhymes, of which one forms the *rime dominante*, and may connect a large

number of successive stanzas, while the other rhyme simply breaks in at intervals, to divide the poem into periods. The two rhymes must therefore be clearly distinct from each other in sound. The refrain of the Virelai consists of a couplet on the main rhyme, and is placed at the head of the poem, and also at the close, but in inverse order. Moreover, throughout the poem the two verses of the refrain occur alternately and at arbitrary intervals. The beginnings of the Virelai nouveau are not exactly known. It is first mentioned by the Jesuit priest Mourgues in his *Traite de Versification*, 1685. It seems, however, as we have already suggested, to be an offshoot of the Villanelle.

We have now indicated in general terms the characteristics of this group of forms and also what is known of their origin. It remains to sketch briefly their historical development.

Their history may be fairly divided into three periods, excluding the thirteenth century, in which, as a group, they were still in a rudimentary stage, as follows: 1st. Fourteenth and fifteenth and first half of the sixteenth century, the period of their culmination and greatest popularity. 2nd. The first half of the seventeenth century. 3rd. The second half of the present century.

During the first period they were practically the only vehicles for lyric poetry. We can have no idea, for instance, of the immense popularity of the Ballade, except perhaps by comparing it with the wide-spread use of the sonnet in our own day. Nor did it embrace a less wide range of subjects than the latter. It was made the vehicle of religious, political, amorous, satirical, and even scientific thought, and this in spite of the apparent artificiality of the Ballade. An examination of Ballade literature shows no small degree of literary and poetic merit, due doubtless to the popular origin and slow development of has left us eleven hundred and seventy-five Ballades, embracing a great variety of subjects, besides numerous Rondeaux, Virelais, etc., and one of the earliest treatises on versification, all of which have been recently published for the *Societe des Anciens Textes* in Paris. There are thousands of Ballades in MSS in the Royal French Library awaiting publication, and in general it may be said that these fixed forms afford a field of interesting literary and philological investigation, in which as yet nearly everything remains to be done. We have already mentioned Machaut, Deschamps and Charles d'Orléans as important names in the early literature of fixed forms. To the first period belong also Jehannot de Lescurel, Jean Froissart (the chronicler), Christine de Pisan, Alain Chartier, and last and greatest, François Villon. Lescurel

has left sixteen Ballades, mostly of singular grace, lightness and elegance. They constitute one half of his total remains, which have been edited by Montaiglon, Paris, 1855. Nothing is known of his life. Froissart (1337-1410) is the next to claim our attention. His youth was given up to poetry as his old age was to history. He wrote a vast quantity of the short, formal pieces which were fashionable, and often inserted them into longer poems of an allegorical amatory kind. Many of these are autobiographical. Froissart, though inferior to Lescurel, and though far less remarkable as a poet than as a prose writer, can hold his own with Deschamps and Machaut.

Christine de Pisan (1363-1420) was a pupil of Deschamps, as the latter had been of Machaut. A complete edition of her works has been edited for the *Société des Anciens Textes* by Maurice Roy, Paris, 1886. This edition contains one hundred and seventy Ballades, which form a large proportion of her entire work. The one hundred Ballades at the beginning of the first volume are her earliest work, but their composition is shown by M. Roy to have extended over a period of five or six years, and they show a great degree of finish. In poetic charm they are scarcely to be surpassed. In the first twenty the poetess, who in 1389 lost her young husband, deplores her misfortune in exquisite verse. The subject of most of the remaining poems of this group is a lofty and ideal love. But thoughts of love do not form exclusively the subjects of all the Ballades of Ch. de Pisan. We find scattered here and there the most diverse ideas, and the author manages to vary with an accomplished art the expression and the fancy of her poetry; here the feelings of sadness produced by illness; there the delicately ironic praise of a contemporary; next a dissertation on the qualities of good knights, or a satire directed against jealous husbands. It will be seen that Ch. de Pisan is a poet of no mean order; but until M. Roy undertook the complete edition of her works, they had remained in obscurity for more than four centuries, unprinted or printed only in extract.

Alain Chartier (1390-1455), like Froissart, devoted himself to allegorical and controversial love poems, and like Deschamps and Ch. de Pisan, to moral verse. On the whole, he may be said to be the most complete example of the scholarliness which tended more and more to characterize French poetry at this time, and which too often degenerated into mere pedantry. Chartier is the first considerable writer of original work who latinizes much: he, however, observes due measure in it.

To the strictly mediæval period, which Charles d'Orléans (†1465) may be said to close, belong many poems composed in these forms by poets of lesser rank; or by those whose names have not been preserved. They are indeed the vehicle for all manner of thought, nor limited to any tone or special inspiration. The reason is that their character is entirely in the rhythm, and by no means in the subject.

Villon, the first modern man in France, as Petrarch was in Italy, really belongs to a period of his own. Living between the dates of 1431-1485, he occupies a position between Charles d'Orléans on the one hand, and Marot and his school on the other. His work is full of touches of nature as well as distinguished by consummate art of expression. Boileau, in his *Art Poetique*, dates modern French poetry from Villon: "*Villon sut le premier, dans ces siècles grossiers, Debrouiller l'art confus de nos vieux romanciers.*" His special title is "Prince of all ballade-makers," but he is equally at home in the Rondeau. His Rondeau on Death is beautiful; in it occurs the famous line, "*Deux estions, et n'avions qu'ung coeur,*" the oldest version of "two hearts that beat as one."

Partly contemporary with Villon and partly succeeding him was the school of the so-called *Grands rhetoriqueurs*, who are important solely from an historical point of view.

Pierre Gringoire, the dramatist, has left several Ballades mostly moral in tone, and a Chant Royal with the stirring refrain, "*Ung Dieu, ung Roy, une Foy, une Loy.*" He deserves notice for the ridicule which he casts on the classic formula of the *envoi*, "*Prince,*" which, in fact, had been often used in a senseless manner. He turns it by a play upon words into "*Prins ce*" (modern "ceci pris").

But it was reserved for Clément Marot (1497-1544), the poet laureate of François I., to close with glory the first great period of the formal lyric. His easy grace is in utter contrast to the stiff verse of the *rhetoriqueurs*. As an example of his elegance and *sensibilite* we quote the following *Chant de May*, in ballade form:

CHANT DE MAY.

En ce beau mois délicieux,
Arbres, fleurs, et agriculture,
Qui, durant l'yver soucieux,
Avez esté en sepulture,
Sortez pour servir de pasture
Aux troupeaux du plus grand Pasteur;
Chacun de vous en sa nature,
Louez le nom de Créateur.

Les servans d'amour furieux
Parlent de l'amour vaine et dure,
Où vous, vrays amans curieux,
Parlez de l'amour sans laidure.
Allez aux champs sur la verdure
Ouir l'oyseau, parfait chantear;
Mais du plaisir, si peu qu'il dure,
Louez le nom de Créateur.

Quand vous verrez rire les cieux
Et la terre en sa floriture,
Quand vous verrez devant vos yeux
Les eaux lui bailler nourriture,
Sur peine de grand forfaiture
Et d'estre laron et menteur,
N'en louez nulle créature,
Louez le nom de Créateur.

Envoy.

Prince, pensez, veu la facture,
Combien est puissant le facteur:
Et vous aussi, mon escriture,
Louez le nom de Créateur.

Around Marot was grouped a whole generation of more or less clever versifiers, and such an authority was he that the important *Art poetique* of Thomas Sibilet, published in 1548, rests almost entirely on his works.

After Marot the deluge. In 1549, the year after the publication of Sibilet's work, was issued the manifesto of the Pléiade, which inflicted a crushing blow on the Ballade and its congeners. Their sentence, in the language of Du Bellay's *Deffense et Illustration de la langue Francoyse*, is as follows:

"*Ly donques, et rely premièrement* (*ô Poëte futur*), *fueillete de main nocturne et journelle, les exemplaires Grecz et Latins, puis me laisse toutes ces vieilles poësies françoises aux Jeux Floraux de Toulouze, et au Puy de Rouen; comme Rondeaux, Ballades, Virelaiz, Chantz Royaulx, Chansons et autres telles epiceries, qui corrompent le goust de nostre langue, et ne servent sinon à porter tesmoignage de nostre ignorance.*"

So the good old French forms went into disgrace, stigmatized as *epiceries*, and do not reappear until the seventeenth century, under the patronage of the Hôtel de Rambouillet. The names which best illustrate this period of the history of the formal lyric are: Voiture, Sarrasin, Benserade and La Fontaine. Vincent Voiture (1598-1648) was the chief of the school of coterie poets, who devoted themselves to producing *vers de societe*, either for the ladies or the great men of the time. This admirable writer of

prose and verse published absolutely nothing during his lifetime, though his work was in private the delight of the salons. He brought the Rondeau and the Ballade, which the Pléiade had rejected, once more into fashion. Benserade, the principal rival of Voiture, was famous for rondeau-making, and translated the whole of Ovid's Metamorphoses into Rondeaux, which were sumptuously printed at the King's Press at a cost of 10,000 francs. Sarrasin, an admirable prose writer and a clever composer of Ballades, wrote a pompous funeral poem on Voiture's death, in which, as Mr. Gosse says, "among other strange mourners, he makes the poor little triolet, all in tears, trot by the side of the dead poet."

The last great name of this period which is linked with the history of these forms is that of La Fontaine (1631-1687). Thirteen Ballades in the edition of the *Grands Ecrivains* series are all distinguished by great dignity of expression, in accordance with which he regularly chooses type B in decasyllabic metre; he probably shows more true poetic feeling in these Ballades than anywhere else.

After La Fontaine the traditional fixed forms relapse into silence—a silence which endures unbroken for nearly two centuries. The rise and growth of dramatic poetry, and the rule of the alexandrine force the lyric into the background. The opinion of the time is pretty well expressed by Trissotin, in Les Femmes Savantes: "*La Ballade, a mon gout, est une chose fade, Ce n'en est plus la mode, elle sent son vieux temps.*"

But the old forms possess a wonderful vitality, and when the second generation of Romantics set to work to restore all that was best in the older poetry, they were not neglected. Théodore de Banville, Joseph Boulmier, Alphonse Daudet, Albert Glatigny, have all had a share in the good work. There are many examples of these forms in recent French. They seem to have obtained a new lease of life, and it is impossible to foresee what development may be in store for them. In England, where various attempts have been made to write the old French forms, from Chaucer and Gower onward, they have conquered a new domain and widespread favor. In America, too, they have attained in recent years a rapid growth of popularity, and being transferred to the English language they have lost nothing of their true character. This group of truly national forms may not inaptly be compared both in point of origin and in elegance of structure to the Gothic cathedrals of the middle ages, at the building of which the whole people labored, and to which each contributed his part.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

A. STEVENSON, B.A., ARTHUR.

The writing of compositions in schools is frequently a process of making bricks without straw, and very sorry bricks they often are. Now, success in writing presupposes an abundant supply of materials. These materials consist, on the one hand, of cultivated feelings and a large stock of ideas, and on the other hand of a copious vocabulary. Young people, of course, having their reflective powers but little developed, acquire their emotional cultivation and their ideas, as well as their language, chiefly through contact with people and books. The boy who has been brought up in a cultivated household, where conversation usually ranges higher than Easter millinery and horse shows, and sometimes goes beyond politics and the market, or even beyond church socials and the meetings of societies of Christian Endeavor, such a a boy will come to school well equipped for writing, and will need but little instruction on the subject. Therefore what Oliver Wendell Holmes said of moral training might also be said of training for composition; that is, that the right place to begin, is with the boy's grandfather. Yet, as this method, however desirable, is clearly impossible for us, and as we cannot even begin with the boy's father, we must needs be content to begin with the boy himself. Well, then, the best training for the average boy in composition is not writing compositions, but reading them; that is, reading good literature, such as is suitable for his age and mental advancement. If he has naturally a taste for reading, or can be got to have such a taste, the rest will be an easy matter. The first requisite for his success as a writer is reading, the second is reading, and the third is more reading.

It is an old doctrine that we learn to do by doing, or rather, perhaps, by trying to do. This maxim, however, has its limitations. There was once a man who tried to lift himself over a fence by tugging at his boot straps. It is not recorded that he ever succeeded in getting over by that method. So it is idle to keep young people at work writing compositions before they really have anything to write about. Otherwise they will be like the tar-baby in the famous yarn of Uncle Remus, they will just keep on saying nothing, and saying it in a very wearisome way, too.

It must be taken for granted, then, first and always, that before a boy can write, he must know something to write about. If he does not always have on hand what we want him to write

about, we must give him a chance to get it. We may awaken or quicken his interest by conversation on the topic, conversation more or less of the Socratic kind; we may send him to books for information, and also for terms and modes of expression, and we may send him out with his eyes and a pencil, both well sharpened, and ask him to note down what he sees. In employing the latter method it is sometimes well to follow the example of the "city news" editor of a large daily when assigning work to a young reporter; we may give our pupils some indication of what they are to look for. If before sending them out we read to them some well written nature-sketch on the same topic as they have in hand or on a similar one, the effect will be good. I have found the writings of Richard Jefferies, John Burroughs and Henry Thorean especially suitable for this purpose. There are touches of poetic imagination in these writings that lighten up a nature-sketch wonderfully. We might even venture to read to the class a poem bearing upon our topic, such a poem as Roberts writes, or as may be found in a good collection like that made by the poet Bryant. In character description associated with narration, the field for choice of models is boundless; but in our enthusiasm for Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot and "Ian Maclaren," we must not forget Hamlin Garland, Mary E. Wilkins, Sarah Orne Jewett and Mary N. Murfee. The advantage of reading American authors is that they frequently describe types and incidents with which the Canadian boy and girl, at least outside of the cities, is more likely to be familiar, and here, as elsewhere, it is well for learners to proceed from the known to the unknown.

Their own personal experiences and adventures, or those of their relatives, however trivial they may be to others, are usually interesting subjects for young people to write on. But in attempting to write a story of adventure most beginners make the great mistake of dwelling altogether too long on unimportant particulars, and not nearly long enough on the matters that really are of importance. I know of no better corrective of this tendency than the careful reading and broad analysis of a few of Edgar Allan Poe's Tales of the Grotesque and Arabesque, followed up by a study of his short essay on the Philosophy of Composition.

Sketches of scenes and incidents in nature and of mankind and womankind and their ways; tales of adventure and accounts of modes of life and of occupations and processes of work in the town and on the farm, both in early days and at the present time, these make up the greater part of the compositions of my pupils.

At exposition or argument we do but little, except by way of an occasional criticism of some extravagant or misleading statement in newspapers, magazines or elsewhere.

I have not said anything as yet, nor shall I say much about the method of the teacher's work in criticising and correcting the compositions of his pupils. It seems to me that there is often an infinite deal of work done here by the teacher which is productive of very little good, and which might have been much better provided against—an incalculable amount of energy, indeed, sadly run to waste. Let us take a leaf out of the practice of the successful market gardener. He knows that the first and most important provision for a good crop is a clean soil, properly tilled *before the seed is put in at all.* Unless this condition be fulfilled all his subsequent efforts will be at a disadvantage, and will frequently profit but little. The ordinary farmer is not so particular. He takes a piece of ground that happens to be handy, ridges it up and sows his crop, say carrots, in it. Then he waits until the carrots and the weeds both get a good start. Now, with infinite labor and pains, with multitudinous groans and indescribable backaches, or on bended but not prayerful knees, he pulls out the weeds to give his carrots a chance. Or perhaps the farmer saves his own back and sets the boys at the carrots. And people wonder why boys leave the farm! But the market gardener doesn't do things in this way; if he did he'd starve. He doesn't have any weeds. He kills them before they grow. That is scientific practice; the other way is main strength and—something else. Of course teachers are not so foolish as farmers—it couldn't be so—nor are compositions just like carrots; and yet if the ground of our pupils' minds were well cultivated by industrious and careful reading, there would not be nearly so many weeds in our crop of compositions.

Now, taking all previous general preparation for granted, I come to describe very briefly how I deal with a single class exercise. A list of topics is given out at least a fortnight before the work is to be brought in. In some cases the period is longer. About the end of April, for instance, I shall receive a number of sketches for which the writers will have been collecting material during five or six weeks. They will attempt to describe, from their own observation chiefly, the incidents of that perennial marvel, the coming of spring. This topic, you will observe, is seasonable, and it is not too difficult for the entrance class, nor too simple for the staid senior-leaving candidate. Pupils are encouraged to observe *all* the phenomena incident to the change of

the season, and then to select those that are the most striking, or that can be worked up into the most harmonious whole. Every means is taken to have the pupils full of the subject, not only full of knowledge, but full of interest and even enthusiasm, at least in the cases where this is possible with high school pupils. Of course the teacher also must observe and take notes; he also must be full of knowledge and full of enthusiasm, so that when the proper time comes he may speak with authority, and not as a mere pedagogical scribe.

When the hour arrives for the sketches to be handed in, the pupils are requested to interchange their books with their companions for the purpose of criticism. Pupils choose their own critics, and if any pupil does not wish to show his work to a fellow-pupil he hands it in to the teacher before the class work begins. However, I am very rarely asked to receive a book in this way. The work of criticism occupies the whole lesson period, the teacher meanwhile walking about among the members of the class, settling doubtful points when he is appealed to, or occasionally interrogating the critics when he observes errors that have been overlooked. Pupils find this work very interesting, and the degree of interest is probably the measure of the degree of profit derived by them. The matter and style of the writing appeals to them the more directly and forcibly because of their knowledge of its authorship; they are quick to observe the points of fact they have themselves overlooked; the more striking errors and excellences of expression are readily seen. The books are now collected; the work is examined that very evening by the teacher, and the books are returned the next day. I think it of great importance that the teacher's criticisms should be known as soon as possible, and before the pupil's interest in the subject has had time to cool. And so on the next day another class period is devoted to revision and correction. Typical instances of errors have been noted by the teacher, and these are read out and are briefly criticised by the class, or failing this, by the teacher. The common errors on the writer's book have been indicated merely by underscoring, or by a cross at the end of the line. Pupils are expected to find out for themselves what the error is, and also the mode of correction. If they cannot do so they appeal to their neighbors or to the teacher, who is meantime going about among them to see that the errors are certainly corrected. As an aid to this result the teacher's marks are required to be left until the correction is approved. And so the work is completed.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

W. A. PHILLIPS, B.A., LISTOWEL.

In the teaching of composition, it may be safely stated that very few of our teachers have found their work satisfactory in all details. Effort expended in the mechanical technique yields a fair return. Grammar, punctuation, use of words, sentence-structure, paragraph-structure, and essay-plan pass a respectable review before the fateful day of examination. But the very walls of the composition examiners' room must even yet retain the echoes of many a deep-drawn sigh for a glimpse of a friendly oasis in the monotonous expanse of desert commonplace, as the weary examiner trudged on through a barren world of words, words, words.

The memory of those days has suggested to me a few thoughts which will form the subject of my remarks. There are diseases, the physician says, the causes of which are, for a time, not easily understood, and the patient is simply advised to be careful in his diet and regular in his hours and habits, in the hope that nature will effect a cure. We have followed too long this *laissez-faire* system in teaching composition, trusting to a substantial diet of mechanical technique and critical routine, aided by nature, to produce a cure of the ills of the composition patient. Therefore, with an indistinct idea of the object he is seeking in his study, and judging from the importance the teacher attaches to these mechanical details, the student makes the mistake of looking upon them as elements synonymous with a finished style. A modicum of thought will give him all the excuse he needs to lead him to inflict on his teacher page after page of his commonplaces, and in all seriousness he would ask for an explanation of a severe criticism.

The main cause of his misconception is one which is difficult to determine in definite concrete form for his use. It is easy to show him that his thought is crude, his situations unnatural, and that his sense of proportion or his mental perspective has resulted in distorting the picture conceived in his mind. But when he has overcome these, it is not so easy to show him that there is something still lacking, that his essay is devoid of interest—in short, is commonplace. He seems as yet quite oblivious of the fact that mere correctness of description or soundness of thought does not constitute literary excellence. With

him every day has its necessary accompaniment of daylight, having the "regulation" constituents, with the sun generally shining somewhere in the vicinity, while picnics, drives, walks, excursions by land or water, and the inevitable but harmless accidents, add the human feature of interest. Every evening has its sunset glow, every night its accommodating moon, and, if the essayist has seen fifteen years and not more than eighteen, the scenery is enlivened by an accommodated pair of moonstruck lovers, discussing the only commonplace the world will tolerate. Every bright day has its sunshine, every gloomy day its clouds, and every storm its thunder, lightning and rain. Spring invariably melts away the snow and swells the river, and every season is gravely and minutely described for our information. In this way the essayist goes on endlessly, and when he finds no scoring against grammar, punctuation, etc., he thinks he has a grievance if his essay is marked at thirty per cent. You point out to him that much of the matter he has given should have been assumed or thrown into subordinate places in the description, and in a moment the horror of his situation flashes on him, for on that principle of criticism the volume of his essay would be diminished more than the reflection of the human hand under X rays, and would present to him a ghastlier skeleton. You have undermined the foundations of his faith, and it has fallen, and as yet you have given him nothing to take its place. Your criticism is destructive, not constructive, and teaching based on it is negative and chilling, not positive and encouraging. To remain at that stage is, I am convinced, what too often we teachers do, and for lack of that positive content, the next essays ring but another change of the commonplace.

This tendency in teachers will, I think, admit of an explanation that contains the essential features of the cause of the pupil's failure. People are delighted by the singing of Albani or the playing of Paderewski or by the paintings of the great masters, yet may themselves be unable to understand either difficult art or find the sources of the artists' inspiration. With the same result, in many cases, we read the great masters of literature. Our attitude towards them is what I shall call the merely receptive, a sort of passive state, marked chiefly by the absence of any critical reflection—the attitude of the lay mind whose only aim is, of course, to gain an hour's pleasant diversion, demanding the expense of no serious effort. Teachers of composition with such ideals naturally confine themselves to the merely formal details we have already noticed.

Or rejecting such a system as faulty, we may approach our subject of study in a different way, and assume the attitude of the zealous scientist. We take the finished product, and by an exhaustive analysis we form a tabulated list of its grammatical, rhetorical, intellectual, and emotional constituents. Each series passes in critical review before the wondering eyes of the student, and he beholds a skeleton, duly articulated and standing not inside of, but beside its fleshly covering, that has lost all form and—what to our scientific teacher is of only secondary importance—its life. The fragrance and beauty of the spring flowers are our delight, but the knife of the botanist not only sets free the volatile spirit of that fragrance and destroys the beauty of the flower, but it also makes wounds that send out exhalations, never fragrant and never associated with our pleasure. The more ethereal blossoms of literature even more surely lose their delicate and volatile life and charm under cold, calculating analysis. Such a procedure can find no excuse but that of utility—a utility that often plays the role of the cruel foster-mother to the delicately organized and sensitive child.

These I have considered to be the two main reasons for the fatal commonplaceness in our pupils' essays. But I am aware that, in the minds of most of us, there is another that can be stated fairly by slightly modifying the dictum, "Poets are born, not made," to read, "Essayists are born, not made." This idea in the teacher and the pupil works admirably to paralyze all effort after the so-called unattainable, to discourage that individuality which is said by the one and believed by the other to belong to genius alone. Indeed, I venture to say that many will consider that teacher a public benefactor, deserving a name that will be green when that of the aspiring pupil will have disappeared in the ashes of the editor's waste paper. But it is well known that the modern editor can be safely entrusted with the process of discouraging over-eager fledglings of literature. The teacher, on the other hand, while he should not arouse in his pupils undue ambition for fame, cannot afford to assume the office of the critical editor, for thereby he destroys not only the natural and powerful incentive to work, but also the very basis of that interest which leads a pupil to polish his style, and which even gives birth to moments of inspiration that would never have seen life under the opposite conditions. The editor must seek entertainment for his readers, and, however well disposed he may be, he is not paid to instruct or encourage contributors; the teacher must believe in wide possibilities in his pupils, and must always remember that he is paid to instruct and encourage *his* contributors.

What, then, is the objective point at which the teacher of composition should aim? In his progress towards it, is it possible to set definite mile-posts throughout the route to be taken? That it is possible to have a fixed standard of absolute literary merit is proven by the requirements of our departmental examinations. Essays that with but slight changes would have graced many of our lighter magazines were marked high, it is true, but were treated not as exceptional at all, or as the work of genius. If the examiner expects this, the teacher, in all consistency, must make it possible for the pupil to attain the proficiency demanded of him.

While thinking on this line and endeavoring to understand the nature of the elements of literary expression, and to reduce them, in a measure, to laws for practical class-work, I came to the conclusion that there may be some analogy between composition and reading, and that a thorough knowledge of those features most directly entering into good expression in reading may suggest the general character of those that give the literary flavor to the work of a good writer. I chose from the H. S Reader an extract of a somewhat dramatic and narrative nature, and required my class of entrants of last July to read it in the presence of our music teacher, who marked the musical range through which the voice of each passed while reading. The results are as follows:—

Pupil.	15 yrs. 1	12 yrs. 2	3	4	5	6	High pitch. 7	8	9	10	11	High pitch. 12	13	14	15	16
Range	7	7	6½	5½	5½	5½	5	5	5	5	5	4½	3½	3½	3	2
Composition	80	57	65	66	60	62	61	55	54	47	52	57	45	37	42	37

The first line contains the musical range (from seven to two), and the second contains the marks given by me at the entrance examination for composition, before such a comparison was thought of. The uniformity in the relative standing of the pupils in the two columns is striking, whether any important conclusions may be drawn from it or not. Naturally I tried to find the common potent factor or law explaining the phenomenon, and with what success I shall leave you to judge. In reading, the mere statement of fact needs but a small range of musical notes, often only two, and never more than three; but when the conversational and emotional elements are introduced, the range is materially affected, often increasing to the extent of an octave, while

complex emotions produce those wonderful curving inflections and intonations that reach a triumph in the flexible voice of the child or of the trained elocutionist. The class in question about equally appreciated and expressed what I shall call the merely intellectual element of the passage, but the defects in expression increased in proportion as the range of notes employed decreased, until the emotional features and conversational directness disappeared altogether. To state it differently: some made nothing more than an intellectual connection with the facts in print before their eyes, while others made in addition an emotional and personal connection with the whole situation described. Those significant trifles—a pause, a curve, a tone—show the ready playful fancy, acting the conjurer and bringing before our eyes the moving and living picture. What has been said about reading may be said about composition. The commonplaces of fact sufficiently enlighten us regarding a particular piece of description, and with them most pupils are satisfied; but, taking the same facts, another pupil will introduce those significant literary trifles, a humorous situation, a flash from his own personality, a throb of sympathy, an exclamation of surprise or admiration, a happy phrase containing the ordinary writer's paragraph, or a suggestive touch that opens a widening vista to our fancy.

The analogy does not end with these rather trite and general features. It extends to the more practical issue—methods in teaching. All the conditions necessary for good results in the attainment of expressive reading hold good in the sphere of composition. The pupil must be familiar with his medium of expression, so as not to be handicapped by any feature of novelty taking his attention from the main matter. The teacher must cultivate a healthy class sentiment, encouraging self-expression or originality, that is, an exercise of the imagination that will make the student feel he is dealing with thoughts at first hand, and that he alone, on the given occasion, is responsible for their expression. In consistency with these two conditions, the reward for the work done should be indicated as definitely as possible, in order that the student may have a criterion based on the judgment of his teacher, and know the relative proportions that should exist between merely formal technique and individuality of conception. To do this satisfactorily, the teacher must be more than the mere pleasure-seeker in literature, more than the mere analyst; he must be able to discriminate between those merely intellectual elements for clearness of thought and those distinctively literary elements—that projection into the current of the

thought, of an original personality throbbing with life; he must with care and appreciation point out these delicate instruments of the literary artist and demonstrate their effective work by stripping the thought of them and making them a definite subject of sympathetic study.

Finally, between reading and composition there exists another, and, in its bearing on this matter, a very important relation, which, however, is no longer that of mere analogy, but is clearly a strong confirmation of the soundness of the same. Oral reading on the lines indicated assists powerfully in introducing through the ear a sense of rhythm, a ready suggestion of word or phrase to fit the idea and an intuitive detection of harsh sound-combinations. But this is only a small part of its benefits. The cultivation of a power to express both the emotional and the intellectual elements of what we read presupposes the awakening of our literary appreciation under conditions most favorable to leave lasting impressions. Again, the matter read contains a mint of instruction to the mind of a pupil thus awakened, and readily he assimilates literary form, a sense of proporton, and avoids what once he did, because he does not find it in the works of his favorite authors.

It is unnecessary to analyse further the relation existing between these two subjects. My purpose throughout has not been to disparage the formal features of the teaching of composition, but rather to try to give to the expression of the pupil's individuality its due place and to suggest a few ideas that have been of great benefit to me in practical work, by showing me more clearly how his mind acts and how the teacher may, therefore, more easily direct the faculties acting. My only apology for presenting to you this very imperfect treatment of the subject is the expectation that it may lead my fellow-teachers to greater successes in the same direction, and assist to some degree in teaching an important subject.

NATURAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

TEXT-BOOKS IN SCIENCE.

T. H. LENNOX, B.A., WOODSTOCK.

In choosing the subject of this essay I have been influenced by the fact that it has never been discussed in this association. And it has seemed to me that a subject of so great importance should receive more attention than has hitherto been given it.

The object of my paper, while giving my own views on the subject, will be to provoke discussion, and bring out whatever of good has been arrived at in the experience of the science masters of our high schools.

I should like, first of all, to invite discussion of the question whether text books on physics and chemistry should be put into the hands of the pupils. If so, at what stage of the pupils' career, and what should be the character of the text book?

It has long been recognized that to gain a knowledge of these two branches pupils must come into actual contact with the things dealt with, and there must be laboratories and apparatus; all that goes without saying. Of course there must be a teacher, since the pupil needs direction and control. I am not of those who would put the pupil in the position of a discoverer, and have him build up de novo a system of science, traversing the path of our ancestors in the discovery of facts and principles. That is impossible, since only a few possess the necessary qualifications, and such an attempt would be enormously wasteful of time. Imagine, if you please, a lot of pupils turned into a laboratory to pursue the high path of original discovery!

The ideal method in this province, as I conceive it, is to have the pupils learn a number of the facts of the science from experiments, and arrive at principles and laws inductively. Of course the time is greatly limited, and the induction must necessarily be based upon a small number of examples. There are, to be sure, cases where the facts learned in the laboratory may be supplemented by recalling others in the pupils' past experience; and I think this should be done to make the induction as wide as possible. Inductive teaching is more readily carried out in some other branches than in the physical sciences and biology, where its value was first demonstrated. Yet, I think it should be carried out as far as circumstances will permit.

If the method here sketched be sound, where, it may be asked, is the place of the text book? My answer is in most cases in the teacher's library, to serve as a guide or limit to the work to be covered. Certainly not in the hands of the pupil.

To give the pupil a book containing statements of laws and principles which he should think out in connection with the facts they are based on, is to rob him of the most valuable part of the training that may be obtained from the science course. Let us make all due allowance for the value of clear, concise statements and aid to memory of the printed form; there is still, I venture to say, abundant reason for withholding text books in some subjects and at certain stages of the pupil's school career. The necessity for seeking and seeing likeness in the midst of unlikeness; of generalizing, in short, secures a concentration of the attention which even print cannot produce, not to mention the firmer grasp of a law or principle arrived at in this way.

We have cast aside text books in the sciences that state what is to be observed, and we send the pupil to the things themselves, there to see, or learn to see, what occurs or what is to be observed, and to find if possible its explanation. Why not take the final step, discard the last leading-strings and allow the pupil to strengthen the higher powers of his intellect? We insist on the pupil observing for himself; why not insist even more strenuously on him using his logical faculties?

Can this be accomplished when the pupil looks into his book and sees the generalization already crystalized out for him?

In this bookish age it seems to be a difficult task to disentangle ourselves from the idea that school education of all kinds must of necessity be associated with books. The idea possibly gains some force from the interests of authors and publishers.

What I have said applies especially to the more elementary portions of the sciences and the lower forms in our high schools. With senior leaving classes the text book must play a more important part, and indeed the use of books forms a part of education in itself.

In regard to botany, too, the case is somewhat different from the physical branches. Some kind of ruled note book is very convenient, especially for purposes of classification, and when the pupil has made some progress. There are, however, serious objections to their use in the lower forms of the high schools. Botany is, of all studies, the one best adapted to cultivate the observing powers, or perhaps it were better to say, to form habits

of observation. Now, the use of schedules, such as those in the high school note book, by suggesting what is to be observed, seriously interferes with the proper cultivation of the observing powers. It is like a constant prompting of the pupil. It does not allow the spontaneous selection of characters that are striking or distinctive of species or genus, but reduces the whole to one dead level of monotony. It would be intolerably irksome only that it is exceeded in that respect by some other studies. In my opinion there should be only a blank book used in the primary. The use of schedules is not so objectionable in the junior and senior leaving classes, as the pupils will have been trained without them in the primary, and they are more convenient for purposes of comparison.

METHODS IN SCIENCE.

(ABSTRACT.)

W. H. JENKINS, B.A., OWEN SOUND.

In introducing the subject of Methods in Science Teaching, my purpose is not to deal with the details of methods, but rather to offer a few considerations regarding some of the conditions which affect generally the methods to be employed.

The conditions here discussed are:
1. The aim in science study.
2. The course or curriculum prescribed.
3. Science text books.
4. Equipment.

Methods in science teaching are profoundly affected by the aim in its study. Broadly, a student pursues the subject for (*a*) technical knowledge, (*b*) general information, (*c*) mental culture.

If technical knowledge be the aim of the student, methods must be adopted to secure that result. The pupil has to learn how to *do*; and this must be followed by sufficient practice to secure facility in doing. Perfection in the mechanical part of the work becomes of great value. This can only be acquired by actual handling of apparatus and practical experimentation.

Where science is studied merely to acquire the general information essential to a liberal education, the learner is not troubled with the mechanical doing; he has merely to obtain and master the results. How these were acquired is not essential, and the teacher is saved a great labor. A few illustrative experiments, the lecture method and a text book of the ordinary informational character will secure the results desired.

Where the aim is mental culture, the teacher is concerned that his pupils shall know not only the how and what, but essentially the why; the hand must be trained to do, the eye and ear to observe, and the reason to correlate all facts obtained. This last aim is by far the widest, and includes the others demanding the best methods by which these are best secured, and also special methods to secure the operation of all mental actions, both in kind and in degree. In securing the first result apprentice methods are adopted; in the second, lecture methods; while for the third, thumb-rule, imitation and memory give way to self-effort.

METHODS ARE AFFECTED BY THE COURSE OR CURRICULUM.

There is a close relationship between this and the aim of the study. If, however, the course is too extensive for the time to be devoted to it, it can only be covered by studying from charts or text books what should be done by the pupil or obtained by direct contact with nature. Methods must be changed to suit the circumstances. Or the course may be unsuitable for experimental verification or demonstration, in which case the acquisition of knowledge can not be reached by the independent effort of the pupil. Methods must be changed, and the best adopted for the end in view.

METHODS ARE AFFECTED BY THE TEXT-BOOK.

No matter what aim the teacher may have, or what method he desires best to secure this aim, so long as students have access to text books, there is likely to be danger to the successful employment of this method.

We have had three types of text books: One in which the experiment is illustrated and described; the observations and conclusions stated. In using such a book the teacher is practically confined to two methods: (1) Have students commit to memory as in language study. (2) Confirm the observations and conclusions by repetition of the experiments. What mental gain in either method?

A second type of text book attempts to combine didactic instruction and experimental work. In such books discussions of principles frequently follow immediately after the experimental work, and in this discussion all too frequently the unambitious student may ferret out ready-made observations and conclusions, so that when a teacher comes to question upon the experimental work performed, he is astonished to find how glibly observations and conclusions are given, and how clever his students are.

A third type brings nature into the class room elaborately dissected in all her type forms, and the dissections illustrated with all the elaboration which can be devised by woodcuts, electros and other printers' arts. In such case what is a teacher to do? How vitally his methods are affected by such a book!

METHODS ARE AFFECTED BY THE EQUIPMENT.

Equipment may be provided for simultaneous experimentation for the whole course, or for collective experimentation in sets

by rotation, or for the teacher's table alone. In the first two cases the methods to be employed are much the same. In the third case methods are entirely, or almost so, changed. Eliminating the question of cost, what is the ideal equipment?

These are a few of the most prominent conditions which closely affect the methods to be adopted, and it is hoped that by pointing out wherein methods are so affected, that unfavorable conditions may be overcome, and science teaching be placed upon a scientific basis.

NATURE STUDY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

N. MacMURCHY, B.A., ELORA.

In a paper read before the inspectors' section of this association last year by Mr. N. W. Campbell, of Durham, the necessity of a public school programme was pointed out, and in considering the aims of such a programme, he says: "In my opinion science should receive greater prominence. That which teaches pupils the right use of their eyes, ears and tongue has been relegated to the back shelf too long. How often are the common phenomena of life totally unknown to the pupils in our public schools? Eyes they have, but they see not, and ears but they hear not. Gerund-grinding should give place to a deeper and better knowledge of things."

Have we who have to deal with pupils after their passing through our public schools not found this to be only too true? Many of them are indeed quite incapable of accurate observation, and hence also of clear thinking. Now, this surely should be the main object, not only of a public school education, but of all education. Since the days of Bacon the value of the study of Nature has been pointed out, but in no branch of education have we been so conservative as in dealing with subjects of study. Has not almost all the progress made in public schools for the last number of years been in adopting better methods of teaching rather than in improving the curriculum of school work, which is practically the same as twenty years ago.

To take advantage of the natural impulses of the child seems to be a course in education which we should have long since recognized and used to its fullest extent, for only that can become the real intellectual property of the child which he has grasped thoroughly, and by the free action of his perceptive faculties made his own. This idea of education is based on the training and quickening of perception,—perception which registers itself permanently and produces a lasting effect on the mind of the child. Seeing this necessity for the free activity of perception Pestalozzi and Frœbel formulated the doctrine of self-activity.

To learn the child must act, must re-create, and by his self-activity the child becomes self-expansive.

This idea of education we have yet to adopt to a great extent. True, we have kindergartens established in many towns and cities of the province, but their influence is as yet small.

With the exception of the introduction of the kindergarten, it is then in methods of teaching alone that we have made any advance. The kindergarten aims at giving the child work suitable to his mental powers, so that he may learn from doing, and thus awaken his faculties, chiefly of course those of observation. But after the child has passed this stage of school life (if perchance he has had the advantage of it), the idea of self-instruction is immediately lost sight of on his entering the public school. Between the kindergarten and the public school there is a *great gap*. In the latter the method of self-instruction and self-development is to a great extent reversed. The power of observation is no longer developed, and is almost wholly neglected. The attempt is made to fill the mind with facts as a feat of memory, not from the child's own observing and reasoning.

Since the main object of an education is to teach the pupil to think, to gain this, it seems to me, all will grant that the first thing required is to train him to observe accurately, for without accurate observation there cannot be clear thinking; when they reach the secondary schools the proper time for training the observing faculties is past, at least it is much more difficult to teach them the right use of their perceptive powers then, than it would have been at a much earlier stage. It is quite imperative that the child be a close observer of things around him; be able to arrange his observations and draw inferences therefrom, for all have to do this in after life, whether they desire to do so or not.

Education is not mere rote learning; it is enabling the child to recognize, to analyse and compare, that is, to think about what is before him, no matter what the subject may be. We must get rid of the idea that "Knowledge is power." Knowledge with thought is power, and knowledge without thought makes mere machines.

Now, if by following out the idea of Frœbel in introducing nature study in our public schools, and if we from this obtain the desired results, surely then we have given the reason why there should be such study in our public schools.

I might add also that any subject which will train perception will train our pupils not only to think, but also to reason and imagine, for we cannot separate these faculties. What we want is not subjects to train separate faculties of the mind, but those which will train them all *concurrently*. Although in many of our schools reading, writing and arithmetic are well taught, still the teacher is mainly employed in teaching to read, to write and to cipher; little being done to enable his pupils to gain ideas. Now,

if pupils were led to acquire ideas, as they could easily do from natural objects, instead of words and figures, the symbols of things, there would be abundant opportunity to make the busy work of the school thoughtful and interesting. It would enable the pupils to devote their time to expressing their thoughts gained during their lessons in writing and drawing, and thus the busy work would not only be interesting but instructive, instead of mechanical and laborious, as copying words and figures must necessarily be.

The object should be to make *thought work* the basis of teaching the pupil to read, to write and to cipher; that is, to teach these incidentally to a large extent with the acquisition of ideas.

In this way schools will become endowed with new life. At present we attempt to teach scientifically, but there is lack of connection between the subjects. If *nature studies* were introduced the different subjects might be taught in their natural relation to each other, all the work unified and every lesson made a language lesson. If we make a study of the way the growing mind acquires ideas, we cannot help adopting the rational method of giving the child something to observe; have him compare and analyse these observations in different ways, and by his so doing teach himself to think, to remember and to imagine. This system has been shown where tried to answer better the needs of the people, and to accomplish more in a given period than that we now follow. If nature study were introduced as the basis of developing the child, lesson hearing would be done away with to a great extent, and the teacher's energy would be devoted to actual teaching.

All subjects being taught to a large extent in connection with nature study, the ideas gained regardless of subject, would be led to support each other, and they would become clearer to the child, being viewed from different aspects. Language will then be regarded simply as a means of expressing ideas, not as something apart from ideas, and reading, writing, spelling, and composition will be taught incidentally in connection with the nature lesson, or at least with that lesson in which the child is enabled to acquire ideas. In my opinion the child can better acquire ideas from a lesson in the study of nature than it can from one in history, literature or geography, for he is brought thereby into actual contact with the object, and gains his knowledge therefrom directly, not at secondhand, as he does in the case of the latter.

Dr. J. M. Rice, in his concluding article on the Public School System of the United States, published in the Forum of June, 1893, thus states his conclusions: "As I have stated in previous

articles, the pupils in such schools (i.e., those in which ideas are made the basis of all instruction), read for the purpose of gaining thoughts, but while gaining ideas from the written or printed page they are learning how to read.

"They write for the purpose of rendering more clear the ideas gained during the lessons in science, history, literature and geography. While thus rendering their ideas more clear they learn spelling, penmanship, the construction of sentences, and how to write compositions. The immediate use of those departments of language being thus seen by the child, even spelling and penmanship become interesting and lose their purely mechanical nature, and school life is from the first made fascinating. And, strange as it may seem, it is nevertheless true that the results in language are, at least in the primary grades, by far the best in those schools where language is taught incidentally, and poorest in those schools which devote most time to its mechanical study."

So far as the principle of utility is concerned in nature study, I think it should be kept in the background in our public schools. Of course it cannot be lost sight of, for the child cannot help but gain useful ideas. This, however, should not be the main object of any education. It should not be required of us to make our pupils farmers and tradesmen, but to make them intelligent by developing the different faculties of their minds. When we have enabled them to become intelligent they will have no difficulty in gaining the secondary or utilitarian value.

PRIMARY BOTANY IN WINTER MONTHS.

J. R. HAMILTON, B.A., BRANTFORD.

Since the introduction of the new curriculum in the high schools and collegiate institutes, the science classes in the lower forms have necessarily become very large, as compared with the science classes of former years. This at first sight may seem a matter of not very great importance; perhaps many will say that it is as easy to teach thirty-five and forty as fifteen and twenty. This may be quite true in some subjects, such as grammar, arithmetic, and perhaps even the languages, where a large amount of work is done by the pupil in connection with each theory or rule expounded by the teacher. But in a subject like botany, when practical work is indispensable, where specimens in abundance are necessary, where the teacher must exercise a constant supervision of the work of each pupil, the size of the class must not be large, if efficient work is to be done.

There is certainly a difficulty in teaching a large class of young pupils starting botany, and this difficulty is increased tenfold in the winter months, when nature's great book is practically closed to the young botanists, and they are forced to resort to an artificial supply of material for laboratory work. Only very inferior substitutes can be had for "the verdant hills and woodlands spreading wide," be it text book, herbarium or greenhouse.

These, valuable as they may be as aids to more advanced pupils, cannot, to the young botanist, supply that interest and pleasure which he gets from the examination of a fresh specimen; cannot supply that pleasure which the great Linnæus speaks of in his celebrated oration at Upsal, when he says, "I have on foot passed over the frosty mountains of Lapland in quest of plants; I have clambered up the craggy ridges of Norland, and wandered amid its almost impenetrable woods. I have made excursions into the forests of Dalecarlia, the groves of Gothland, the heaths of Smoland, the trackless wastes of Scania. Truly, there is scarcely a part of Sweden I have not crawled through and examined, yet not without great fatigue of mind and body. My journey to Lapland was an undertaking of immense labour; but the love of truth and gratitude towards the Supreme Being constrains me to acknowledge that no sooner were my travels finished than a pleasant oblivion of past suffering came upon me, and I was richly rewarded by the inestimable advantages which I gained from my labours."

No, the text book, the herbarium and the greenhouse are not sufficient. The young botanist must seek the plant in its native home; know the locality in which it grows; discover the soil in which it thrives; see it in all stages of its growth; in fact, know it otherwise than as a laboratory specimen.

What has been said, it is needless to say, applies strictly to pupils starting botany, and as you all know we get them fresh from the public school, without any knowledge of kindred sciences, without any training which would in any way fit them specially for the class of work necessary in the study of botany.

With such pupils great care must be taken that erroneous ideas of the subject are not implanted in their young minds.

With more advanced pupils, who have had a training, and have become fairly well acquainted with the growth, morphology and classification of plants, it is very different. They may turn their attention to microscopic work; the study of the minute structures of the plants; the study of minute cryptogams easily grown in the laboratory; and many other things regarding plant life that would be totally unintelligible to the class of candidates we have for the commercial examination.

Enough has been said to show that serious difficulties must now confront every science master, who has the handling of the classes in botany preparing for the commercial examination. Many have large classes of these young pupils beginning the subject in September; a few dropping in later in the fall, and some even beginning as late as the second term.

Now, the difficulty must be apparent to all. Where are the pupils to obtain the abundance of plants necessary to carry on this work properly? How, during the winter months, can the teacher keep these classes employed, make satisfactory progress, and teach the subject as it should be taught?

If our winters did not set in so early in the fall, and so tardily depart in spring (for often in this northern climate does "lingering winter chill the lap of May"), no serious difficulty would meet the teacher in preparing candidates in botany for the commercial examination. We say here examination, for our motto cannot altogether be "Non scholæ sed vitæ descimus," so long as we have to keep within the prescribed limits of the curriculum, and prepare candidates in a short ten months, with perhaps but a third of this time, giving ample facilities for the proper study of the subject.

These difficulties are perhaps not altogether new, but they have been intensified by the introduction of the new curriculum.

Formerly candidates studying botany also studied physics. Then botany could be dropped during the winter months, and the time devoted to the preparation of the physics; when favourable circumstances for the study of botany returned the bulk of the time could be given to the subject. Now, however, pupils have but the one science, botany; and no such interchange can be made. The time-table is arranged for a certain number of classes in botany, and these must be carried on throughout the year, unless the rearrangement of the school time-table be made, and this might cause much trouble.

However, since the difficulties exist, what concerns us most, as teachers of botany, is, how shall we overcome these difficulties?

First, let us consider some of the different aids the teacher may employ in the preparation of his candidates. The text book; how shall it be used? Experience has taught most of us, we may safely say, that to place a text book in the hand of young pupils commencing botany is, to say the least of it, dangerous. They are too apt to suppose that from it they can obtain all the required knowledge of the subject. With all respect to the excellent text books in botany, all will allow that in thinking this they would greatly err. No teacher would think of giving a page of botanical terms to be studied from the text book. That would be a degradation of the subject; that would be drudgery, equalled only by the old style of preparing Latin and French vocabularies. Such a method of getting up botanical terms could result only in giving the pupil an erroneous idea of the subject, and perhaps a lasting distaste for it. No doubt the text book, if used judiciously as the pupil progresses in his observations, may be made a valuable aid; but the greatest care must be taken that the young pupil is not led to regard the book altogether as his source of information, and entirely neglect that which, at all times, should be the true source, viz., the plant.

Then, with regard to colored charts and models. These may be useful in a way, but their use with young pupils can not give good results. It is a useless exercise to have pupils make drawings of parts of a plant, when he has book diagrams or chart diagrams of a somewhat similar plant before him. In such a case he will be guided more by the diagrams than by the plant, and in this way defeat the object of the exercise.

The collecting and preparing of specimens for the herbarium is work that the pupil should engage in; and he will no doubt profit by any time spent in this way. But can these dried specimens be used to advantage in winter? In the

first place, a large number of the same plant would be required, that each pupil might have a specimen. In such classes it is better to have all working at the same plant. The specimens would soon become destroyed by constant handling, and we may say that it is necessary that the pupil not only handles these specimens, but to a certain extent dissects them. Looking after these specimens would be a source of much trouble and labour to the teacher, and the progress made with the class would not be at all equal to what might have been made with fresh specimens.

During the winter months some good work may be done in studying fruits, if these have been systematically collected during the previous season. To have a complete set of fruits collecting should be carried on throughout the spring, summer and fall, and large numbers of the different fruits and seeds must be stored up for the winter's use.

If the pupil can be encouraged to plant different seeds, and watch the growth of the young plantlet, and make sketches of it in its different stages of growth, much excellent progress may be made. It is not enough that the pupil show you sketches of growing seeds; you will be more certain that the drawings were made from real plantlets if the specimens be brought into the laboratory. Many pupils are too indolent to plant the seeds, and watch their sprouting; but are sufficiently ingenious to construct drawings, either from book diagrams or from glimpses they have had at the work of more enthusiastic and industrious pupils.

This planting of seeds, of course, is done at the pupil's own home. Yet it would be an excellent thing if each school had a conservatory, where plants in different stages of growth might be seen. Such an addition to our schools would undoubtedly facilitate matters greatly, and botany could be more efficiently taught during winter months.

Preserving fluids may be used to advantage. Perhaps the best is Shering's Formyline, using 2.5—4.5 per cent. solution according to the size of the flower.

Such specimens as the flowers of Capsella, Veronica Americana and Potentilla Anserina, were very well kept in a 3 per cent. solution. These flowers served very well for dissecting purposes, but for young pupils, without much training in careful observation, this class of specimen is quite inferior to fresh, newly collected plants.

Finally, then, we may say, that pupils commencing the study of plants cannot obtain proper instruction either from text books,

charts, dried plants, or fluid-preserved plants. All of these have their uses in botanical pursuits; but they must be used sparingly, if at all, with young pupils.

He who begins the study of wild plants must betake himself to their home in the forest, field and meadow. He must see the plant in its native luxuriance and beauty; must see it in all stages of its growth. We have pointed out that in this northern climate such a course of study is impossible for at least two-thirds of the teaching year.

Then, I maintain, we are wrong in attempting to teach this subject to young pupils throughout the year. The work is not congenial, nor can the best permanent results follow.

Therefore, I suggest the following as an alternative for the present curriculum in science for the commercial examination:—A course in botany that would not require more than eight months' preparation, the time during winter months to be taken up in giving the pupils instruction in some of the most elementary work in physics.

No doubt it will be said that such a change would curtail the time for botany to too great an extent. But why teach the subject under unfavorable circumstances? Why make uphill work for both teacher and pupil? The short course in elementary physics would help the pupil, even in his botanical studies, and would most certainly place him in a better position for going on with the primary work in physics.

CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION.

THE TEACHING OF LATIN PROSE.

(AN ABSTRACT.)

R. J. BONNER, B.A., COLLINGWOOD.

If a person, who has learned to speak a modern language, analyzes the method by which he acquired his knowledge, he will doubtless observe that three principles are involved therein: 1. The phrase, rather than the word, is the unit of language. 2. The foreign language is the medium of instruction. 3. Knowledge of the language is acquired through the ear, rather than through the eye. The application of these three principles to the study of Latin prose will greatly facilitate the work, although it is inadvisable to adapt them entirely to a language, conversational knowledge of which is not required by our curriculum.

The vocabulary for writing Latin should be the vocabulary of the author read, gained by way of phrases rather than of individual words. To examine the last principle it is not advisable to attempt Latin conversation, as Cæsar's Latin is not suitable, but much can be done by reading aloud to fix vocabulary, inflections and word-order. No method, however, can be successful which does not enlist the interest of both teacher and pupil. The teacher's interest should be that arising from study and investigation of the principles of the language, as illustrated in the work under consideration. In arousing the interest of the student nothing is so effective as the feeling that he is working out a subject for himself. If, instead of referring him to a grammar, or at once explaining a new construction, the teacher would endeavor, by means of questions, to lead the student to observe, and state the differences between the Latin and the English, the knowledge would not only be more readily retained, but its acquisition would be accompanied by a feeling of pleasure. If, in addition to teaching the language, the powers of observation and generalization can be developed, the value of the study is increased.

The task set before the teacher of Latin prose is to make his class familiar with every phrase and syntactical usage in a certain portion of Cæsar. While it is necessary to devote certain hours to the teaching of composition specially, it has always seemed to me that every lesson should be a composition lesson.

The first lesson in prose begins with the first lesson in translation. Prose composition proper cannot be attempted until some Latin has been read, for Latin prose is imitative in its character. Both literal and idiomatic renderings of the Latin text are of the first importance; literal, that the exact meaning of the Latin may be grasped; idiomatic, that the difference between Latin and English modes of expressing thought may be recognized.

Reference ought not to be made to a grammar for the explanation of syntactical difficulties, as the class can easily be led, by careful questioning, to explain them for themselves. For example, take the accusative and infinitive construction, one of the earliest difficulties in reading; have the sentence translated as literally as possible and written on the board. The class will immediately grasp the meaning and put the sentence in ordinary English form. Write the idiomatic English translation on the board and underneath it the Latin, then ask the class to state the differences between the two sentences, and in a short time they will understand the construction sufficiently well to imitate it in turning English into Latin. It is not advisable to tell them anything more than can be learned from the example under consideration. A comparison of several examples will illustrate the rule for the tense of the infinitive. So the same result is attained as if the rules had been learned from a grammar; while, instead of the memory's having been taxed to retain parrot-like a series of rules, which can under no circumstances be interesting, interest has been aroused at every step by the consciousness of mental power exerted and strengthened. Next, the vocabulary of the passage translated should be dealt with by drawing attention to every phrase. Finally, the Latin should be read intelligently and intelligibly, in order to enlist the services of the ear. The character of the pupil's reading can easily be tested by the teacher's trusting to it for his comprehension of the meaning, instead of following the book.

As the lessons go on, the occurrence of each new point, in connection with a construction, can, with profit, be made the occasion of a review of the points already learned. I have always required my classes to keep an index of syntax; for example, the verbs that take *ut* with the subjunctive indefinitive pronouns, uses of the ablative, etc. In the later stages of reading attention should be directed to word-order, connection of sentences, and the structure of the period. Much can be done by the teacher to fix the vocabulary in the student's mind by grouping expressions and phrases as they are met.

Composition lessons should be simply the putting into practice of what is learned in the translation lesson. Short sentences, illustrative of syntax and vocabulary, are sufficient for the first year's work. As there is always less variety in syntax than in vocabulary, the points in syntax should be repeated as often as possible with new words and phrases. In the junior leaving classes I give three kinds of exercises. First, I try to illustrate the whole text read by a series of exercises, each one of which covers a definite portion of the text. It is highly necessary that these exercises should be connected pieces, for connection of sentences, order of clauses and the periodic construction, should be thoroughly practiced before the class is launched into selections from English authors. Care should be taken to repeat as often as possible difficulties in syntax. In the winter term I alternate these exercises with suitable pieces from Cæsar, freely translated. After a few exercises of this kind the student is fully equipped for translating English passages. I have always been sparing of assistance to the class; in the case of an unusual phrase I ask for simpler forms, and in the case of individual words for English synonyms. This is much better than giving the Latin equivalent, for it impresses on the mind the importance of translating ideas rather than words. Where phrases cannot be treated in this way, I refer to a chapter in Cæsar containing the necessary word or phrase. The mental effort required in making a proper selection makes the work much more interesting and profitable.

In dealing with the passage after the exercises have been marked by myself and returned, I put on the board a scheme of the sentences as they would be arranged in Latin. First of all, I ascertain by questioning, the sentences which have the same subject, or can be changed so as to have the same subject. These are then grouped in one sentence. The next point is to decide upon the order of the various subordinate clauses in the rearranged sentences, then upon the particular constructions that are best adapted for translating these clauses, and, finally, to determine the best method of establishing the connection between the sentences. The principal idiomatic phrases should be taken up in such a way as to show that if attention is paid to the meaning rather than to the form of the words, the difficulties vanish. This scheme I regard as more important than the translation of the passage. However, a Latin rendering should be written on the board to enable the pupil to correct the errors marked by the teacher.

A grammar lesson, in so far as it is a lesson in syntax, should be the classification and arrangement of the knowledge gained in translation lessons. The syntax of Cæsar should be collected under headings, and the class should be required to commit to memory examples of syntactical usages. The result will be that each student has a complete statement of Latin syntax, as illustrated by a certain portion of Cæsar, which he has learned almost imperceptibly in the lessons in translation, prose and grammar.

A DAY WITH HOMER.

L. C. Smith, B.A., Oshawa.

Methought the stream of Time had backward rolled,
And I was standing on the fruitful plain
That lay between the sea and ancient Troy.
I saw one straying on the curving beach,
Whose hoary locks were playthings for the wind
That freshening came across the swelling waves.
I listened to the mystic music of a voice
That chanted to their measured beat, in tones
Now whispering soft and low as rustling leaves,
Now rolling with the boom of tumbling waves,
Now clanging as the clash of brazen arms.

He waved his magic hand. Aurora fair,
Arising from her loved Tithonus' side,
With rosy fingers deftly backward drew
The crimson curtains of the ruddy dawn,
And ushered in the day. Afar appeared
A mighty fleet, whose dark and curving prows
Were cleaving fast the tossing waves, impelled
By oars that lashed the sea to hoary foam,
Or sails that forward bent their snowy breasts
In eager haste to reach the sounding shore.

Again the minstrel waved his magic hand.
Upon the yielding beach updrawn, the ships
Lay propped. Unnumbered hosts upon the shore
Were marshalled. Mighty kings with gleaming helms
Of nodding plume, and fourfold shields that shone
As noonday suns, and towering ashen spears
With glittering points of ruthless, piercing bronze.
To curving chariot yoked, the shapely steeds,
Whose ample manes, down-flowing, swept the ground,
Impatient stood, swift-footed as the blast.

Out-streaming from the Scæan gates of Troy
There issued forth a host in like array.
Then with a shout that shook the arched sky,
These hosts advancing, met upon the plain.
Bows twanged, and bitter arows winged their way

To gallant breasts, and dyed the ivory skin
With purple stain. Huge glittering spears, impelled
By mighty arms, resounding rang on shields;
Or, piercing, cleft both shield and glancing helm
Of brass, and hurled the hero crashing down
Upon the earth, with loud resounding arms,
And spread a veil of darkness o'er his eyes.
Fleet-footed steeds with manes back-streaming, flew
Across the plain with whirling chariots bright,
Whose drivers urged them on with stinging lash
To bear the crested warrior to the fray.
Or, prince and driver gone, the car o'erturned,
With panting nostril, wild, distended eyes,
They plunged in mad confusion through the host.

He waved his hand. Afar across the sea
I saw divine Olympus lifting high
Its form sublime, and on a marble base
Of snow upreared, with dome of blue above,
The glorious palace of the heavenly gods.
They in their golden halls, with purple lip,
Were quaffing nectar sweet that Hebe fair
Presented each in gleaming cups of gold.
They sat upon their lofty, shining thrones,
And feasted on ambrosia rich, and heard
The harp, whose golden strings Apollo swept
Till breasts were thrilled and melted with the strains
That spread like fragrance through the vaulted hall.

Supreme on shining throne, in splendor sat
Majestic Jove, whose nod imperious shook
Olympus to its base, but yet who feared
The stinging taunts of jealous Juno's tongue.
Deceiving with her craft immortal Jove,
But shrinking when his anger was aroused,
Yet yielding not the purpose of her heart,
On lofty couch of gold resplendent sat
Imperial Juno, stately queen, of large
And lustrous eye, and shapely, snowy arm,
And fragrant bosom dear to mighty Jove.

Beside her sat Minerva, fair of brow,
Alert to prompt with winged thought, her queen:
And he of skilful hand but limping feet,

Who wrought in gold the chambers of the gods.
Arrayed in panoply of jangling brass,
There too, sat cruel-eyed, broad-shouldered Mars,
Who wore the fiercest brow of all the gods.

There sat the virgin queen, whose buskined feet
Are swift to chase at early dawn, across
The breezy hills, the flying stag that falls
By wingéd shaft shot from her sounding bow;
And Venus, favored child of mighty Jove,
With perfect moulded arm and breast of snow,
Mirth lighted eye, and soft caressing hand,——
Love, fairest form that ever found a home
On earth, or in the golden halls of heaven.

Thus there were gathered all the immortal ones
Who meet at Jove's command in heavenly hall.
Although endowed with human hates and loves,
Yet all were gods, and godlike seemed they all.
Sublimity celestial clothed their brows,
And wrapt their forms in more than mortal grace.

He waved his hand. Obedient to his call,
Then mighty Jove arose and swiftly yoked
His brazen-footed, golden-manèd steeds
To brazen chariot bright, and grasping fast
The golden reins, came sweeping down
The shining slopes of his Olympic home,
And swifter than his lightning, shot athwart
The sky, and sat, in gleaming gold arrayed,
Upon the heights of Ida, many-rilled.

I saw the heavenly portals open wide.
Upon a silver car with golden wheels,
In all the splendor of a stately queen,
Imperial Juno rode, and, at her side
Minerva, clad in panoply of war.
The queen of heaven, with outstretched, radiant arms,
Held firm the shining reins, until her steeds,
With glittering feet far-reaching, measured swift
The airy space across the purple sky,
And bore her down upon the plains of Troy.

Then Neptune, too, forsook the wooded height
Of Samos, and came striding down;
And entering, 'neath the sea, his home
Of gold and crystal, quickly yoked
His tawny-manéd steeds; across the deep to Troy
He sped in glittering car, whose whirling wheels
Cleft through the parting waves a level way,
While round his car the creatures of his realm
Careered, rejoicing at the presence of their king.

Thus came the gods, to mingle in the fray
With men, upon the plains of Troy. I saw
Dread Diomedes wound with wanton spear
The clinging arm that loving Venus drew
About her son to save him from his foe.
I heard her piteous wail, and saw the drops
That dyed the clasping arm with crimson stain.
I saw him pierce, with brazen point, the side
Of Mars, and heard the god when wild with pain
He roared as loud as many thousand men.
Again I saw the vengeful god, when mad
He rushed against Minerva, azure-eyed,
And smote her fringèd ægis with his spear.
But swift she hurled him crashing down.
He covered acres wide. His streaming locks
And brazen arms were all defiled in dust.

I saw Achilles, unexcelled in strength,
In manly beauty unsurpassed by all
The princely Greeks who fought on Trojan field.
A king that by deliberate choice preferred
A short but glorious career, to long
And peaceful reign among his myrmidons.
A king whose every act was passion-swayed
By love of fame or friend, or fierce revenge.
His thoughts were not concealed with cunning craft,
But swift escaped the barriers of his teeth.

When Agamemnon swore with angry threat
To rob him of Briseis, fair-cheeked bride,
I saw his mighty frame convulse with rage,
His fingers clutch and half unsheathe his sword,
While taunts and bold reproaches rained from lip
That hotly hurled the hated insult back.

And when they led the unwilling maid away,
I saw the tear that stained his rugged cheek,
As lone he sat upon the sobbing shore,
And called his goddess mother from the deep;
Unbosomed all the burden of his heart,
And prayed for vengeance from the immortal gods.

When Agamemnon sent imploring aid
And vowed the maid uninjured to restore,
I saw him spurn in proud disdain, the bribe
Of Lesbian maids, and steeds of tossing mane,
And hand of princess rich, whose father deemed
A wounded spirit could be cured by gold.

When dearest friend had fallen in the fray,
I saw him lowly bow his head, and heap
The ashes on his comely locks, and lie
Prostrated on the shore, while sobs betrayed
The grief that lay so heavy on his heart.

I saw him don the greaves, the corselet bright,
The helm of golden crest, the wondrous shield,
That Vulcan wrought: I saw him grasp his spear
Of Pelian ash, and mount his stately car.
I saw the steed, caparisoned in gold,
That bowed its graceful, yellow-manèd neck,
And warned its master of his coming fate.

I heard his loud, exultant shout that sent
A thrill of fear through all the Trojan host.
I saw him raging, wreak a fierce revenge
For dear Patroclus' death. He revelled in his wrath,
And slaughtered Trojan foes, till all the earth
And all his beauteous arms were black with gore.
He spared nor prince nor peasant in his path,
Nor even spared the unarmed fugitive
Who knelt and begged for mercy at his feet.

There Hector, too, I saw, in gleaming arms,
Alert and active in defence of Troy.
He fought not for revenge or fame, but home
And kindred, loving wife and infant child.
I saw him pass the Scæan gates, when back
He turned again the fleeing hosts, then stride

Away to Priam's palace high, to bid,
In tones of reverence and filial love,
His aged mother to the goddess pray,
And offer garment rich with wondrous work,
Lest dread destruction might upon them fall.

I saw him meet white-armed Andromache,
His tall and graceful wife, the fairest dame
Of all that wore the trailing Trojan robe.
When weeping, clinging to his hand, she told
How father, mother, brothers,—all were slain,
And how she feared for him, her all in all;
I saw the hero bend his crested head
And soothe with gentle hand his weeping wife.
I heard his tender tones as low he spoke
Of sacred Troy in ruins,—brothers brave
And aged Priam trampled in the dust,—
Of all the hidden pain that rent his heart
When he remembered some harsh-minded Greek
Would lead away his tender bride, a slave,
To weave the web with tears, and water bear
In Argos, for some haughty Grecian dame—
But yet his soul must falter not, nor fear;
And he must do his task, as she her own,
And patient wait the stern decrees of fate.

And then he reached his hand to clasp his child,
But, when it shrieked to see the nodding crest,
He laid his glittering helmet down, and took
The fearful babe, caressing in his arms;
And having prayed a blessing from the gods,
Restored him to his mother's yearning breast,
As she stood smiling through her recent tears,—
A hero he, that found 'mid din of arms
A tender word for mother, wife and child.

I saw him yoke to chariot of war
His wind-swift steeds, and send the hostile Greeks
In tumult flocking back across the plain.
Then burst exultant through their vaunted walls,
And scatter flames among the updrawn prows.
His glancing helm was ever first of all,
His form the foremost in the thickest fray.

Again I saw him as he stood alone
Without the walls of Troy, when all had fled
And left their brave defender to his fate,
Resolved to face the dreaded foe and win,
Or die a not inglorious death. He hurled
His spear with mighty force, and truest aim,
But harmlessly it fell upon the shield
That skilful Vulcan wrought in heaven's forge.
Then, though he knew his fated hour was nigh,
Undaunted still he drew his gleaming blade,
And rushed upon his god-assisted foe.
I saw Achilles pierce with ruthless spear
His tender neck. I saw his princely form
And proudly nodding plume prostrated low;
I saw the iron-hearted victor o'er
His fate exult, deny his dying prayer,
And strip his shoulders of their shining arms.
Then, thrusting through his feet the cruel thongs,
He bound him to his brazen car, and trailed
His noble head and streaming locks behind.

I heard the wails of woe on Trojan walls;
Saw aged Priam, in his deep despair,
Lie groaning on the ground. I heard the shriek,
The piteous cries and moans of Hecuba.
I saw her cast her shining headdress by,
And wildly rend her streaming silver hair,
As she beheld her bravest son, her boast,
The darling of her heart and lofty Troy,
Thus dead and dragged in dark, defiling dust.

I saw Andromache among her maids,
And they were weaving web of wondrous art;
But thoughtful of her Hector's swift return,
Had warmed a bath to sooth his wearied limbs.
She heard the shriek of aged Hecuba,
And, fearing for her dearest, rushed away
Like one distracted, to the tower wall.
She saw the sight. Then strength forsook her limbs,
And sense her soul. Upon the earth she sank,
And from her head the veil and fillet fell,
Revealing all the glory of the brow
And marble breast that gallant Hector loved.
I saw the streaming tears of Trojan dames,

As low they bent about her shapely form.
I saw her faintly rise and wring her hands,
While sighs and sobs her swelling bosom shook;
I heard her low and pitiful lament:—
Her faithful husband fallen in his youth,—
Defence of her and all the Trojan dames,—
The insult heaped upon the harmless head
Of Hector's infant son, that oft had sat
And richly fed upon his father's knee,—
The dying hand her fingers had not clasped,
The faltering lips that left no loving word
To be remembered all her life, with tears.

Once more the minstrel waved his magic hand,
The golden sun sank in the ocean down,
And darkness slowly fell. The fruitful plain,
The gods and heroes vanished from my sight.
But still, across the centuries of years,
I hear the mystic music of that voice;
I see the glories of the wondrous scene.

THE WOMEN OF HOMER.

C. S. KERR, B.A., WOODSTOCK.

Character-drawing is essentially the sphere of the novelist and the dramatist. To study the workings of the mind, to explore the emotions, to analyze motives for action, to give, in short, in the most minute detail all the subtle forces which are set in movement through the human being; all these admittedly constitute the most important work of fiction and the drama. In epic poetry the portraying of character occupies no such prominent place, or, perhaps I should say, receives no such elaborate treatment. And especially is this true of Greek epic poetry. The aim of the Greek mind is to present the most primary motives, and not to give in detail individual or special traits. And this feature is particularly noticeable in the delineation of the characters of the Homeric heroines. Except in one individual case, they come upon the stage for a brief space and then vanish; and we do not see them again, except perhaps to catch of them a passing glimpse. Still, even in this scanty space the bard gives us a vivid view of their minds and hearts, and we recognize in them well-known types of womanhood.

Difficult it is to disassociate from one's mind the ideas received regarding these characters from other sources. The aim of the writer of this paper, however, has been to study as carefully as possible the actual words of the poet, and as accurately as he knew how to give the Homeric portraiture. No attempt has been made to take up all the woman characters nor to say anything regarding the divinities. Four leading characters have been selected, each of which may be regarded as a typical woman of the Homeric times.

The scene which brings to our view the first of our characters is "the ringing plain of windy Troy." It is a moment of critical import. Paris has challenged Menelaus to single combat, and Hector has despatched a message to request the old King Priam, with his elders, to take their stand on the wall and view the fight. They assemble, and, as they await the beginning of the struggle, there appears in the distance a white-robed figure, which, despite any contrary inclination they may have, compels their admiring attention; and well it might, for the form which presents itself to their dazzled vision is that of the fairest woman of her time, *διὰ γυναικῶν*, Helen of Sparta. The old king addresses her in most magnanimous fashion, and requests her to give the names

of the leading Greek warriors in the plain below. In Helen's answer we have at least two phases of character, or perhaps states of mind, illustrated. She laments bitterly her departure from her home, and upbraids herself for the hasty act which has produced such heartbreaking results. At the same time she accedes to Priam's request; which fact exemplifies a certain graciousness of demeanor, especially towards those who have shown themselves kind to her. She points out the different Greek heroes and briefly sets forth their leading characteristics in a way which shows her to be a woman of keen insight and penetration.

The most marked feeling, however, which possesses her soul —brought out both at this point and in a later book—is that of remorse. This overshadows everything in the picture which the poet draws for us of her life at Troy. In a moment of weakness she has been persuaded into a course of action which only brings a life-long regret, and a loathing of her own act which colors every thought and deed. It is the "violent fire which soon burns out itself," leaving nothing but the black heart-ruin behind it. Nothing reveals this feeling more strongly than her attitude towards Paris. She takes no pains to conceal her profound contempt for him both as a soldier and as a man. And, although at times she yields to him and accepts the inevitable situation which she has brought upon herself, still it is with undisguised dislike and under strong pressure that she does so. As she beholds Menelaus, her heart turns to her old home and husband. And even when restored to her place of honor and dignity at Sparta, she still feels the sting of her former conduct and its bitter results.

Now, what does all this prove regarding her character? I know that there is great conflict of opinion as to the real character of Helen; but to me the Homeric conception is that of a high-spirited, I might almost say high-minded, woman, who, under the impulse of the passing moment, is betrayed into an act unworthy of her. Then, when the awakening comes, as it does all too soon, she turns from her unworthy partner with a feeling of contempt, and shows her real nature by her keen appreciation of the character of the great-souled Hector. Her independence of spirit, combined with a certain haughtiness and imperiousness, is what we might naturally look for in a woman of transcendent beauty, who had been courted and flatterd by the leading princes of the world. A woman of strength she certainly shows herself to be. A weaker one would have accepted the situation with all that it entailed, and would, with comparative

ease, have become reconciled to it. But this Helen stubbornly refuses to do, and broods mournfully over her woes until the end, turning for relief only to the ordinary tasks of her household. Still she is not all bitterness. The heart of the woman responds to the little kindnesses shown to her by the Trojans, and a responsive chord was touched which vibrates strongly in her pathetic lament over the dead body of Troy's greatest warrior.

Briefly, then, the Helen of Homer is a woman of great personal beauty, independent, imperious, sensitive, shrewd and high-spirited, combining with these qualities a deep tenderness for those who loved her, and the faculty of appreciating keenly any service done to her.

Side by side with Helen during the long and weary years of the Trojan war lived the wife of crest-tossing Hector, the white-armed Andromache. In only two scenes of the Iliad does she play any prominent part, and one of these is the funeral of her husband. The other is that matchless picture of the interview between herself and Hector before the latter sets out for the conflict once more. Here we have sufficient material furnished us with which to paint a clear and distinct portrait of this beautiful character.

In placing her alongside of Helen, we are struck by the difference between the situations of the two, especially in the relations existing between them and their respective husbands. There we see vividly set forth the difference between loveless unions and those in which love is the mainspring. Helen lives a life, as far as possible, independent of her husband: Andromache's whole world is her husband and home. The contempt of Helen for Paris she takes no pains to disguise; whereas no words are too strong to set forth Andromache's love for Hector. Helen shows chagrin because Alexander has escaped the hands of Menelaus; but nothing can be more intense than the solicitude for his safety of great Hector's wife. The advent of an offspring would probably only have tended to make wider the gulf between Paris and Helen; the presence of the boy Astyanax makes complete one of the most matchless pictures of domestic felicity in all literature.

Enough has been said, then, to give us a clear insight into Andromache's character. In her we have a simple, gentle nature, with perhaps a share of the weakness which usually accompanies such characteristics, and which is not lessened by her union with such an one as Hector, who to her is, as well as husband, father and mother and brother. She is, then, a typical matron of perhaps an old-fashioned sort, who finds her all in her home and its inmates. She gives patient attention to household duties and

pleasures, without showing any special interest in the affairs of the great outside world, except so far as they affect the safety or fortunes of her loved ones. A faithful wife, a devoted mother, a genuine home maker; a bright, beautiful character, and one that will always be attractive and find many imitators as long as human hearts and affections remain the same.

From Troy, with its scenes of battle and carnage without and tumults of conflicting emotions of women's hearts within, we cross the sea to Ithaca, the rough, craggy island-home of Odysseus, τρηχεῖ, ἀλλ' ἀγαθὴ κουροτρόφος ; a fitting home for the much enduring hero and his faithful spouse περίφρων Penelope.

Penelope is not presented to us under the most favorable conditions. Her husband still lingers far away, and to her is left the task of bringing up her son and of guarding both the possessions of Odysseus and the citadel of her own person against the persistent importunities of the bold suitors. And she is fully equal to the task, in the execution of which there are brought out clearly and vividly many points in her character which show that she is of that metal the stamp whereof is that of pure gold.

She stands as the type of a deep-thinking, far-seeing, patient, brave, true-hearted woman. We note, first, her shrewdness. This is best illustrated by the well-known device of the web. This, however, is only one example of the skilful tact to which her loyalty to her absent lord and her watchfulness for her son's interests stimulate her. She makes herself agreeable to the suitors that she may obtain their gifts and win over their favor towards Telemachus. Her remarkable courage receives a striking exemplification in the fearless way in which she faces the wooers when she learns that they are plotting the death of her son. In her continued resistance to those who had such designs upon the property of her husband, in addition to the qualities mentioned above, she exhibits a patient fortitude and a steady constancy of purpose which is almost incomprehensible. And through all and over all there shines, like the bright sunlight glow, her unswerving loyalty to her absent Odysseus.

The phases of her character emphasized thus far are, for the most part, those of the mind. Her heart qualities, however, are also quite apparent in the story. She is tender-hearted, sympathetic and affectionate, a fond mother, and one who takes great pride in all that pertains to the welfare of her son. Her love for her husband was of the enduring kind; that which never falters, amid all the vicissitudes and stern trials through which it has to pass. And, after the long night of trouble and anxiety is

over, after the return of the one for whom she has waited so long, and whom, owing to the long vigil, which has become almost second nature to her, she does not recognize for some time; then comes the morning, bringing the reunion of these two loyal, loving hearts; and we have a picture of conjugal felicity rarely found on the pages of the poet. The heart has been true and Penelope has her reward.

Our last sketch takes us to the richly-dowered island of the Phœnicians, to the court of King Alcinous and his young daughter Nausicau, a maiden "ἀθανῃσι φυὴν καὶ εἶδος ὁμοίη."

The island is a fitting home for perhaps the most charming and attractive of all Homer's heroines. A land where flowers bloom the year round, and the fruit of the trees never perish nor fail winter or summer, enduring through the year. From the glowing description of the land and the court of Alcinous we are not surprised to find in his daughter the almost perfect young creature whose character adorns the poet's page.

Carefully nurtured and trained physically, she is the personification of bounding strength and activity. With steady and unfaltering rein she guides the course of the mules, as they drive to the place where she meets Odysseus. As a natural result of this training, she possesses an abundance of beauty and grace which insensibly attracts us towards her. In the game of ball she far outshines the fairest of her maidens; in personal charm and bounding grace, "as sportive as the fawn, which, wild with glee across the lawn or up the mountain springs," a veritable Artemis among her nymphs.

But external attractions are not her only possession. These are but the casket, which contains the jewel of a rich character, one not fully developed as yet, but bright with the promise of an ideal womanhood. She has felt the natural stirring of sentimental feelings in her heart, but this is accompanied by a becoming modesty and dignity, which might be expected in such a character. She possesses all the joyousness and light-heartedness of youth, combined with a fitting discretion and a sense of her duty towards her parents, to whom she is so dear, which is beautiful to behold. She is sympathetic also, as no appeal of the distressed is made to her in vain. In all that she undertakes she is sincere and thorough. No shadow falls athwart the portrait of this young maiden, and her fair figure illumines the canvas with a brightness and a charm which have found a warm place in the heart of every lover of Homer.

HOMER IN SHAKESPEARE.

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The difficulties and uncertainties surrounding Shakespeare's play of Troilus and Cressida, and the number of theories propounded in explanation thereof, remind us vividly of the great Homeric question itself. Entanglements of time and plot are noted, and the very date of the play is in doubt—some critics, recognizing two divisions, the love story of Troilus and Cressida, and the camp story of the Greek heroes, would assign an earlier date to the former; whereas others think that, at any rate, the play shows the marks of early fancy and crude taste, combined with later and maturer thought and expression. Again, the authorship, at least of certain portions, is held doubtful, and we observe the revival of the "botcher" familiar to students of the Odyssey; prologue, epilogue and scenes in the fifth act have all fallen under suspicion; while views of this drama's merit and interpretations of its meaning have been as divergent as they have been multitudinous.

To certain of these controverted points it will be necessary in the course of this paper to advert; but for the general purpose of comparison it will suffice to let Homer stand for the Iliad and Odyssey, and Shakespeare for the play under consideration.

"The piece of skilful painting made for Priam's Troy," before which Lucrece stands in sad meditation, may be instanced as one of the many allusions to the Trojan war in which Shakespeare shows his sympathy for the Trojans as against the Greeks; but in the Troilus and Cressida, where actual personages masquerade under Homeric titles, and often comport themselves in a manner Homer little dreamt of, this Trojan bias, naturally, appears in clearest colors.

The most obvious illustration of this is in the portrait of Achilles. In the Iliad Achilles is the beau ideal of triumphant youth, with peerless powers of body and of mind, and with a touch of melancholy, due to his recognition of the impending doom to which he is fain to submit, but which he will not permit to check his energy or achievements. In the very first book he comes forth as the champion of the public good against Agamemnon's tyranny; both there and in the great debate of the ninth book, he shines as an orator of power and passion. Nor does he lack the gentler qualities of mercy for the weak and regard for the refinements and amenities of life; he whiles away

the tedium of inertness with songs upon the lyre; he is Patroclus' chivalrous and loving friend.

But, as he is supreme in valor, so he is vehement of passion, with a quality of vehemence proper to that early age, or, as Lang phrases it, with a touch of the Iroquois. So when, under the insults of Agamemnon, this passion rises to its height, we look for sudden vengeance to smite the insulter. Yet, submitting to Athene's word, he is able to check the outburst, and retires in justly indignant resentment. Inexcusably wronged, he disdains overtures he distrusts, and remains implacable. Here, as Jebb says, "In order to express human nature in its highest intensity, he is unique in anger, as he was peerless in action." This implacability brings its punishment in the death of Patroclus, which leads to his own. Thus we see the tragedy of love and hate that forms the ethical basis of the Iliad. If his sin was great, so was his punishment great, and Leaf's argument that his action in Book ix. alienates our sympathy, does not seem convincing.

Inexorable though he is, and ruthless in his rage at the death of his friend, he has moments of noble restraint, as in the pathetic scene of Priam's visit; and, in estimating his character, this trait, as well as his generous chivalry and impetuous intolerance of the tyranny which was working public woe, should not be disregarded.

Such, then, is the Achilles of Homer.

But what of the Achilles of Shakespeare? Let Ulysses introduce him:

> "The great Achilles when opinion crowns,
> The sinew and the forehand of our host,
> Having his ear full of of his airy fame
> Grows dainty of his worth, and in his tent
> Lies mocking our designs."

While Patroclus amuses him by vile imitations of the chiefs:

> "'Now play me Nestor! hem and stroke thy beard,
> As he being drest to some oration,'
> That's done, as near as the extremest ends
> Of parallels, as like as Vulcan and his wife;
> Yet god Achilles still cries 'excellent!'"

The challenge which Hector sends through Æneas to all the Grecian princes is regarded by Ulysses and Nestor as "relating in purpose only to Achilles," who, "were his brain as barren

> "As banks of Libya—though Appollo knows
> 'Tis dry enough,"

will understand this.

And here we may note a rather odd feature in the characterization of Achilles in the play. For although the Trojans together with the cleverest of his countrymen, see in him the Greek champion—a recognition presumably due to former deeds of valor—yet in the fifth act, where (roused by Patroclus' death) he meets Hector, he has degenerated into an arrant and treacherous coward. "I am unarmed; forego this vantage, Greek," exclaims Hector; to which the redoubtable hero makes answer:

> "Strike, fellows, strike ; this is the man I seek.
> On myrmidons, and cry you all amain,
> 'Achilles has the mighty Hector slain.'
> Come tie his body to my horse's tail,
> Along the field I will the Trojan trail."

This is a scene, however, where the critics see the "botcher."

Sufficiently ferocious, indeed, does he show himself in his interview with Hector (a probable reminiscence of the combat in the Iliad). He "oppresses" his visitor with his eye, exclaiming the while:

> "Tell me, you heavens, in which part of the body
> Shall I destroy him? Whether there or there or there?
> That I may give the local wound a name
> And make distinct the very breach whereout
> Hector's great spirit flew. Answer me Heavens!"

As for his mind, we have already heard Nestor's estimate, and Thersites, who had a decided relish for "wit," is characteristically ready with his scorn, often bracketing him with Ajax: "Hector shall have a great catch if he knock out either of your brains; a' were as good crack a fusty nut with no kernel"; and again: "There's Ulysses and old Nestor, whose wit was mouldy ere your grandsires had nails on their toes, yoke you like draught-oxen, and make you plough up the wars." The pride and vanity with which he is puffed up are used as marks for the "derision medicinable" of Ulysses, in the comical scene where Agamemnon and all the princes make a procession past his tent, and "lay negligent and loose regard upon him," while Ulysses tarries to regale him with an abundance of massive wisdom, using Ajax to point the moral. But perhaps at no time do we feel more keenly into what depths of degradation Homer's godlike hero has fallen than when we learn from this scene the reason for his inaction. Alas! he is enamored of Polyxena, Priam's daughter, and communicates secretly with the enemy. Baseness can sink no further: we are no longer surprised when, just as he is about to bestir

himself, he receives a letter from Hecuba and a gift from his light o' love,

> "Both taxing me and gaging me to keep
> An oath that I have sworn, I will not break it.
> Fall Greeks, fail fame, honor or go or stay
> My major vow lies here, this I'll obey."

And such is Shakespeare's Achilles. Nowhere are the Trojans treated with such entirely scant courtesy, though they by no means escape depreciation, for his favor is, after all, merely a relative favor.

In Homer we, perhaps, catch glimpses of Hector's inner impatience at an unworthy cause, especially in his upbraidings of the debonair coxcomb, Paris, even when these, as in the case in Book xiii., seem undeserved; and sometimes, too, as when he rejects Polydamas' advice, he would appear to allow his spirit for honor to overcome his care for his country's safety. Nor can the Greek poet endure that the Trojan should carry off the palm in single combats with the Argive champions.

Like Achilles, he feels that destiny cannot be avoided, and has a foreboding that Priam's city will fall; but, he replies to Andromache, his country expects him and his own spirit calls him to war. He is tender with his wife and chivalrously courteous to Helen. And in the main Hector is the soul of ardent patriotism; it is into his mouth is put the famous declaration, "One omen is best, to fight for our own country." We can fancy him, like many a Southerner in the American civil war, perhaps suspecting the justice of his cause, but thoroughly convinced that it was his patriotic part to repel the invader.

But in Shakespeare, Hector, whose courage none can question, does not merely suspect, he expounds the lack of moral right on the Trojan side. "What merit's in that reason which denies the yielding of her up?" he asks, and hearing the answer, exclaims:

> "'Tis mad idolatry
> To make the service greater than the god."

Yet he yields his larger wisdom to the romantic notions of Troilus and Paris; and Shakespeare, with an amusing disregard of chronology, makes him say that they

> "On the cause and question now in hand
> Have gloz'd; but superficially! Not much
> Unlike young men, whom Aristotle thought
> Unfit to hear moral philosophy—"

"Thus to persist
In doing wrong extenuates not wrong,
But makes it much more heavy. Hector's opinion
Is this in way of truth, yet ne'ertheless
My spritely brethren, I perpend to you
In resolution to keep Helen still,
For 't is a cause that hath no mean dependance
Upon our joint and several *dignities*."

This is the key note to Hector's character in the play; he consciously devotes himself to seeking glory; hence his behavior after Ajax slightly worsts him; we note the patient Hector's petulance with wife and servants, his challenge to the Greeks, his disregard of Cassandra's prophetic ravings. Thus, though in contrast with Achilles, noble, brave, and courteous, "he falls a victim to ambition, for glory."

The common obloquy with which the Greek heroes are covered may be further shown by presenting the characters of Patroclus, Ajax and Thersites. From Briseis' touching lament in Homer we get an insight into the character of Patroclus—the brave and gentle knight, of truth and sympathy and courtesy unfailing—who deprecates his lord's "untoward spirit," and to whose fate we look mournfully forward as soon as we hear that "this was to Patroclus the beginning of evil."

In Shakespeare he cracks jests for the self-worshipping Achilles, does his mean bidding as "Achilles' brach," and even, according to the foul Thersites, plays such a part as Homer nowhere hints at with regard to any. But even such a Patroclus, "with little stomach for the war" himself, has not sunk so low but that he is moved to exhort his master, in poetry more strangely beautiful amid such surroundings:

"Sweet, rouse yourself! and the weak wanton Cupid
Shall from your neck unloose his amorous fold
And like a dew-drop from the lion's mane,
Be shook to air.'

Let us witness also the demoralization of Telamonian Ajax, Homer's "best of warriors next to Achilles." Throughout the Iliad, in Achilles' absence, he is ever bearing the brunt of the fray. In his duel with Hector, "huge Aias, bulwark of the Achaians," shows himself a man of such prowess as calls forth the praise of his opponent, who seems quite willing to have the combat stayed. His words are few and manly, "Achilles is away, but we are here many willing to fight thee." Achilles, too, still wroth at the general, acknowledges at the debate the force and

sense of Aias' blunt remarks. It is Aias who strides upon the decks of the swift ships, when the other Greeks retire; and it is Aias upon whom Menelaus calls to rescue the body of Patroclus. In the Odyssey, however, he appears among the shades, still sullen at Odysseus' victory. But in the Troilus and Cressida he is "dull, brainless Ajax," employed by the cunning Ulysses to pluck down Achilles' plumes. He and Achilles are "two curs who shall tame each other." Upon him Thersites pours in copious flood his virulent abuse, and Ajax replies with blows:

> "'This Ajax," sneered Thersites, 'has not so much
> Wit as will stop the eye of Helen's needle
> For whom he comes to fight.'"

The somewhat farcical duel between Ajax and Hector is abruptly interrupted by Hector's unwillingness to a "gory emulation" between cousins, referring to the story of Hesione, which Shakespeare took from Caxton, and which was originated by Dares, not by Homer.

The "baiting" of Ajax by Ulysses and Nestor is extremely clever and amusing. They seize the moment when he expresses astonishment at Achilles' pride to disparage his rival and heap upon Ajax himself "with the wittiest raillery" extravagant compliments, proportioned to his egregious stupidity, while he marks the progress of their plan by such bombastic explosions as:

> "If I go to him, with my armed fist
> I'll *pash* him o'er the face."

Thersites gives a most diverting description and pageant of him in his swollen pride:

> "Going up and down the field asking for himself."

In short, he is a genuine type of the "vis consili expers." "The hand is masterly," says Gervinus, "with which physical strength is exhibited strengthened at the expense of mental power. The abundance of similes and images with which this rare but simple nature is described is inexhaustible; the discernment is wonderful with which all animal qualities are gathered to form this man, at once both more and less than human; Mar's idiot; a purblind Argus, a gouty Briareus!"

Thersites is aristocratic Homer's one demagogue:

> "Bandy-legged was he, and lame of one foot, and his two shoulders, rounded, arched down upon his chest; and over them his head was warped, and a scanty stubble sprouted on it."

> "his mind was full of words, many and
> disorderly, wherewith to strive against the
> chiefs idly and in no good order, but even as
> he deemed that he should make the Argives laugh—"

So he reviles Agamemnon, is rebuked and cudgelled by Odysseus, with the approval of the "common sort," and—exit Thersites. But the Thersites of Shakespeare (described as the image of Homer's Thersites in a concave mirror) does not confine his railing to the generals; he reviles all the world; his abuse is infinitely coarser and far more significant; it includes the causes of the war and the ruling passion in the heart of each participant:

> "Nothing but lechery, incontinent varlets."

Of Menelaus he is particularly contemptuous:

> "I care not to be the louse of a lazar, so I
> Were not Menelaus."

> "To be a dog, a mule, a cat, I would not care, but to be
> Menelaus, I would conspire against destiny."

Next to Menelaus, Achilles, "idol of idiot-worshippers," and Ajax, who have the physical qualities he lacks, are the objects of his envenomed wit:

> "I had rather be a tick in a sheep than
> such a valiant ignorance."

> "Shall the elephant Ajax carry it thus?
> He beats me and I rail at him; would that
> I could beat him whilst he railed at me."

Possessing some wit himself, he shows considerable respect for that "stale old mouse-eaten dry cheese Nestor," and that "dog-fox Ulysses." He might fulfil the function of "chorus" in the play if it were not that his version of truth is garbled, his vision distorted and his mind (as Dowden says) "made up of the scum of the foulness of human life." This railer's voice could never be the voice of Shakespeare.,

In Iliad 24, Troilus "dauntless charioteer" is lamented by Priam as one of his sons "cut off by Mars." This is all we hear of Troilus in Homer, and of Cressida not at all. Now, though doubtless in point of particular interest, the unhomeric characters of Troilus and Cressida are inferior, yet the essential unity of the drama requires the juxtaposition of the two plots; and very ingeniously is the parallel drawn between the story of Mene-

laus, Helen and Paris, on the one side, and Troilus, Cressida and Diomedes, on the other; and we shall again find the advantage on the Trojan side, though the ideal is nowhere lofty.

Unlike the inconsistent widow in Chaucer, Shakespeare's Cressida is, as his genius saw she should be, a heartless coquette from the beginning, to whom the base go-between, Pandarus, quite unnecessarily urges the suit of Troilus.

After luring on the fervent and unsuspicious Troilus (to whose guileless fancy Pandarus is as "tetchy to be woo'd to woo" as she is "stubborn chaste against all suit"), Cressida blithely transfers her coy arts to the Grecian camp. But "there is language in her eye, her cheek, her lip," which Ulysses reads at a glance, and she fails to victimize the sophisticated Diomedes, whose "Aristeria," in Shakespeare, consists in capturing this citadel. Her poor deluded lover, Troilus, is rudely disillusioned with all the pangs; but apparently being made of sterner stuff than Menelaus (whose main use in the play seems to be as a butt for immodest jokes), he renounces his false mistress, and is merely hardened and nerved for the more heroic deeds for which Hector's death makes need.

Despite the glowing eulogy of the selfish Paris, Helen in this piece is little more than a light-hearted wanton, supplying to Paris an excuse for deserting the field, "I would fain have armed today, but my Nell would not have it so." She suffers greatly by contrast with the self-reproaching and remorseful Helen of the Iliad, who is a woman of every charm and grace, painfully conscious of her own position and of the inconstant quality of Paris' courage, keenly alive to the kindness of chivalrous Hector and of the wise old Priam, with his experience of heaven-sent suffering.

There is a subtle pathos in presenting her in company with Priam and Aphrodite, so that her vacillating weakness of will (represented, as Lang says, in Homeric Psychology, by making her the victim of the Love-Goddess) is almost forgotten in the contemplation of her remorseful home-longings and her stirrings of conscience at the absence of her brothers. Nor less unlike is Shakespeare's Helen to the still more elaborate portrait of her in the Odyssey, where allusion is again made to her temptation and her penitence, where her sympathy and quick feminine intuition again appear in contrast to the somewhat slow but kindly Menelaus, and where she is now the happy and honoured wife in her own home.

Omitting some of the minor characters, let us pass on to consider the instructive parallel between resourceful Odysseus and the worldly-wise Ulysses, who, in the play, forms the counterpart

to Troilus, aptly styled by Dowden "the noble Green Goose." In the comparatively meagre sketch of Odysseus in the Iliad, he is represented as shrewd and eloquent.

"When he uttered his great voice from his chest," said Antenor, "and words like unto the snowflakes of winter, then could no mortal man contend with Odysseus." He is the wisest of counsellors, the best man for a mission, the least despondent of leaders; when alone and surrounded, with the day going against the Greeks, he proves himself their most resolute and plucky fighter—a truly enduring soul.

Such are the qualities evinced also in the Odyssey, under trials so severe as to bring them into strong relief. He has his human failings, and sometimes his own incautious daring is responsible for his difficulties; but these failings simply serve to throw a brighter light upon his supreme resourcefulness. Altogether he is such a man as Athene's protégé ought to be.

Jebb, in his Classical Greek Poetry, has thus admirably summed him up:

"No superhuman paragon, but an able, nimble-witted, brave, patient man, who fights or devises his way through many trials; not without lapses from prudence, not without experience of discouragement, but with a sound brain and a warm heart, and, thanks to the gods, with final success."

Of the leading characters in the Troilus and Cressida, Ulysses is the most prominent and least lowered; but "lowered" notwithstanding. He has the sound brain, but not the warm heart; he penetrates the characters of Troilus and Cressida, not to speak of Achilles and Ajax.

To his wisdom the motives of the whole war, and, so to say, of the whole world, seem unworthy.

But his wisdom is entirely conscious and worldly, not instructive or spiritual, and he is content to use his great powers to devise petty artifices and further worldly aims. His eloquence is magnificent, though sometimes prolix enough to come from the Nestor of the Iliad. Witness the rhetorical expansion of the Homeric text: "A multitude of masters is no good thing," into his harangue on "Degree."

There is a positive embarrassment of riches in Ulysses' speeches. Godwin declares enthusiastically that "Never did morality hold a language more profound, persuasive and irresistible." How admirable the sententious wisdom of his advice to Achilles on the need for perseverance in well-doing, where he uses those well-known and oft-misapplied words:

"One touch of nature makes the whole world kin—
That all with one consent praise new-born gawds,
Though they are made and moulded of things past,
And give to dust that is a little gilt,
More laud than gilt o'er dusted."

As we read we almost cease to wonder that Grant White should give it as his verdict:—"In this play Ulysses is Shakespeare."

But when we remember that he who uttered these fine thoughts could bait the stupid Ajax for a purpose, and that this very speech from which we have quoted was intended as derision medicinable for Achilles, the insincerity and cold craft of the man become repellent.

Indeed this play, "The Comedy of Disillusion," despite its lavish wealth of wit and wisdom and poetic imagery, fails to touch the heart, and is pervaded by a moral gloom.

We have also noticed the persistent predilection for the Trojans, but this is more easily accounted for, as a review of the play's sources will demonstrate. Mediæval antiquity knew not Homer, but derived much of its knowledge of the story from two impostures of the fifth or sixth century, attributed to Dictys, the Cretan, and Dares, the Phrygian, contemporaries of the Trojan war; the work of Dares was more popular and Trojan in tone. From these came the characters of Troilus and Cressida, whose love-story, however, was originated by a Norman trouvere of the twelfth century, Benoit de Saint More. Benoit was plagiarized a century later by Guido Colonna, whom Le Fevre translated, and upon whose work Bocaccio built his Filostrate. The poem of Chaucer, to which we have alluded, appeared about 1360.

This poem doubtless supplied Shakespeare with his love-plot, while the persons and events of the Trojan legend were chiefly known to him through Caxton, who translated Le Fevre's "Histories of Troy," and through Lydgate, who translated Colonna into verse under the title of "Troy Book."

Thus the mediæval romances, with their Trojan coloring, descended to Shakespeare's time, and are responsible for such unhomeric details as Achilles' cowardly character and his love for Polyxena; Hector's relationship to Ajax, the stealing of Hesoine, the desertion of Calchas, the Sugittary and many others. Hence also that fundamental anachronism by which the manners and customs of mediæval chivalry prevail at the siege of Troy; so that Æneas' high-flown challenge is like that of a herald at a tournament. But, above all, we must remember that Latin literature

was the whole classical education of the middle ages and the greater part of that of the Renaissance.

Virgil was the sacred oracle of those times, and in his great national epic, the Trojans were the ancestors of the Romans. So, from the seventh century onward, nation after nation, Franks and Normans, British and even Turks, boasted, in sincerity, the same historic pedigree. In England legends to this effect were introduced upon the stage, so that in Hector, Shakespeare was honoring an ancestor. In the poem of the English Lydgate, Homer is actually rebuked for exalting the traitor Achilles at the expense of the illustrious Hector. Nothing is clearer, therefore, than that Shakespeare's partiality for the Trojans is in harmony with the common traditions and with his authorities, excepting, of course, Homer himself. For everything tends to show that Shakespeare was also acquainted with Homer, if not in the original, yet certainly in Chapman's version, the first seven books of which had appeared in 1598. Assigning this play to 1607 we can easily believe that Shakespeare had seen the most of Chapman's great production, while it is inconceivable that such intimate friends can have failed frequently to discuss the work as it progressed.

There are abundant evidences also in the play itself. The character of Thersites, the review from the tower, the reference to the faction among the gods, the apparition of Cassandra, are among many others generally referred to the Iliad. Besides, the limitation of the action and the similitude approaching caricature in several of the characters, seem conclusive.

There remains, then, the difficult problem of determining why the whole scene is such a monochrome of black. This obscure subject is hedged with difficulties. Theories of the play have been set forth almost ad nauseam; but the best of the commentators have treated it with the most reserve. Gervinus quits it with dissatisfaction, and Dowden in his earlier edition of the "Mind and Art" declines it altogether. I hope it is with the proper diffidence of a mere layman, foreign to the college of "Shakespeare interpreters," that I approach it at all, or venture on a choice. Almost any solution is open to difficulties. Take, for example, the comparatively moderate suggestion of some that Shakespeare, without intending to attack Homer as a poet, wishes to ridicule the worship of the ancient moral ideals, shown to be low compared with modern ones; and that the story of Troilus and Cressida is his commentary on the Greek view of women as proven by their ten years' war for Helen. To this theory it may fairly be answered that surely this was "too starved a subject" for the mighty Shakespeare's pen; that it would be only just to compare the

Hellenic civilization with that of other nations of the same time; that few would be likely to deny the growth of higher ideals in 2,500 years or to worship the lower in preference; that Shakespeare had small facilities for learning the moral conditions of that early age; that this picture is drawn from various sources and grossly exaggerated; and that, as a matter of fact, the civilization Homer portrays was in many moral respects more advanced than several later civilizations, while in particular (to use the words of Leaf) "the position of women, the keystone of the family, was as high as any that the world has yet seen."

It seems to me we shall never be able to get away from the conviction Gervinus speaks of: "That a fiction so unconscious and innocent as the Homeric must ever remain unfit for satire."

A parody the play undoubtedly is. Shakespeare has contrived to make his Greeks ridiculous by the simple means of individualizing them:

> "The large Achilles, on his pressed bed lolling—"

much in the manner of Patroclus and Theosites in their "pageant."

We are given unexpected particulars of the grand heroes, which are fatal to their dignity, and so the narrow line is crossed that separates the sublime from the ridiculous. Perhaps it is not unreasonable to assume that the play is not meant for a polemic, but is merely a humorously-conceived picture of the legend, with a natural Trojan bias, and that, if the vein of humor is more cynical or less genial than we might have wished, it is owing to the circumstance (as Dowden now believes) of Shakespeare's having composed this comedy at a time when tragedy would have better suited his turn of temper.

However this may be, I think lovers of the epic will gladly leave the sordid gloom of Troilus and Cressida for Homer's purer air, and with heightened zest revisit with Odysseus the land of the Cyclopes, or watch him string the bow the wooers fail to bend, listen again to Achilles' burning eloquence, or with him pursue, as in a dream, the fleeing Hector, yielding to the fancy that still:

> "Athwart the sunrise of our western day,
> The form of great Achilles, high and clear
> Stands forth in arms, wielding the Pelian spear;
> The sanguine tides of that immortal fray
> Swept on by gods, around him surge and sway,
> Wherethrough the helms of many a warrior peer,
> Strong men and swift, their tossing plumes uprear.
> But stronger, swifter, goodlier he than they,
> More awful, more divine."

ODYSSEUS.

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Homer, by the consent of all ages, stands in the first rank of poets. There is in him an enduring vitality that defies the hand of time and a breadth of sympathy that makes him the poet alike of the modern as of the ancient world. He charmed Plato more than two thousand years ago. He charms the philosopher as well as the schoolboy of to-day. The platonic Socrates confessed that he had felt even from his earliest years an awe and love of Homer, for he was the great captain and teacher of poets. But not only did he satisfy the refined taste of a people, in whom art was instinctive, but he had power to awaken their loftiest impulses of valor, and love, and reverence. Even yet he satisfies and even yet he stirs the hearts of men. Sordid indeed must the heart be that he cannot touch, and dead to the nobility and simplicity of nature herse'' Wherein, then, lies the secret of this vitality, this pre-eminence of the Iliad and Odyssey over all other primitive epics? The answer has often been given, but never better than in the words of Professor Jebb: "The supreme and distinctive work of the Homeric poet was to body forth those human types in which the Hellenic race recognized its own ideals, and in contemplating which it became conscious of itself." It is the dramatic power of Homer that distinguishes him. He embodied nobility and splendor of passion in Achilles, intellect and efficiency in Odysseu. He made sweet modesty to live in Nausicaa, tenderness and conjugal loyalty in Penelope.

It is the present purpose to examine especially the type of intellect, Odysseus, the study of whose character, important in itself, may, perhaps, serve an ulterior purpose. From its unity of conception, we may argue the unity of the poem itself and trace a distinct design. Thence we may take strong ground against those who view the Odyssey as a patchwork of lays, composed by many succeeding bards, and finally pieced together by the tyrant Pisistratus. For there are those who, by robbing us of Homer, one and indivisible, would make the Homeric epos nothing short of a miracle. What but a miracle would it be, if a poem, so noble in manner, so perfect in music and so harmonious in conception, were the work of more than one?

As in the Iliad, the purpose of the poem is set forth in the first word. The muse is to sing of the hero who wandered much after the fall of the sacred citadel of Troy. But it is in the fifth

book that we first meet the king himself. The earlier books seem designed to awaken interest by showing the pressing need of his return, and only incidentally do we catch a glimpse of his character. The mild benevolence of his reign and his tenderness as a husband are naturally the traits most prominent.

In the cave of the goddess Calypso, to whose island his raft, escaping the jaws of Carybdis, had drifted, we first behold the long-expected king, who is "peer to Zeus in counsel." In face he is swarthy and black-whiskered. His dark eyes flash with fearless energy. His hair clusters, "like the hyacinth," about a brow of intellect. Remarkable rather for breadth and massiveness than for stature, his frame bespeaks might and endurance. That brawny arm fells the beggar Irus with its lightest blow, and bends the great bow of vengeance as nimbly as a harper stretches a string of his harp. Kingly dignity and repose distinguish every curve and movement. In physical perfection he reaches the Greek ideal, "like unto the gods in form." He satisfies the Greek conception of symmetry, mens pulchra in corpore pulchro, the symmetry which was to Socrates τὸ κάλλιστον θέαμα.

In the later prime of life, he has passed the first stage of manhood, in which, as in Achilles, the man of passion and prowess overshadows the man of thought, and has attained that harmony of body and soul wherein the former, though still in full and vigorous life, is simply the servant, bowing in all things to the will of the higher nature. So, the temptations which Odysseus cannot of his own power resist are not carnal but spiritual temptations. The passionate impetuosity, the longing for fame, which make the young Achilles great, have been subordinated in the older man and curbed by prudence.

Turning, then, to consider the particular type of wisdom portrayed in Odysseus, we have the key in the words πολυμήχανος, πολύμητις and ποικιλομήτης, the most distinctive of all the epithets applied to him. He is of ready counsel and infinite versatility. So Helen in the Iliad calls him "skilled in all ways of wile and cunning device." His wisdom, then, is the wisdom of the general and the statesman rather than of the philosopher; and this is in keeping both with the concreteness of Homer, and with Greek ideals generally. The very life of a Greek state depended on her generals and her orators, and so the man who proved himself great on the field of battle as well as in the Ecclesia was for them the truly great. The power of Odysseus' intellect appears in both these forms. Alcinous, the Phæacian king, charmed with Odysseus' account of his wanderings, attributes to him in graceful compliment,

μορφὴ ἐπέων ἔνι δὲ φρένες ἐσθλαί, and shows his sincerity by avowing that to hear the rest of the story he would sit the night out. Nor can we wonder at the eagerness of Alcinous when once we have read the story which he heard from the living mouth.

Of the orator the Iliad furnishes a striking picture. Antenor speaks: "But whenever Odysseus, full of wiles, rose up, he stood and looked down, with eyes fixed upon the ground, and waved not his staff, whether backwards or forwards, but held it stiff like to a man of no understanding; one would deem him to be churlish and naught but a fool. But when he uttered his deep voice from his chest and words like unto the snowflakes of winter, then could no mortal man contend with Odysseus." This is eloquence unadorned. Neglecting every grace of gesture, the pure radiance of his mind bodies itself in words that flow from his tongue as from Nestor's, "sweeter than honey." He it is that Athene chooses to go amongst the Achæans with "*gentle words*," and turn their hearts back again to war; and he is the spokesman of that momentous embassy to Achilles on which the Greeks rested their last hope. Yet his eloquence is versatile, like his genius. Not only is he mild and persuasive, but he can reach tragic heights, of despair, as when, on leaving Calypso's island, his raft encounters the storm; or of horror and gruesomeness, as in the scene at the Cyclops' cave. His description of that scene is a masterpiece, not surpassed, it is safe to say, in Greek literature. It is great in the same qualities as that celebrated picture in Thucydides, the retreat from Syracuse. There is the same vividness and life, the same simplicity and sense of measure, in a word, the same reality. It is the perfection where nothing can be added and nothing spared.

As a leader of men, and in action, fertility of resource and prudent foresight are his most marked characteristics. Athene, his guardian divinity and prototype in heaven, credits him with powers of mind similar to her own. It would be a cunning man, or even god, that could surpass him. He is best of mortals in counsel, even as she is celebrated among the gods for judgment. Before adducing proofs of his talents, it may be well to premise briefly as to the nature of the evidence. It may be objected that he displays his powers in a private and selfish rather than in a public cause. When he comes as a Nemesis to the suitors, he is the avenger of Odysseus and not of his people. The wrath of Achilles, too, is a selfish passion, nay, the whole Trojan myth is the avenging of a private wrong. But we must keep in mind the nature and end of the epic. It must be varied and picturesque

in incident. It must be vivid and concrete. The actors must be individual. That is why in the Iliad the great battle pictures are duels and not battles. For this reason Homer chooses the years of Odysseus' exile rather than those of tranquil sovereignty. His astuteness in government would have been too abstract and tame a subject for epic treatment. The proofs, then, are chiefly in the form of adventure, wherein he exhibits those concrete elements of greatness which in the civil relation would have taken the form of statesmanship. Odysseus is the primitive epic type of a Pericles or a Cæsar.

The adventure with the Cyclops is one of the best examples of the display of his strategic genius. He knows by report that Polyphemus is a monster who acknowledges no law either of man or god, yet his keen thirst for knowing and exploring all things impels him forward. He espies in the distance the giant, asleep, "like the woody summit of a high mountain peak." Nevertheless he is confident and fearless as he leads on to the cave, where he coolly helps himself to the giant's fare and awaits his coming. Polyphemus returns hungry, and with little parley despatches two of the Greeks for supper. Breakfasting next day on two more, he rolls a huge rock up to the cave's mouth and drives his flock off to pasture. The Greeks are now in dire straits. Even if, with their paltry swords, they do succeed in killing the giant, they cannot hope to move the stone, "that two and twenty wains would not avail to lift." That day Odysseus lays his plan, and it would not be his, were it not one requiring coolness and the highest courage. In the evening he waits until the giant has sated his stomach, once more on human flesh, then stepping forth at the opportune moment, he offers him a cup of wine. It is of rare and ancient vintage and not aimlessly brought. So mellowed does the Cyclops become that he even pauses between cups to ask Odysseus' name. "Οὖτις is my name. My father and mother and all my friends call me Οὖτις," is the answer. It is verbally true, too, for his friends at home do call him No-man. They think him dead. Now this witty answer is of the utmost importance, for it prevents the neighboring giants from helping Polyphemus. The wine, old to good purpose, soon prostrates him, and Odysseus proceeds with the plan of putting out his eye. Soon the bellowing of the tortured Cyclops summons his fellows, to whom he shouts that No-man is treating him with violence. This unexpected answer convinces them that their neighbor is merely having a bad dream, and, exhorting him to pray to Zeus, they leave him to struggle alone. Odysseus laughs with

satisfaction because his "noble counsel," as he says, has outwitted his cruel host. But they are not yet out of difficulty, for Polyphemus stands guard at the door, when the sheep go out next morning. Again a cunning plan of the king makes the sheep, tied together in threes, carry out his comrades. For himself, he saves the largest ram of the flock, to whose long wool he clings. This brings a crisis, wherein even the stout heart of Odysseus must have quailed. The ram is the favorite of his master, and as he comes forth last of the flock, contrary to his wont, Polyphemus must needs stop him to ask the reason. It is a moment of intense excitement. The giant passes his great hands fondly over the sheep's back, and Odysseus escapes by the barest chance. It is the climax of the adventure, and doubtless Odysseus feels it to be the climax of his whole story. His escape has been the triumph of intellect over force. He has more reason to be proud of it than of escape from any other peril, with which he has been threatened. With the same pride the Athenians must have been elated after Salamis, and the story of Odysseus must have taken on a new significance, as they saw in it something foreshadowing their own supremacy.

Polyphemus is typical of brute force. He is of immense bulk and strength, sluggish and fond of sleep. A cave is his dwelling, and the cattle share its shelter, not unworthily, with their master. He pays no regard to religion, and acknowledges no law but his own will, and hence is incapable of social life. Nothing touches him but an appeal to his stomach. When Odysseus, offering him the wine, begs for pity and charges him with injustice, he answers not a word, but swallows the wine at a gulp and asks for more. "More, if you please," he says, "and tell me your name, that I may give you a guest-gift." When the third cup has vanished he specifies the gift with cruel humor. "Well, No-man, I will eat you last of your company; the others first. That shall be my gift." Outwitted and overcome, he turns coward and prays to Neptune, and in answer to the taunts of Odysseus, tries by a very patent and clumsy stratagem to entice him back. It is a compliment to Odysseus—the compliment which mere muscle when defeated always pays to brain — that is, clumsy imitation, and of course is doomed to failure. He begs Odysseus to come back for guest-gifts since he does remember an old oracle which said that he should be deprived of his sight by Odysseus; but then he says, "I expected some great and handsome man, clad in mighty strength." He fails, like all of his class, to count mind in the

opposite scale, and so falls a victim to his own blindness. Vis consile expers mole ruit sua.

The same thirst for knowledge, which prompted the hero to visit the Cyclops is skilfully brought out in the scene with the Sirens. Why did Circe warn him to seal the ears of his comrades with wax and not his own, but to have himself lashed to the mast while the ship should be passing the dangerous island? Simply because such a position would be uncharacteristic of Odysseus. There must be nothing which he is debarred from seeing or hearing. But one may object that it was inconsistent not to trust him to resist the temptation with his own strength. The answer is that Homer is not depicting a superhuman hero, and the song of the Sirens was irresistible for a man. What song is more entrancing to poor human nature than that of its own merits? This is the theme that the Sirens will weave into song for Odysseus, for they profess to know all the story of Troy and the valiant deeds of the Greeks. "My heart longed to hear them," admits the human Odysseus. If we should look on the Odyssey as in some degree allegorical, we should say that our hero, as in the last encounter he overcame unreasoning might, in this escapes the wiles of flattery, and the fact that his own strength is not great enough for this latter trial is Homer's testimony to the influence of this temptation, even over the minds of men distinguished for stability and penetration.

Another striking evidence of Odysseus' genius is his ability to act a part. He puts on disguise with the utmost ease. It will be remembered that on landing at Ithaca he assumes the role of beggar. He is a perfect beggar from the very outset. For example, he falls down like a coward before the watch dogs of Eumæus, he who, even as a lad, had been the first to brave the wild boar, and had borne thereafter a scar which might at the moment, indeed, be visible through his beggar's rags. His strategy still displays itself, but in an unheroic and less dignified manner. From strategy it has become mere craft. A humorous instance of this is his hint to Eumæus that he needs more coverings for his bed. He wakes up the household at midnight, and, apologizing for his action, which he attributes to too much wine, he proceeds to tell a story of how on a cold night at Troy he got a cloak by craft. He *nudged* Agamemnon, he says, and at once a herald was despatched on a sham errand, and he appropriated the garment which the herald threw off in his haste.

Again, he submits like a beggar to be kicked by Melanthius and struck by Antinous, the one his servant, and the other the most in-

solent of the suitors of his wife. Nothing could have tried the perfection of his disguise more severely. He knows his powers to dispense with either scoundrel at a blow, and he has the strongest reasons for detesting both, yet he remains a patient beggar, and is Odysseus only in so far as he stands firm as a rock against their assaults. An ominous movement of the head is all that warns us that the king under the beggar's rags has one more reason for making Antinous his first mark, without chance of defence, on the day of requital. There is a touch of pathos as well as of humor in his meeting with a real beggar in the palace. Irus claims a monopoly of the court for begging and bids Odysseus be gone. "I neither speak nor do any evil to you," answered Odysseus, "nor do I grudge you your gains, but this threshold is large enough to hold us both." But Irus is not to be pacified, and Odysseus is forced to face him. The fight is of extremely brief duration, and as the victor props his boasting foe against the outer fence, he adds, "Sit there, now, and don't play being *king of beggars* again."

When Odysseus emerges from his disguise he stands forth as king again over his long-sought fatherland of Ithaca. In him we have the Homeric ideal of kingship. The position of the heroic king is defined with great clearness in the Odyssey, whereas in the Iliad we have kings chiefly on the field of battle, and see but little of them in the civil relation. Aristotle defines the heroic kingships as ἑκουσιοί τε καὶ πάτρεοι γενόμενοι κατὰ νόμον. There is much to show that the sway of Odysseus is paternal as well as κατὰ νόμον. Mentor, lamenting in the assembly that his subjects have forgotten him, implies that he was mild and gentle and careful of justice. Penelope says that he was superior to ordinary kings in "neither saying nor doing aught unfair to any subject," and by a change of mood from subjunctive to optative, it is shown that the probability of a king's hating his subjects was less remote than of his loving them. Eumaeus, the master swineherd, bears testimony also of his gentleness and benevolence. He longs for him more than for his own father. Under him he would never be afraid of overstepping his rights, as he is in constant dread of doing under Telemachus. We must conclude, then, that, if he departed from strict justice, it was always on the side of mercy. His sense of justice is keen even at the most trying moments. He spares the bard and herald of the suitors at a moment when the fury of the avenger might well have blinded him to their innocence. We should notice also, that his rule is not absolute, but κατὰ νόμον, which implies an assembly

of the people. The assembly appears not to have been regularly convoked. The council of the Ithacans, in the second book, is the first since Odysseus' departure. Alcinous, too, summoned his assembly for special business. Thus it was probably the practice of the king to call his assembly as often as public business demanded, and is another evidence of the paternal character of his rule.

There is also a proper sense of dignity in Homer's kings; dignity of person and of surroundings. To preserve his dignity, Odysseus is willing to wait a year, if need be, with Alcinous, while proper equipment is prepared for his return. His subjects would fail to respect him if he returned in poverty. And his anxiety about his throne is a prominent part of his desire to see that longed-for *νόστιμον ἦμαρ*. It is his first object of solicitation when he is enquiring from his mother's spirit about Ithaca (Odyssey XI., line 175). An interesting point to notice here is that this picture of kingship, reflected incidentally and from chance situations in the narrative, resembles in its main feature the ideal of Odysseus himself, introduced in an address of his to Penelope, while he is still under disguise: "Thy fame reacheth heaven," he exclaims, "as of some noble king who ruleth over many men of might. Like unto a god he upholdeth justice. For that he is wise, the dark earth yieldeth wheat and barley, the trees are laden with fruit, and fat are the sheep she feedeth. He ruleth over a righteous people."

The surroundings of royalty are distinguished by a corresponding dignity. The palaces are magnificent. Shady lawns, with fountains and long hedgerows stretch about them. Their solid and enduring walls are relieved by many a work of art. Delicate draperies hang from the couches. Gold and silver are lavishly used in decoration. One might even fear that the display of gold, considering the primitive times, was ostentatious and vulgar; but an occasional description in Homer of a piece of art shows that refinement of taste and truth in art, so remarkable among the Greeks, was inherent and not altogether the result of training. For example, the golden mantle clasp, given by Penelope to her husband, represents a dog playfully holding a spotted fawn between his forepaws. "And all marvelled," naively remarks the poet, "how, though wrought of gold, the dog delighted in strangling the kid, while he, eager to escape, struggled with his feet."

One other remarkable trait of the hero remains to be considered, which places him in far closer touch with modern, than with subsequent Hellenic sentiment. It is his chivalrous attitude

towards women, another evidence of that ἀγανοφροσύνη of which his mother speaks so tenderly. Fidelity to the marriage vow is idealized in Odysseus and Penelope. Offered marriage by the goddess Calypso, Odysseus still turns with longing to his home in rugged Ithaca, and to Penelope, to reach whom he is content again to face the threatening deep, though he knows that she cannot compare in any gift with the beautiful immortal. In the second book of the Iliad he expresses no surprise that the Achæans should think of return, for if a man be away from his wife but a single month, he frets when storms imprison him. Odysseus is the soul of honor and tenderness to his wife. Hence he is seriously annoyed, and answers curtly when the shade of Agamemnon, who, it must be allowed, has reason enough for distrust, warns him to go home secretly, for women could no longer be trusted. He will brook no breath of suspicion against Penelope, who for her part reposes the most perfect trust in her husband.

Separation has pressed very bitterly on Penelope's heart. For twenty weary years of waiting the dirge has been the sad accompaniment of her daily tasks. "Her nights wane over in sadness, and her days are full of tears." "She ever bedeweth her widowed bed with tears." Too sad to hear is the song of Phemius, the bard, who sings, Ἀχαιῶν νόστον λυγρόν. "Cease," she cries, "from this grievous song, for it wears away my heart within." How natural is the climax of her grief! It comes at the sight of the great bow, which, since the departure of Odysseus, has hung untouched in the armory. She has at last consented to accept the suit of the man who shall win in a contest of the bow, and has gone to fetch the weapon. But she has no sooner taken it from its peg than she sinks down and shrieks out the agony of her heart. To-morrow the victor will claim her, and then all will be over. The poignancy of her grief suggests the question, Why had she not dismissed the suitors long since? It was evident that she could be happy with none but Odysseus, yet she kept putting them off and allowing them to hope. The answer is that, in Homer, wedlock is woman's natural sphere. That is where her duty lies; and Penelope, once assured of the death of Odysseus, would be bound by every consideration of duty to accept an offer. Athene, in urging Telemachus to return from his fruitless search, says: "Thou knowest what a woman's heart is. She wisheth to advance the house of the man she marrieth, and forgetteth her former husband and children." And Telemachus himself, influenced by motives more sordid than dutiful, wishes her to return to her father's house and choose a husband. About this

theme of married love Homer has thrown all the charm of his immortal muse. There is the firmness of Odysseus, who, before he may abandon his disguise, endures to talk with Penelope, while his heart is leaping with ardor to confess himself, and silent tears drop from eyes which yet are held as firm as steel. There is the sweet doubt and hesitancy of Penelope, who cannot be convinced that indeed her lord is returned, breaking finally into rapturous certainty as she flies to arms that are "welcome as land to shipwrecked sailors." There is the embrace, bright ending of so many woes, ethically, I doubt not, the highest note in the poem. Noble words are these of Achilles, and fitting here: "Surely whatsoever man is good and sound of mind loveth his wife and cherisheth her, even as I, too, loved mine with all my heart."

Chivalrous and tender where many men—not men of Homer—forget to be, it is not surprising that he meets the maiden Nausicaa, whom Professor Jebb considers the most charming girl in ancient literature, with courtesy as unaffected as it is delicate and honorable. She has gone down to the river with her attendants to wash her linen, and playing after the work was over, wakens Odysseus, who was sleeping behind a thicket where the waves had washed him ashore. He is in sorry plight, and hearing maidens' voices he comes forth to beg a garment and learn the way to the town. Nausicca is the only one of the maidens who does not flee in terror. Seeing, too, in her bearing what marked her as the mistress, Odysseus is fain to petition her. He does not clasp her by the knees, the usual form of supplication, as the word γουνάζομαι shows, lest the delicate sensibility of the maiden be shocked by his uncouthness, but stands at a distance and addresses her in words that are as modest and gallant as his attitude is respectful. His farewell to Arete and Nausicaa, in which he thanks them for their kindness, displays the same fine courtesy and reverence.

Such was Odysseus. Take him all in all, and having in view especially the symmetry and roundness of his nature, he is without doubt ὀχ' ἄριστος of all the Greeks who fought at Troy. Twenty years of exile spent in toils of war and strife have tempered his spirit and given him stoic strength, without robbing his heart of its generosity and warmth. How different this from the Ulixes of Virgil's conception, the cold and heartless, whom he never mentions without naming him dirus or sævus. Yet Odysseus stands high above the gentle and colorless hero of the Æneid. He has more honor, more love, more force, more tact, and even in piety he is not his inferior. He delights in the beauties of nature,

nor does he scorn the good things which she gives. His wit is quick and his spirit eager, and withal there is an engaging simplicity in his character. He has the royal dignity of Agamemnon, but he is no autocrat; the courage of Achilles, but he is deeper in counsel. He has the tenderness of Penelope, the eloquence of Mentor, the judgment almost of Athene. And throughout all the epic he is the same Odysseus. The same qualities of heart and head distinguish his every act and word. Dramatic genius of the first order was necessary to the creation of such a figure, and until the detractors can show us a Lear, or a Hamlet, or an Othello produced on the patchwork plan, we shall continue to hold that the Odyssey is the work of one, and that one a poet of supreme and unfading splendor, whom we love to read and commune with as Homer

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL ASSOCIATION.

THE RELATION BETWEEN ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY AND ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA, AND THE AID WHICH EACH MAY RECEIVE FROM THE OTHER.

PROFESSOR N. F. DUPUIS, KINGSTON.

Lagrange has said, "So long as algebra and geometry were separated, their progress was slow and their applications were restricted; but when these two sciences became united, they lent each other aid, and advanced together with rapid pace towards perfection."

Also, the question has been asked, "Has Geometry given birth to Algebra, and shall she receive no benefits from her offspring?"

I am sure that no mathematician of the present day would deny that the higher geometry, in particular, owes very much to algebra; or would maintain that it would have been possible, without the powerful aids of co-ordinate methods or of quaternions and the calculus, to bring the higher geometry to its present very advanced state of development.

And I do not believe that any person, who has philosophically studied the whole matter, will pretend to say that even elementary geometry, apart from that system known as "Euclid," has not greatly profited in breadth and generality by its connection, although to some extent a casual one, with the methods and processes of elementary algebra.

But there are, nevertheless, some teachers who are inclined to answer our question with a vigorous *no*; who deplore even the probability of ever departing from the circuitous and wordy methods of the ancient Greeks, and who look upon algebra as, at least, being out of place whenever allowed to enter the domains of elementary geometry; who fear it as an evil thing which might work mischief in the beautiful system which was worked out with so much labor by Euclid and his predecessors.

To try as well as I can to get at the point of view of these men, to show that their objections are fanciful rather than real, and to point out, as time will allow me, some of the decided advantages which elementary geometry receives from its connection with algebra, and vice versa, is the object of this address. And if any person will listen to me without prejudice, even if he be so overpowered by the efful-

gence of Greek geometry as practically to live in the very days of Alexandrine glory, I believe that my address will not be completely thrown away upon him.

I shall treat my subject in the following order:

1. As to what algebra really is.

2. Algebra, in a masked form, is common in Euclid, Greek algebra being developed through geometry and for the assistance of geometry.

3. Some of the ways in which these two great wings of mathematical sciencе are capable of assisting each other.

First, then, as to what Algebra, in its modern development, really is.

If we are to judge by the definitions given in numerous algebras, published during the present century, we must conclude that the writers are not very well agreed as to what definition should be given to the subject, for they are in accord in only one point, and that is that algebra is connected with arithmetic, and according with number, and from the statements usually given we would infer that it has no place outside of number.

Some of these definitions follow:

Francœur (1809) does not define algebra, but gives a somewhat long statement of the nature of its operations.

Garnier (1811) says "Newton calls algebra universal arithmetic," and then goes on with some remarks of Lagrange, but gives no fixed definition.

Bonnycastle (1820) says that it is the science which treats of a general method of performing calculations, and of resolving mathematical problems by means of the letters of the alphabet. We note here that Bonnycastle, apart from the word "calculation," does not limit the application of the subject.

Hind (1829) says that algebra in its simplest character is a method of representing numerical magnitudes by means of symbols, etc.

Chase (1849) calls it that branch of the science of numbers which employs general symbols of quantity.

Lawrence (1853) says algebra is the method of computation in which letters and other symbols are employed.

Bobillier (1876) defines it as the science which pertains to the general solution of problems respecting numbers.

Bourdon (1877) says that algebra is that part of mathematics in which we employ proper signs to abridge and generalize our reasoning upon the solutions of questions respecting numbers.

Serret (1877) says that it is properly called the analysis of equations.

Wentworth (1882) defines algebra as the science in which we reason about numbers, etc.

Birchard and Robertson (1886) say it is the science which teaches the use of symbols to denote both numbers, and the operations to which numbers may be subjected.

Hall and Knight (1887) and Charles Smith (1890) both define algebra as the science which treats of the relations of numbers, etc.

Two notable writers, La Croix, whose translated works first gave an impetus to the study of modern mathematics at Cambridge, and formed for many years the standard text-books of that University; and Chrystal, the author of undoubtedly the fullest work on algebra in the English language, and a man thoroughly acquainted with the philosophy of the subject, give no definition of algebra, although Chrystal occasionally speaks of it as the "Mathematical machine," which, if it were not for the mechanical associations, would be quite a comprehensive definition of the subject. I have no serious fault to find with any of the definitions quoted, except that they are in general too restricted to satisfy the usages of modern mathematicians. For these latter speak of double or vector algebra, of the algebra of quaternions, and of other algebras which are obedient to peculiar laws of transformation.

Some of these might, by a little straining, be brought to square with the definition of algebra as related to number; but quaternions and vector algebra, in which fully one-half of the symbols employed have no relation to number, cannot be so disposed of; and still less can algebras like Boole's Laws of Thought or Pierce's Extensions of it.

The algebra of present usage is something which suffices to express exact relations, and through which transformations of these relations are brought about in accordance with certain previously determined laws of operation. No matter, then, under what division of thought they may fall, all things which are capable of exact relations, and which are, under any consistent convention, subject to the same laws of operation, are expressible in, and workable by, the same algebra.

Here, then, I think, we have a key to the answer to the question as to what algebra really is. Every relation in mathematics can be expressed by the words of the English, or any other complete language, either spoken or written; for every symbol employed must at first have its force and meaning described or defined in that language. And hence, by a tedious circumlocution, possibly too complex for the average mind to follow, all the relations and operations of mathematics might be written down without the use of a single symbol.

No, not exactly without a symbol! for the written word is a symbol of both a sound and an idea; and all language, whether spoken or written, is the science of the proper use of a certain class of symbols. And since algebra in all cases replaces this circumlocution by the substitution of a simple sign for a complex word-symbol, and occasionally for a whole sentence, what can we call algebra but a language, and, on account of its eminently symbolic character, a symbolic language; and as the principal use of all its symbolism is to express exact or mathematical relations, I would venture to define algebra, if a definition is wanted, not as a science, but as *the symbolic language in which mathematical relations are expressed and discussed.*

The student who would make a proper use of any language must not only be conversant with its words, he must also have learned the laws of the construction of words into sentences capable of clearly expressing his ideas, and he must know the idioms and the logic of the language, so as to be able to direct his arguments towards some legitimate conclusion. So, also, a knowledge of the signs and symbols of algebra, and of its formal laws of operation, although of fundamental importance, is not sufficient in itself to give to any person a competent knowledge of algebra. He must, in addition, be familiar with the methods of combining his symbols so as to be able to direct his discussion towards some desired end.

The analogy is complete; and the answer which I have given to the question as to what algebra really is, virtually includes all the definitions quoted, and much more; for it is sufficiently comprehensive to satisfy all the demands of modern usage.

Of course, algebra, with its symbols and signs as we have them to-day, originated in arithmetic, and arose from a desire to generalize the fundamental operations of arithmetic, so as to arrive at relations existing between general quantities instead of between particular numbers.

This generalization naturally introduced new quantitative ideas and relations, such as negative quantity and imaginaries, and in this way created an algebra which has risen far above its humble origin, and which expresses ideas that transcend common arithmetic.

But the formal laws of operation, which prevail in our algebra of a non-special form, are those which govern the operations of arithmetic, and which were derived from arithmetic at first.

And any subject, in which exact relations are possible, and which under any reasonable and consistent interpretation of symbols can be shown to be amenable to these operative laws, is capable of being accurately and logically discussed by the machinery of algebra.

Now, there is no difficulty in proving that, if we employ the quantitative symbol of algebra to stand for and represent a line-segment, and the product form of two such symbols to denote the area of the rectangle constructed on the two segments represented by the quantitative symbols of the product, the symbols thus employed are rigorously subject to the formal laws of our algebra.

Hence we see that such algebraic relations as admit of intelligible interpretation can be interpreted indifferently as a relation among numbers—*i.e.*, as an arithmetical theorem, or as a relation among line-segments or areas or volumes—*i.e.*, as a geometrical theorem. And we thence conclude that in its modern development and usages, algebra has just as much claim to be called universal geometry as to be called universal arithmetic.

The following illustrations will make this clear:

1. $a=\sqrt{b\,c}$, if interpreted arithmetically, tells us that the number denoted by a is a mean proportional between those denoted by b and c; and when interpreted geometrically it tells us that a denotes the side of the square whose area is equal to that of the rectangle whose sides are denoted by b and c.

2. The identity $(a+b+c)^2=a^2+b^2+c^2+2\,(ab+bc+ca)$ in arithmetic says that the square of the sum of three numbers is equal to the sum of the squares of the numbers and twice the sum of their products taken in twos; and in geometry it tells us that the square on the sum of three lines is equal to the sum of the squares on the lines together with twice the sum of the rectangles made by taking the lines in pairs; or, putting it in a different form, if a finite line be divided into any three parts, the square on the whole line is equal to the sum of the squares on the parts and twice the sum of the rectangles formed by taking the parts two together.

In this latter illustration two things are worthy of notice, first, that as the letter stands for a piece of a line, no idea of number or a unit of measure is introduced; and second, that the fundamental identity may be proved either by an arithmetical process or by a geometrical one.

There are limits to our powers of intelligible interpretation in both arithmetic and geometry, and the restrictions are greater in geometry than in arithmetic. Thus $a=b+\sqrt{-c}$, where c is absolutely positive, has no interpretation in either arithmetic or geometry as a real relation, although it is made geometrically possible by the new convention of Argand's diagram. The identity $a\,b\,(a+b)=a^3\,b+a\,b^3$ is interpretable in arithmetic but not in real geometry, for the *sine qua*

non of geometrical interpretation is homogeneity in one, two, or three dimensions only.

But some people raise the objection that you should not employ algebraic symbols in geometry, because the quantitative symbol of algebra stands for number, and you cannot properly represent the different lines of a geometric figure by any set of numbers.

Well, if we are to adopt the current definition and make algebra merely generalized arithmetic, there is some force, but not an irresistible one in their objection; but if we take our quantitative symbol as a line symbol and make the remaining dependent conventions, the objection has no force whatever.

Besides, I do not think that we raise the question, even when working with arithmetical algebra, as to whether our variable is to come out a whole number or a fraction or an irrational, and we consider any one of these as an answer to our problem. But if such quantities as $\sqrt{2}$ or $1+\sqrt[3]{3}$, or $\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3}$, etc., are to be called numbers, then we have certainly extended our idea of number very decidedly, and with this extension we are no longer justified in saying that the lines about a geometrical figure cannot be properly represented by number; for if a denotes the side of a square, $a\sqrt{2}$ exactly denotes its diagonal. And this is the view of number taken by Wierstrass, Heine, Dedekind and other modern mathematical leaders.

Secondly, algebra under a masked form is common in all the ancient systems of geometry. The second book of Euclid from the first to the tenth proposition inclusive, and the whole of the fifth book, consist of a geometrical algebra; and the sixth book deals with a subject which is algebraic in character, since proportion is general in its applications to all species of magnitude and quantity.

Moreover, the seventh book deals with greatest common measure and least common multiple, and proves that numbers which are least in any ratio are prime to one another. Book eighth treats of continued proportion; book ninth of square and cube numbers, and of primes; and book tenth is wholly occupied in the consideration of incommensurable numbers, and is so peculiar in character that it is best read by a person versed in modern algebra.

All these books are geometrical algebras applied to arithmetic, and the whole manner of treating the subject is, as De Morgan has said, "evidence that the arithmetical character of geometrical magnitude had been very extensively considered by the Greeks, and that an arithmetic of a character closely approximating to modern algebra must have been the guide."

We have here then a kind of comparison between the method of development followed by the Greek, and by modern mathematicians. The Greek began with geometry as his primary subject, and through it he formed a geometrical algebra, which he applied to the elucidation of the difficulties of arithmetic. The modern, on the other hand, starting from arithmetic, developes an arithmetical algebra, which he employs in the investigation of geometrical relations.

That the modern algebra employs symbols extensively, while the ancient does not, is a matter of detail rather than of principle. But it is this very symbolism that gives to arithmetical algebra those powers to which it would be in vain to aspire by an algebra burdened by the periphrasis of a spoken language.

It seems natural to ask why Euclid or his contemporaries did not found their algebra upon arithmetic as modern students have done. The answer is not far to seek. The arithmetic of the ancient Greek was of the most limited character. He was an accomplished arithmetician who could multiply together two numbers rising into the thousands, and he who could perform the corresponding division was a great arithmetician. Nor would you wonder at this, if, supposing you knew nothing of modern arithmetic and its principles and symbols, you were required to multiply together the numbers denoted by δM, $\gamma\chi o\eta$ and $\overset{B}{M'}\epsilon\psi\rho\varsigma$, where each letter stands for a definite number, but relative position has no force.

In fact there was no true science of arithmetic until after the invention of the Arabic or rather Hindu system of notation, one of the greatest inventions of all time, when or by whom made, nobody knows; but we are certain that it was unknown to the Greek.

It seems to me that, although the sequence of subjects in our accepted system of education makes it appear otherwise, elementary arithmetic is more difficult for the absolute beginner that elementary geometry is. For, among other things, the former lacks the powerful aid to comprehension which exists in the figure or diagram of the latter.

It is probably due to the inherent difficulty of the subject that arithmetic, as a science, had such a slow growth even after the invention of the Arabic notation; in illustration of which Cajori gives the following as one of the brain-twisters of the 6th century:

"Beautiful maiden, with beaming eyes, tell me, as thou understandest the right method of inversion, which is the number which multiplied by 3, then increased by $\frac{3}{4}$ the product, divided by 7,

diminished by $\frac{1}{3}$ the quotient, multiplied by itself, diminished by 52, the square root extracted, addition of 8 and division by 10, gives the number 2."

This was in illustration of a new method called the method of inversion. It is quite certain that the ancient Greeks believed in a relation between arithmetic and geometry, the two great wings of the exact sciences, and therefore between algebra and geometry. Matters have progressed very much since Euclid's day, but there are still some ancient Greeks amongst us; for, judging from their actions, they do not believe in any connection between arithmetic and geometry. They declaim loudly against the introduction into elementary geometry of anything which savours of the methods or symbolism of arithmetic or algebra, and hold strongly that the periphrastic methods of the Greeks are the most beautiful, the most logical, the most convincing and satisfying to the human mind that could possibly have been devised.

With these men I have no quarrel, although I am certainly not in accord with them; but I think that they should be consistent.

Some of these men edit editions of Euclid, and are quite ready to introduce certain algebraic identities, merely for the sake of illustration, as they say. Thus they will tell you that $(a+b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab$ corresponds to, or is an algebraic illustration of Euclid II, 4; but they do not pretend to show logically in what the correspondence consists; for if they did this they would show, not that the algebraic identity corresponds to Euclid II, 4, but that it *is* that proposition and its *proof* expressed in symbolic notation. For, if they hold that a and b are number symbols only, what geometrical meaning can they attach to the product $a\,b$, or a^2 and b^2? $a\,b$ denotes the product of two numbers; but surely no one in his senses will speak of the product of two finite lines, even if he admits that a and b may stand for the lines.

If they say that ab represents a rectangle there is another difficulty. For ab, as an arithmetical form, is a product that can be separated into two factors in an infinite number of ways, and they are thus forced to the conclusion that ab does not represent a rectangle as a geometrical figure, but rather denotes the area of such a rectangle, with a suspicion that this area is in some way connected with a product.

Adopting this idea, it becomes necessary to show, by some means, that if the form ab represents correctly the area of any one rectangle, it must do so for the area of every rectangle, whether its sides be commensurable or incommensurable; otherwise, the illustration of Euc. II.

4, or of other like propositions, would be faulty unless under particular conditions. And thus so simple a thing as our algebraic illustration brings up, when followed to its logical conclusion, the whole question of incommensurability, and incidentally of proportion amongst incommensurable quantities or magnitudes, and therefore the celebrated fifth axiom of Euclid's fifth book.

We find this illustration idea present in the Euclids of Potts, Law, Hall and Stevens, Mackay, and others, to the confusion of the thinking student, who either receives these things dogmatically, or who, having been taught that algebra is only extended arithmetic, fails to comprehend the illustration and forms a suspicion that some bond of connection has been ignored or overlooked. For my own part I disapprove of a course so illogical.

As we have now been brought face to face with Euclid's doctrine of proportion, I must say something concerning it.

It may happen that a person, in developing some new line of research, is justified in framing any kind of definition that suits his purpose. But when an idea is already in the mind, that definition of it which does not accord with it in every particular, is faulty. Thus, although no definition may be possible which is absolutely faultless, we cannot define a straight line, or an angle, as we please, if our definition is to be correct as a working one. So it is with proportion. The idea of proportion is not a new or foreign one to the human mind, although it may be difficult to formulate it in words.

Now, a constant theme of admiration to some writers in the past has been the way in which, they consider, Euclid has defined proportion in his Book V, 5, so as to avoid the difficulties which centre around incommensurability. More cautious writers, however, and principally recent ones, do not share in this admiration, but rather see reasons for questioning the validity of his so-called definition.

Thus the late Dr. Casey says that it is not a definition, but a theorem which should have been proved; and Chrystal speaks of it as an indirect way of getting over the chief difficulty of the subject.

This so-called definition is rather a test, and it is allied to that kind of test, sometimes met with in mathematics, which is necessary but not sufficient.

Take any four quantities A, B, C, D, and apply this test, which is: If when $mA \gtrless nB$, then also $mC \gtrless nD$, or *vice versa*, where m and n are any numbers whatsoever, then A, B, C, D are in proportion.

If A and B as also C and D are commensurable, Euclid's test is readily applied and is sufficient. But if A and B as also C and D are incommensurable, no finite multiple of A can be equal to a multiple of B, and no finite multiple of C can be equal to a multiple of D.

Therefore, if $mA > nB$, and accordingly $mC > nD$, we may write $mA - nB = e$ and $mC - nD = e'$. And however small e and e' may be they are finite and *independent of each other*.

But we can also write $mA = n(B + \frac{e}{n})$, and $mC = n(D + \frac{e'}{n})$; and as the test is here satisfied we must have

$$A : B + \tfrac{e}{n} = C : D + \tfrac{e'}{n}$$

a relation in which, although e or e' is arbitrary, they are evidently not independent of one another.

The only way out of this dilemma is to make both $\frac{e}{n}$ and $\frac{e'}{n}$ vanish by making n infinite; and hence in applying Euclid's test to incommensurables, it is insufficient unless we can show that the test is satisfied for infinite multiples.

Now apply these considerations to the first proposition of the sixth book, the proposition which is the key to all Euclid's comparison of triangles and other plane figures; for in the previous books he does not compare figures but merely shows that they are equal or unequal to one another. In his figure he takes both multiples as three times the given magnitudes, and from these and the convenient word *whatsoever* he draws the conclusion that the magnitudes under consideration are in proportion.

But this is not sufficient; for, if *whatsoever* refers to a finite multiple, and the bases are incommensurable, it does not follow that the areas of the triangles are proportional to the bases; as in this case it is necessary to show that the test is satisfied when *whatsoever* refers to an infinite multiple. And I am of opinion that we are not prepared to discuss the properties of infinite multiples, and certainly not in elementary geometry.

Again, when we say that two lines are to one another as two triangles are, what do we really mean? We can compare the lines with respect to length only, while we may compare the triangles in several ways, viz.: as to their forms, the lengths of their sides, their areas, etc. Evidently the latter is the only admissible one here. But in comparing lines we naturally think of one of them as being longer or shorter than the other by a definite part of itself. And when we compare areas, length does not come into consideration, so that we think of one of the areas as being greater, *i.e.*, covering more space,

than the other by a definite part of itself, and in the case of proportion these excesses must have the same relations to their respective subjects, since they can have no relation to one another. Now in doing this I believe that, whether we think so or not, we introduce mentally the idea of quantity and quantitative relations. For I do not see how, apart from quantitative relations, two lines can hold to each other the same relations as two areas do.

It appears to me, then, that the only correct definition of proportion, whether it be for accuracy of statement, or for working facilities, is that it is an equality of ratios. But Euclid and his predecessors amongst the Greeks had but a meagre idea of division, and therefore no adequate idea of a ratio, and hence found it impossible to properly define proportion.

This definition, dealing as it does with number, places proportion in the domain of arithmetical algebra and necessitates the application of the principle of limits in proving it for incommensurables; but it does not require that the ratio should be integral, or even rational, nor does it confine us to the adoption of any particular unit, and the unit most naturally assumed will be one of the magnitudes of the ratio.

If any person says that the principle of limits is foreign to the Greek methods, I have only to refer him to the 12th Book of Euclid. For the Greek mathematicians discovered that their previous methods were insufficient to deal to any extent with curves and curved surfaces, and they were compelled to invent a new method, that of exhaustions. But the method of exhaustions is a legitimate parent to our modern method of limits, and the two are virtually one and the same in principle. And my own opinion is that if Euclid had introduced his method of exhaustions and by it established the doctrine of proportion much earlier in his course, and built thereon, it would have been a great improvement on his present system of geometry. Why he did not do so has probably been already explained.

Thirdly, for those who from the influence of previous training and fixed opinions will teach along the lines laid down in Euclid, and for those who from force of circumstances are compelled to do so, algebra, in its geometrical relations, can do little else than act as illogical illustration. But for those who are at liberty to pursue a course more in accordance with the advanced ideas of modern geometers, algebra becomes a constant source of illumination upon geometrical processes and results.

I do not for a moment mean that it would be profitable in elementary work, or in fact in any work, to dispense with the synthetic

or Euclidian methods, but rather that these methods should be supplemented and expanded, and their results generalized by means of the symbology of algebra.

To those who follow such a line it becomes necessary, quite early in the course, to establish the theorem that if a and b stand for line-segments, the product form ab properly and under all circumstances denotes the area of the rectangle which has a and b as its sides. The conformity of the symbols, as thus used, to the formal laws of algebra is then easily established, and thence every homogeneous algebraic expression of not more than three dimensions becomes at once geometrically interpretable, and is the symbolic expression of a geometric theorem. And more than this, theoretical geometry, by this means, immediately falls into connection with that important system of practical geometry known as mensuration, and which under our present educational system is very little more than a "rule of thumb."

To illustrate by a few examples:

1. In the eleventh proposition of the Second Book Euclid gives us the necessary construction for dividing a given finite line in extreme and mean ratio; and in the tenth of the Fourth Book he gives a construction for drawing an isosceles triangle whose basal angles are each double the vertical angle. But he gives these constructions dogmatically, and without giving any insight into the method by which he or his predecessors arrived at these constructions. This may be in accordance with Greek logic, but it is not in harmony with my ideas of teaching.

It commonly happens that when we want a construction we have no person to dictate one to us. We are then told, not by Euclid, who does not touch the question, but by modern geometers, to analyse the problem by supposing the thing required to be done, and then reasoning back until we arrive at the construction. And this is precisely the way in which we solve a common arithmetical problem by supposing x to be the solution. If Euclid had put his 10th of the Fourth Book, into the Sixth Book and had analysed the problem, he would readily have discovered that all that is required is to divide the side of the isosceles triangle in extreme and mean ratio, and the longer segment becomes the base. But by his arbitrary mode of procedure, he misses the connection between these two important problems.

Chrystal says that to guess at the root of an equation, is just as good a way of solving an equation as any; and so also, I suppose, it is quite legitimate to guess at a construction, if you can. But, unfortunately, this guessing method, both in equations and geometrical

constructions is not always successful, so that it is at times necessary to resort to some other means; and even when the guessing method is successful, some other process may bring out certain unforseen relations.

Thus to divide a given line-segment in extreme and mean ratio, we may do as follows:

Let A B be the segment, and let C be the required point of division, so that $AC^2 = AB.CB = AB\ (AB - AC)$, or $AC^2 + AB.AC - AB^2 = 0$.

Solving this as a quadratic in AC, we have $AC = \frac{1}{2}\ (AB\sqrt{5} - AB)$; and we have to construct the right member of this last equation.

Draw BE perpendicular to AB and equal to twice AB, and join A, E. $AE = AB\sqrt{5}$. With E as centre and AB as radius describe a circle cutting AE in F, and AE produced in F'. Then $AF = AB\sqrt{5} - AB$, and $AF' = AB\sqrt{5} + AB$. Bisect AF in G, and AF' in G'. Then $AG = \frac{1}{2}\ (AB\sqrt{5} - AB) = AC$, and $AG' = \frac{1}{2}\ (AB\sqrt{5} + AB)$.

With A as centre and AG as radius transfer AG to AC and we have the point C. Now the double root of the surd $\sqrt{5}$ shows us that there is a second solution, and this second solution gives $AC = -\frac{1}{2}\ (AB\sqrt{5} + AB)$. So that if, with A as centre, we transfer AG' to AC' where C' lies to the left of A, we have the second point of division.

When a point is determined by cutting a line with a circle, two points are usually determined. And although there may be strictures in the wording of a problem that lead us to accept one of these points to the exclusion of the other, there can be no geometrical reason for doing so. According to Euclid's use of the word "divide," the point C' would be rejected because it lies without the limits of the line-segment AB; but the retention of both points has been a great stride in the generalizations of modern geometry. In all such cases the student should be encouraged to seek the meaning of the double solution, and, if possible, to so change the wording of the problem as to make it properly include both solutions. Thus Euc. II, 11, may be generalized as follows:

To find a point C in line with A and B such that the square on AC may be equal to the rectangle on AB and CB.

Again, in the isosceles triangle of Euc. IV, 10, we have an efficient means of finding the trigonometric functions of 18°, 36°, 54° and 72°.

Euclid's method does not help us in obtaining these. But if we remember that to construct the triangle we must divide its side in extreme and mean ratio, the algebraic generalization given before tells us that if A B C be the triangle of which B is the vertex, $AC = AB - \frac{1}{2}\ (\sqrt{5} - 1)$; and from this relation we readily obtain the required ratios.

Illustrations like the foregoing might be multiplied indefinitely, but time will not allow me to enter into any others.

Conversely, algebra, and indirectly the whole theory of number is capable of receiving, and does receive great assistance from geometry.

In the higher fields we have the whole theory of functions largely dependent upon the aids and illustrations which it is capable of receiving from geometrical principles; and I do not believe that the theory of the complex variable could possibly have been brought to its present state of development without the aid of what is known as Argand's diagram.

But also, in its lower and more elementary parts, algebra is frequently most readily explained by reference to geometrical ideas.

Thus, what other explanation of the nature and oppositeness of positive and negative quantity is so natural and so satisfying to the intellect as that of distance measured in opposite directions along a common line, or angle measured out by opposite rotations about a common point.

And then the graph of an equation is a most important aid in studying the nature of the equation and of its quantic; for it pictures to the eye the operations performed and the results of such operations.

It is easy to show that the graph of a linear quantic is a straight line, and thence that every rational linear equation must have one real root, either zero, finite, or infinite.

In that important quantic the quadratic, and its corresponding equation, we receive still greater aid from the study of the graph.

Here we have a clear representation of the change of the quantic due to a change in the variable; and with respect to the equation, we learn what is meant by its roots and by their being real and different, equal or imaginary, and why they must become imaginary in pairs. We have also a vivid picture of what is meant by the maximum or minimum of the function, and why it should have one or the other, and other things which we have not time to fully consider.

In conclusion, I believe firmly in the great good that might come to mathematical teaching by a proper union of the forms and symbology of algebra with the methods of geometry; a union not made for the mere purpose of illustration, but founded upon logical grounds, so that each might become an exposition of, and an aid to the other. The old cry of the logical sequence and the superior course of mental training, attributed to the works of the old Greeks, I have no faith in; for true mental training consists in the establishment of great prin-

ciples from broad generalizations. Isolated facts are in themselves like bricks scattered over the plain, and which require the art of the builder to gather them into the noble edifice. So education consists, not in studying detached particularities, but in learning the relations of things to one another, and in uniting the scattered facts of any science into one great whole.

Through your indulgence I have had the privilege of laying my views before you. I have preached what I believe, and I try to practise what I preach. It is your privilege to judge without prejudice.

NUMBER.

R. A. THOMPSON, B.A., HAMILTON.

The science of Number is one of the purest products of the human intellect. It is second only to that of speech in importance. Being intimately associated with the daily life of man, it had its origin in the remotest times, and has gradually unfolded with the growth of the human race, having been assisted in all ages by men of the highest mathematical attainments. To one genius we are indebted for the digits; to another for the value of the digit, according to the position it occupies in the number; to another for the decimal point.

Although its origin is as remote as that of geometry, we find, that while the latter science in the days of Euclid had become so perfect in its development, that, even at the present day, it can scarcely be improved; yet, on the other hand, the arithmetic of the ancients could not be dignified by the name of *science*.

The Pythagorean school claimed to have raised arithmetic above the bare needs of merchants; in other words, they attempted to develop it scientifically. Some "wiseacres" of the present day do not possess so much common sense as those ancient sages, as they wish to have it degraded into an art, to be used as an aid in commercial transactions only.

The ancients proved the theorems geometrically, and consequently made little or no advance in fractions. The first arithmetic, free from geometrical illustrations, was published by Nicomachus, a Jew, about the beginning of the second century of the Christian era. This work was revised in the sixth century by Boethius, whose book remained the standard text for nearly one thousand years.

Through the centuries which followed the publication of this work, we find nearly every scholar of prominence adding his mite to the development of the science. In fact it seemed necessary for each to publish a treatise on arithmetic before he died. Slowly, but surely, the science was being established, operations were assuming a fixed form, fractions were becoming better known, while the decimal point, possibly a printer's error, added great strength to the treatment of decimals.

Notwithstanding the length of time the science has been developing, a book recently published by D. Appleton & Co., strikes a death-blow at the very foundations of our ninteenth century arithmetic. The distinguished authors, J. A. McLellan, LL.D.,

principal of the Ontario Normal College, and John Dewey, LL.D., head professor of philosophy in Chicago University, would never consent to publish such a work if there was not just cause for so doing. The book is written in very forcible language, while the style is controversial.

In addition to placing clearly before the reader the proper method of teaching primary arithmetic, they keep exposing the fallacies in the popular arithmetic of the present day. The *system*, which seems to irritate these gentlemen, is that which Grube introduced into Germany half a century ago. His arithmetic was founded on a fallacy, the fixed unit, and elaborated by a device into a so-called philosophical treatise. I believe that Grube, who was undoubtedly in advance of his time, had he had a better chance of testing his system in the class room, would never have gone so far with it. He, as you all know, starts out with a beginner to teach him *one*, while throughout the course he always attempts to teach correct forms of speech. Ex. He holds up a block and asks, What have I here? Ans. You have a one, sir. The word "block" being carefully suppressed. By deception, shall I say, he hopes to teach the abstract unit *one*. After one is mastered, he proceeds in order with 2, 3, etc. You can teach a child to call a piece of candy a donkey if you like, but at the same time he knows better. While teaching the numbers, the four simple rules and fractions are taught. The whole system is unsound; you cannot force the recognition of abstract numbers in a child; he has to receive a certain amount of mental development first. The idea is slowly evolved by the child himself, stimulated by proper concrete examples.

The length of time required to teach the first ten numbers is a sufficient reason, even if the principles were sound, to drive such arithmetic from our schools. The average child must feel bored before he has spent many weeks on such *tom-foolery*, but, as he has an antidote in his games of marbles and baseball, he passively submits to the infliction, and learns, parrot-like, from repetition the combinations of the number 3, etc. He takes his medicine uncomplainingly, and after school hours he gets his ideas of number, and correct ideas, too, from his games. I venture to say that there are hundreds of boys who can count their marbles by the score, but who do not know the first ten numbers according to Grube. Can we not here find an explanation of the fact that girls, as a rule, display less aptitude than boys in arithmetic in after years, as they do not have the same chance in their games to become familiar with numbers? If, as it is intimated, this style of arith-

metic is taught to a great extent in our elementary schools, it is time that a "Sampson" should arise to "drive out the Philistines."

Teachers are told that their usefulness would be greatly enhanced if they were acquainted with psychology. The faithful teacher, accordingly, wishing to improve, takes to the study of this science. Before he has advanced very far in the subject he finds it necessary to enrol himself as an "idealist," a "dualist," a "materialist," or an "eclectic." After joining one of these schools he next has to satisfy himself as to whether the five senses are really five distinct and separate senses, or only differentiated parts of one common sense. He finds himself speculating on the probability of evolution; the class room seems to be forgotten, and with it the applications of psychology. The authors of this excellent book come forward and give us these applications as far as number is concerned. The book reminds me of a nut, which has a very sweet kernel but a very hard shell. If you crack the nut with a haphazard blow you will be able to gather up some small pieces of meat from amongst the fragments; if, however, you hit the nut squarely on top the shell falls off and leaves the meat unbroken. "*A fit morsel for the gods.*" My time has been so occupied with other necessary matters that I have not yet cracked the nut, *the psychology of number*, by the correct method. As I am a disciple of the authors in believing that a "vague whole should be made definite," I hope to get the whole of the kernel their book contains before I leave it.

The opening chapter points out clearly "What psychology can do for a teacher." Due importance is given to a teacher's aptitude, and the authors do not claim to make a teacher out of a fool, even though he may grasp some of the applications of psychology in the development of intellect.

Chapter II., headed the "Psychical Nature of Number," treats very fully and conclusively of the mental factor which must be present for the proper conception of number. You cannot by showing a child objects teach him number, but by a judicious selection of concrete examples, used in a constructive way, you stimulate his mind, which, through its own working, will gradually develop the number idea. In these examples the qualitative idea should be a minimum and the quantitative idea prominent.

It may be a bad system of ethics to teach a child to play marbles "for keeps," but he will get a good advance in correct ideas of number from the game. He is not materially concerned with the qualities of the marbles, but is intensely interested in the number he may win or lose.

If it were possible to have objects for the school-room in which qualitative properties were entirely wanting, abstraction might be easily taught. Such oddities not having an existence, we must approach them as nearly as possible if we wish eventually to reach the proper goal.

As teachers, we are cautioned against deceiving ourselves into believing that a child sees all that we see in a mental experience. A large number of text books for primary pupils are written from the standpoint of a finished scholar. The author presents the truths as he *now* sees them. He forgets the fact that these truths in his own case were gradually developed, and should be presented to a child in the same order in which he received them. If this latter principle were strictly followed there would be quite a change in the subject matter of primary text books.

Chapters III. and IV. treat of the "Origin of Number with Applications." The authors have made out a very strong case for their views, though, to the majority of us here, the matter has never been so explicitly presented, yet we are orthodox. They tell us "that number had its origin in the fact that there are limitations placed upon the exercise of our activities; on this account we naturally measure quantity. This measuring is only a means to an end, that of making a vague or unmeasured quantity a definite or measured quantity. The mind's chief activity should always be along this line, and the particular qualities of the quantity should be in the background. The measurement when accomplished gives rise to number. When the unit is accurately defined, then only can we consider that the "vague whole has been made definite." Before the whole is fully measured, we have, first, the undefined whole, then the separating of this whole into measured parts, and lastly, the counting and relating of these parts. Some authorities will not allow that the simple process of counting is a mode of measurement; but, from the authors' standpoint, which I believe to be correct, this view is erroneous. They hold that there are three stages of measurement, as follows (see page 47):

1. Measuring with an undefined unit.
2. Measuring with a unit itself defined by comparison with a unit of the same kind of quantity.
3. Measuring with a unit having a definite relation to a quantity of a different kind.

Counting in the ordinary sense applies to the first stage, while all our ordinary measurements by exact units belong to the second stage. The third stage is not so often employed, it is necessary if we wish to banish entirely the fixed unit theory.

In the beginning of chapter IV. one is somewhat startled at a definition of about eight lines, printed in italics, which we are told "we must clearly understand before going further, as it is the key to the entire treatment of number, as presented in the book." The authors happily follow up this definition with examples which bring out clearly the meaning of the eight lines referred to. In other words, they succeed in making "the vague whole definite."

The closing pages of this chapter are devoted to a criticism of two methods of teaching arithmetic, called "things" and "symbols." The arguments against both methods are convincing. Contrasts are made between those methods and the one advocated in the book, which ought to convert the most sceptical to the side of the authors.

It is shown that number should be taught, not with separate and distinct objects, completely isolated from one another, but that a constructive process should always be followed. There should always be a unity (or whole) capable of being separated into a number of units, and these units should be grouped again into the former unity.

Teachers are again cautioned against the use of inexact units, and are urged, and very wisely too, to use exact units, which are capable of measurement by other units.

In chapter V. we are given the definition of abstract number, it is simply a ratio. This view of number is not new. Euclid, Newton, Euler, and our own J. C. Glashan, have defined number as such in their works.

It seems to me that no other rational definition can be given for number, though scores of definitions have been proposed. The above definition has been objected to by some on account of the supposed difficulty there is in getting a pupil to comprehend it. This difficulty has been successfully attacked in the "Psychology of Number," and if its methods are consistently followed, much of this "straining at gnats and swallowing camels" will be dropped from our primary teaching.

The whole trend of teaching in the present day seems to be to make things *easy* for the pupil. This is all right if used in a legitimate way, but when it comes to violating a principle for this end, a decided stop should be put to it. Rather teach a pupil to face the difficulty and to overcome it, than to lead him around it by a false road. Where can we hope to build character better than by teaching the child to face the difficulty like a veteran? The chief end of education should be the development of character,

for education is empty without it aids in cultivating manhood in the pupil.

The authors maintain that the commutative law in multiplication should be taught as soon as possible, viz., that $4 taken 3 times equal $3 taken 4 times. There does not appear to be any valid reason against using this law in that sense. With this granted, we at once see a meaning to the operation usually performed in reducing say 12 yards to feet. Partition is driven from our text books and division takes its place.

This chapter is brought to a close by still further driving into oblivion the famous "Grube method." The correct method, by contrast, is brought prominently before the reader.

When sufficient drill has been given with concrete examples, we may then introduce, for practice, operations with abstract numbers; from time to time, however, the teacher should call attention to the use of number in defining quantity. The more advanced the pupil becomes the less the need for such reference. Eventually operations with pure symbols may be performed.

Chapters VI. and VII. treat on the arithmetical operations. The authors, while admitting that logically all the operations are implied even in counting, hold that this is no reason the operations should be taught simultaneously. They justly argue "that it is one thing to perform arithmetical operations in such a way as to involve the *use* of the correlative operation, and it is another thing to force these operations into consciousness, or to make them the express object of attention."

Addition and subtraction are the primary operations, seeing that they involve less mental complexity than multiplication and division. Multiplication, although having its origin in addition, should not be looked upon as simply a case of repeated addition, but should be taught so as to bring out the factor idea. Addition should be taught before the inverse operation of subtraction, and multiplication before its inverse division. In the two former operations the real nature of number is not so prominently brought out as it is in the two latter. In teaching each operation, however, we should work "from and within a whole," and no single operation should be exhausted before the others are introduced.

They say that "practical common sense and sound psychology agree in recommending first the emphasis on addition and subtraction, with incidental introduction to the more rhythmical and obvious forms of ratio, and gradual change of emphasis to the processes of multiplication and division."

On page 111 we find the following summary of the method advocated by the authors:

1. Counting is fundamental in the development of numerical ideas; as an act or operation with objects it is at first largely a mechanical process, but with the increase of the child's power of abstraction it gradually becomes a rational process.

2. From this (partly) physical or mechanical stage there is evolved the relation of more or less, and addition and subtraction arise.

3. The additions, through intuitions, of unequal (measured) quantities, which are thus conceived and expressed as a defined unity of so many ones, is an aid to the development of the times idea.

4. Continuance of such operations—appealing to both the eye and ear—brings out this idea more definitely.

5. Counting by ones, groups of twos, threes, etc., brings out still more clearly the idea of times.

6. Through repeated intuitions, sums become associated with times, the factor idea (times of repetition) displaces the part idea (aggregation), and multiplication as distinct from addition arises explicitly in consciousness.

Emphasis is laid on the mode of formation of the product or measured quantity in multiplication, as being obtained from two factors. One of these is the unit of measurement (multiplicand) and the other the number (multiplier) denoting times of repetition. The latter is a pure number, while the former, being itself a measured quantity, is called the derived unit, capable itself of being measured by another unit called the primary unit. With two such units present in multiplication, the process for either integers or fractions can be rationally performed.

Of all hair-splitting operations ever introduced into primary arithmetic "partition" is "*facile princeps.*" For example: Divide $1,765 equally among 37 men. We are told we cannot divide $1,765 by 37, but we must take 1-37 of $1,765. In the ultimate analysis how are we to get the result without dividing by 37? The authors, having established the truth of the "commutative law" in multiplication, experience no difficulty in explaining the operation of "partition" to be nothing more than ordinary division. They go so far as to claim that the devisor may be an abstract number, while the dividend is concrete. Examples on page 123 clearly illustrate the case.

From the definition given of number, the fraction idea is soon evolved, for by measurement with exact units the ratio idea (either

integral or fractional) is soon manifest. Improper and proper fractions will have no place in our arithmetics, and the simple term fraction will be sufficient, as a fraction, like an integer, is a number or the measure of a quantity.

The remaining chapters of the book are devoted to the applications of the principles laid down in the former chapters. Some of the methods are new, while others are old, but in many cases they are very suggestive. The *skeleton* of the Grube method is tossed around occasionally. The kindergarten is mildly admonished to make its methods harmonize a little more closely with rational primary instruction. The teacher in commercial arithmetic is urged to have that vague term per cent. properly interpreted by his class. I feel satisfied that the authors will find that as far as our high school teachers are concerned, this admonition was unnecessary. However, as the "Psychology of Number" is not confined, for its circulation, to mathematical teachers in Ontario, the suggestions on percentage will do a vast amount of good.

I would recommend every teacher of arithmetic to study this book; he will get more good out of a careful study of it than he can ever gain by solving arithmetical conundrums, or even conundrums which are found occasionally in higher mathematics.

The authors have made out a strong case for their system. The position they take is sound, and cannot theoretically be assailed. Personally, I am charmed with their method for teaching primary arithmetic. I am anxious to see the whole system tested in the class room, for if it is there found to be practicable, it will add greatly to the value of the book, and it will indeed be an "epoch-making book."

I must apologize for not doing this subject the justice it demands. By studying the book itself, you will, I am sure, succeed, if I have not, in making a "vague whole definite."

THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS UNDER THE NEW CURRICULUM.

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In selecting this subject, "The Teaching of Mathematics Under the New Curriculum," I was well aware that no fewer than three papers on mathematical teaching had been read before this association during the last three years. But it is necessary, as Mr. McDougall pointed out last year, that this matter should constantly be brought before this association, until the subject of mathematics receives as much prominence on the curriculum as it deserves.

I wish, in the first place, to point out the difficulties that there are in the way of teaching mathematics as efficiently as should be done to primary, junior leaving and senior leaving candidates. This paper will refer to candidates preparing for teachers' certificates only, and no reference will be made to matriculation candidates further than to point out that the number taking that course forms but a small percentage of the total number of candidates preparing for the different examinations.

The high schools, besides affording students an opportunity for obtaining a more liberal education than can be had at the public schools, have two distinct functions—the one to keep up a constant and plentiful supply of efficient public school teachers, the other to prepare candidates for the universities and learned professions. I do not say that the former is more important than the latter, but I do say that far more time must be spent upon it.

This year the primary candidates have to write on the same paper in arithmetic as the junior leaving. The first difficulty that confronts the teacher of mathematics is in trying to teach what was junior leaving work (and is) to primary students. It seems to me that the difficulty lies in taking such a subject as arithmetic and raising its standard without at the same time raising the standard of at least its kindred subjects, algebra and Euclid.

Junior leaving arithmetic is altogether too difficult—or should be—to teach to candidates as young as those generally found in the primary form. One of two things will certainly happen. Either the standard will be lowered or a much larger per cent. than usual will fail. It would be very much more in the interests of education that the candidates should fail than that the stan-

dard should be lowered; but the tendency will be altogether the other way. To lower the standard of the only examination that is required in that subject would have a most injurious effect upon our public schools. We cannot expect to get pupils well trained in that subject from the public schools unless we send out teachers who have a fair knowledge of the subject. But this is of minor importance when compared with the effect of the work of such teachers on the thousands of students who never reach our high schools.

Then there is another difficulty which the new curriculum presents to the mathematical teacher. The amount of time devoted to the teaching of mathematics under the new curriculum must, in fairness to the other subjects, be very much less than it was under the old. A junior leaving candidate, for example, must now spend more than three hours in the study of languages other than English for every one required under the old regulations. The time required for languages in the junior forms is at least doubled, and botany and physical science have both been made compulsory. All these preclude the possibility of getting more time for arithmetic in the junior forms; and the amount of time required for languages or science in the senior forms puts a narrow limit to the time for the study of mathematics.

A student who obtains a junior leaving certificate now, goes out to teach with a far more extended knowledge of languages and science than formerly, but his knowledge of arithmetic (and grammar) will certainly be less. And yet, of all the subjects in the public school course, are not these by far the most difficult to teach? Are there not far more candidates that fail on these subjects at the entrance examination than on all the others put together? And should not arithmetic—the only mathematical subject that thousands of pupils ever have an opportunity of knowing anything about, the *one* subject on the public school course that forms a first-class basis for pure logic—should not this subject be taught by teachers fairly conversant with it? Whether candidates can obtain the requisite knowledge of this subject in the primary form or not is the question in dispute.

Some, perhaps, may say that the new primary is better than the old, and that most of the teachers in the province are primary teachers, and therefore the standard has been raised in that subject rather than lowered. But we must not forget that all teachers, whatever their non-professional standing may be, are ranked as primary teachers until they have attended the normal school. There are good reasons for concluding that the great ma-

jority of the so-called primary teachers at the present time have passed the junior or the senior leaving examinations. The standard of the new primary will not be as high in English and mathematics as the old junior leaving.

We cannot expect that a candidate's attendance at a normal school will increase his knowledge of non-professional subjects. A normal school is not supposed to do high school work any more than the school of pedagogy is supposed to do university work. A candidate's knowledge, then, of a non-professional subject—arithmetic, for example—must on the whole be measured by the examination he is required to pass in that subject. The mathematical course in the III. Form is not in a very satisfactory condition. It is limited to two books of Euclid and square root, indices, surds and quadratics in algebra. Nothing new has been added, and arithmetic and ratio and simultaneous equations in algebra have been taken off. Without mentioning any additions that might be made, I would suggest as a more equitable division that the theory of divisors and ratio should be put on the III. Form course instead of the IV.

That the proportionate amount of time devoted to the study of mathematics under the new curriculum is very much less than that under the old no one will deny, and the question very naturally arises, "What were the arguments put forward that led to the changes being made?" I venture the following as a partial explanation of the change: During the last ten years the Education Department has put a good deal of stress on the qualifications of specialists in the different departments, and with the result, I believe, of largely increasing the efficiency of our high schools and collegiate institutes. But this regulation regarding specialists, though on the whole productive of much good, has brought one evil with it. The whole tendency is for the specialists of the different departments to strive to magnify the importance of their several departments, and generally at the expense of other departments. And the reason is plain. Besides the honor there is in being at the head of what is considered the most important department, there is a better chance of rising in the profession, because there will be more openings and better salaries in that department. The strife is not confined to high schools and collegiate institutes. We find it in the universities. Perhaps it came from the universities.

So strong has been this feeling that one cannot help seeing that it has had its influence in the formation of the new curriculum. The two departments, mathematics and English, are by far the

most important to the public school teacher, and yet, because no special effort was made to magnify these departments, they have been pared down to make room for others.

If there are so many subjects on the curriculum now, that no room can be found for arithmetic in a form higher than the primary, then let arithmetic be substituted for some subject that is not of so much importance to the public school teacher.

It seems to me, however, that both of the difficulties mentioned would be obviated if the ratio of the time spent on the study of mathematics to that spent on all the other subjects was made as great as it was under the old curriculum. This could be done by extending the course in mathematics as much as has been done in the other departments. And there is no reason why it should not be done.

In 1877 the number of third class teachers in the province was 3,926, and in 1894, 4,351—a very slight increase.

In 1877 the number of second class teachers was 1,304, and in 1894, 3,184—about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as many. The number of first class teachers in the public schools now is very little different from what it was in 1877 (250 and 262).

But, although the number of second class teachers has far more than doubled since 1877, and the number of primaries has remained practically the same, the average salary now is less than it was in 1877. The high schools and collegiate institutes can evidently supply far more teachers with the present standard of qualifications than the province requires. There are in round numbers 8,000 (8,110) public school teachers in the province. It is calculated that the average number of years that a teacher remains in the profession is seven. Last year 1,449 candidates obtained junior or senior leaving certificates at the midsummer examinations. This shows that the high schools would have no difficulty in supplying a sufficient number of teachers whose non-professional qualifications were at least up to the junior leaving standard. A junior leaving certificate, with mathematics brought up to the level of the other subjects, should be the lowest that would allow a candidate to enter a model school. A candidate must be eighteen years of age before he can obtain a teacher's certificate, and many advocate that the limit should be increased to twenty-one. There would be no hardship, then, in putting the junior leaving as the lowest standard for a teacher's certificate.

If we had no primary teachers in our public schools the tendency would be for the number of first class teachers to increase,

and the more we have there and the fewer in the high schools the better it will be for both schools.

If we, as mathematical teachers, wish to increase the desire for mathematical knowledge throughout the province, we must do so through the public school teachers. We should strive to create a liking for the subject, especially amongst those who are going to be teachers. And to do this, surely we should be allowed the privilege of teaching arithmetic to students who have reached the age at which they can appreciate the subject.

UNITS OF MEASUREMENT IN ARITHMETIC.

W. H. BALLARD, M.A., HAMILTON.

The subject of arithmetic as usually taught consists of an endless array of problems; a persistent counting over of dissimilar units that never leads to a definite summing up—a vague whole, which as a subject never becomes measured and definite.

Much will be done towards transforming this indefinite how-much into the definite so-much if not only the first lessons, but all "the lessons in arithmetic, are based on the practice of measuring in its varied applications."

As the subject increases in difficulty, the proper units to be selected will need keener discernment on the part of the pupil. The necessity of modifications in the unit to suit the ever-varying requirements of the problems under discussion will make constantly heavier and heavier demands on his resources, and his ability to select with due discrimination and adapt the proper means to the desired end will advance *pari passu* with his increasing knowledge of the subject.

The wonderful adaptability of the variable unit in the solution of problems will not only give the student increased power in attacking new difficulties, but by the ever-growing demands which it makes upon his resources will steadily but surely lead him to higher and higher planes of capacity for mathematical work.

Some central thought requires to run through the whole subject of arithmetic—some rallying standard must be set up about which all arithmetical operations will group themselves with a sort of centripetal tendency.

If something could be done towards this end a method and definiteness would attach themselves to many arithmetical operations which otherwise remain loose and purposeless, and whose performance merely serves to waste time and mental energy.

If pupils can be so instructed in this subject as to have not only a clear consciousness of what arithmetical operations really mean, but also to have always with them something to strengthen and perpetuate this, in the shape of a constant use of the proper mathematical names of the tools they are working with, a great step would be taken towards a definite delimitation of the subject, and its accurate measurement would soon follow.

The meaning and proper application of the terms unit and measure are as easily learned as those of hundreds of other words which children use with readiness and accuracy. In fact home experience with the pint or quart measure, the two-foot rule or the yardstick may have already given them such a start in the right direction that the teacher has only to give definiteness and purpose to their knowledge already acquired to keep them going steadily forward on the right track.

Even at the very inception of the child's school course, in the kindergarten, much is done that tends to lay a proper foundation on which to build in later years. The table at which he works is divided off into inch squares, and whenever he begins an exercise with his blocks he is directed to place his work so many inches from the side of the table. He is asked to count the children in the room by twos, fours, etc., as they are drawn up to march two deep or four deep. He handles a cube composed of eight smaller cubes, and subdivides this into twos and fours, counts the parts, and rebuilds the cube. He handles a cube composed of 27 smaller cubes, subdivides this into nines and threes, counts the parts, and rebuilds the cube.

Thus the child's training in definiteness and precision is begun on a proper basis and the elements are present which go to make a firm foundation for his after-training in number.

To what the child gets in the kindergarten might perhaps with advantage be added a little more scientific accuracy in adapting the nomenclature so as to aim more definitely at the purpose to be worked out in the pupil's later course.

Early in his public school course he ought to make acquaintance with some of the fundamental units as definite units for the purposes of measurement—he handles the pint, the quart, and other units for measuring capacity, and should actually apply them to their uses by measuring quantities of various kinds. He has the foot-rule as a unit of length sub-divided into smaller and still smaller units, and with it he may find the dimensions of his desk cover, his slate or his book, in inches, half inches and quarter inches, and the dimensions of the school-room in yards and in feet.

Even simple questions may be put in language more to the purpose sought. Thus, what is the quantity which contains the unit 47 times when the unit is 18 feet, $13, 36 years ? The question, "How many hours are there in a week ?" may be changed to read, "If the unit is 24 hours, and this unit is repeated seven times, what quantity will be produced?" A quantity contains

the unit, $18.75, thirteen times; what is the quantity? A quantity of wheat is measured by using as the unit as much wheat as will fill a bag that holds 2 bushels 1 peck; 56 of these bags are filled; how many bushels are there in the whole quantity? At 27 bushels to the acre, how many bushels would there be on 36 acres? What is the unit here? How many times has it to be repeated? What gives this particular unit?

A very little practice of this nature, introduced at brief intervals, would thoroughly familiarize the pupil with the necessary terms as well as show their proper application, and he would be able to use them as his working tools—they would be his own.

These terms are much more readily comprehensible in their meaning and varied uses than are those of multiplier, multiplicand, subtrahend, etc., which the pupil is expected to handle with a dexterity only surpassed by that exhibited in the use of marbles or the skipping rope in the early spring.

To exemplify all the successive steps in the application of units to the solution of questions in arithmetic by a sufficiently extended series of problems, progressive in difficulty, would exhaust much more time than I have at my disposal. But a few examples, selected pretty much at random, each exhibiting some peculiarity of treatment, may not be out of place:—

How much would 20 apples cost at 2 for 5 cents?

Here we are required to measure the 20 apples by means of the unit 2 apples, obtaining the number 10; then the unit of price, 5 cents, has to be repeated 10 times to produce the quantity required.

This will be seen to be a case of equality of ratios; the quantity, 20 apples, is first analyzed to discover the relation it bears to a certain unit, and then this ratio is applied to build up the quantity sought for, the unit of this new quantity being given.

This would seem like pulling one piece of mechanism to pieces in order to obtain materials out of which to construct another. The first is taken apart certainly enough; not to use the pieces, however, but rather to discover the plan of construction, and a new piece of workmanship is put together after this plan, but out of new materials.

In the case of what are called compound quantities, we have to consider a quantity which is the aggregate of several other quantities expressed with reference to different units, but these units are so related to each other that each of the larger is measured by the unit next smaller than itself, and, therefore, the

whole quantity, taken as an aggregate of quantities, may be reduced to a definite quantity, measured by any one of these several units.

Take, for example, 6 yds. 2 ft. 7 in. Here we have three quantities forming a sort of aggregate quantity, and although they represent the same kind of quantity, length, we must know that a yard may be measured by a foot, and a foot by an inch, before we are able to express this aggregate as a single measured quantity.

If a student is asked to measure these quantities by the same unit, and then perform the addition implied, the request should be as readily intelligible to him as to require him to reduce them to any the same denomination. And just here one cannot help thinking that if these several units were connected by the decimal relation, how easily all such quantities could be expressed with reference to any one of the units involved.

Suppose it is required to divide $30 equally among three persons. A convenient unit in this case would be the amount of money required to give each person a dollar, for evidently a simple repetition of this operation will exhaust the whole amount. It is clear also that the number of times this unit $3 is contained in the whole quantity of money is the same as the number of times each person is to receive a dollar. Here again we obtain the quantity we seek by measuring a different quantity, though in this case both are sums of money.

The usual examples in sharing are not so simple as this; but it will be seen that they do not differ in principle from that just given.

For instance, "Divide 30 apples between a boy and a girl in such a way as to give the girl 3 apples for very 2 given to the boy."

Here the unit of operation evidently deals with 5 apples in such a way as to give 3 to the girl and 2 to the boy, for all that remains to be done is to repeat this operation until the whole distribution is effected. The unit for the measurement of the girl's apples is 3 apples, and for that of the boy's, 2 apples; and each of these units is to be repeated as often as the unit 5 apples can be found in the whole quantity. The solution of this question, therefore, involves the following operations:

1. To find the measure of the whole quantity of apples with 5 apples as the unit; and

2. To find the quantity of which 2 (or 3) apples is the unit and 6 the numerical value.

As a still more complicated instance of the application of this principle, let me give the following:

The daily wages at a mill amounted to $97.20. In the mill there were 7 times as many women and twice as many men as there were boys. Each man received $1.90, each woman 90c., and each boy 70c. How many were there of each class? The unit for measuring the quantity of workers is evidently the group formed of 1 boy, 2 men, and 7 women, for by the conditions of the problem these several quantities are repeated the same number of times. The money required to pay this group for a day's work at the wages named is $10.80; and it is clear that the group of 2 men, 7 women, and 1 boy will be found as many times in the whole quantity of workers as their daily wages of $10.80 must be repeated to produce $97.20. The resulting 9 times, therefore, becomes the common multiplier of each of the units 2 men, 7 women, 1 boy, in order to obtain the whole number of each.

When these simple cases have been disposed of and the point is reached in the pupils' progress at which to take up the measurement of areas and volumes, occasion may be taken to make some approach to a scientific definition of the terms unit, quantity, measure, number, ratio, etc. Some account can be given of the extreme care that has had to be taken in preparing, constructing, or defining the three fundamental units, and how all these units are based ultimately, theoretically at least, on the unit of time, and that nearly all the quantities with which physical science has to deal can be expressed either directly or indirectly in terms of these three fundamental units, and how the units for the measurement of surface and volume are directly derived from that of length.

The introduction of the measurement of surface and volume furnishes perhaps the best possible series of examples of the necessity, nature and use of definite, accurate units of measurement. New light can be let in on the ever-recurring question of carpeting, while questions on brick work and kindred subjects will furnish a veritable pleasure ground for the mathematical treatment of the theory and practice of measuring.

I shall deal with but one of the many examples which this part of the subject may be made to furnish.

"A rectangle 3 feet wide contains 18 square feet; find its length?"

By cutting off from one end a strip a foot wide we see that the number of times the area of this strip is contained in the

whole area will decide for us the number of times a linear foot is contained in the length of the rectangle, for by taking away this strip we diminish the length of the rectangle by one foot, and this operation can be repeated as often as one linear foot is contained in the length, or as often as the area 3 square feet is contained in the whole area.

This will be noticed as another example of equality of ratios, for we first found the ratio between two quantities of area, and then applied the ratio so found to find the second of two quantities of length.

To find one dimension of a rectangular solid when two dimensions and the volume are given; and to find the area of a face of a rectangular solid when one dimension and the volume are given, furnish very interesting examples, especially the latter, of the application of the unit of volume.

In the solution of problems arising from business transactions we find innumerable opportunities for calling attention to the use of units of measurement, but a couple will answer our purpose:

1. "Divide \$1,440 into three parts, so that 10 per cent. of the first, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the second, and 16 2-3 per cent. of the third may be all equal." Take 10 per cent. of the first as the unit of measurement. Then this unit is contained 10 times in the first part, 8 times in the second, and 6 times in the third, or 24 times in the whole quantity; thus the ratio of the unit to the whole quantity is found. This determines the unit and then the three parts sought for can be constructed.

2. "A dealer sold two horses at the same price. On one he lost 25 per cent., and on the other he gained 25 per cent. His total loss was \$9.60. Find the cost of each horse."

Here we have slightly more difficulty in fixing upon a suitable undetermined unit, changing it at pleasure until it finally meets our purpose.

We first express the cost price and selling price of the horses thus:

100	75	4	3
100	125	4	5

The first horse costing 4 units and selling for 3; the second horse costing 4 units and selling for 5. But these numbers are not satisfactory, the selling price being represented by 3 and 5, instead of being equal. The first unit must therefore be taken one-fifth as

large, raising the numbers to 20 and 15; and the second unit one-third as large, raising the second numbers to 12 and 15, thus:

20	15
12	15
—	—
32	30

Now, since the selling prices are equal, all these numbers represent so many multiples of the same unit. Hence the whole selling price is 30, and the buying price 32, making the loss equal to 2 of the units with which we are working. But this loss is stated to be $9.60, therefore the hitherto undetermined unit is found to be $4.80, whence the required cost prices are at once known.

In finding present worth, either by simple or compound interest, we set up a standard of measurement which is a group of quantities connected by the conditions of the question under consideration, but expressed in the simplest numbers, preferably in whole numbers. Thus the amount of $100 for two years at 10 per cent. compound interest is $121, and the interest $21. These three quantities being connected by the conditions stated will serve to solve any problem occurring under these conditions, and will give us any two of the quantities, interest, present worth (or principal), and amount where the third one is known.

So, too, with our old friend, the double commission question, which has been recurring with more or less regularity for the last 20 years or more. At 3 per cent. for selling and 2 per cent. for buying we have the quantities $102, $97 and $5 ready to measure, price of goods sent, price of goods bought, or commission respectively. In fact, we may regard them as conjointly constituting a unit to solve every question involving these same rates of commission, no matter which of the three quantities chances to be given.

I shall close with two questions which yield readily to the application of measurement where the proper units are selected.

The first is from the last year's primary paper: "A rectangular field, whose length is 4-3 of its width, contains 2 acres 112 square rods. Find the length of a diagonal."

In this case the length of the rectangle is evidently 4 units and the width 3, the unit being as yet undetermined, and, therefore, the area of the rectangle is 12 square units, which furnishes the key to the solution for the area of the rectangle, when referred to a square rod as the unit, is 432, therefore our square unit contains 36 square rods, and one side of it is 6 rods long, and therefore a diagonal, which contains 5 of these units, is 30 rods in length.

The next is somewhat difficult to treat arithmetically, unless attacked with due caution.

A person ordered \$150 to be distributed among some poor people, but before the distribution had taken place two more unexpectedly appeared, in consequence of which the former received \$2.50 each less than they otherwise would have done. How much did each receive?

If the money to be divided had been \$75, the unexpected coming of *one* more would have made the same difference (2.50) in the share of each. Now, if we make this \$2.50 the unit of money, we shall have the \$75 expressed by the number 30, and therefore we must have either 5 persons receiving each 6 units of money, or 6 persons receiving each 5. Therefore the quantity of money payable to each is 5 times \$2.50, or \$12.50, or would have been \$15 had the other two not appeared. The number of men corresponding to these are, of course, 12 and 10 respectively.

HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

W. J. ROBERTSON, B.A., LL.B., ST. CATHARINES.

For some months past the Anglo-Saxon world at least has been excited over the revival and extension of a doctrine or theory which has hitherto been considered, even by American authorities, an utterly untenable principle in international law. This doctrine, named, as you all know, after James Monroe, President of the United States from 1816 to 1824, has a history. It is this history, together with the position of this theory in international law, which I propose to discuss briefly. And here, I may say, I find my task at once easy and difficult. *Easy*, because so much has been written on the question during the last three months; *difficult*, because little or nothing new can be said on the subject. Nevertheless, it is possible that some of you may have not had the leisure or opportunity to give the matter much attention, and it will be to these that my remarks will have special application.

First, as to the genesis and history of this now most famous doctrine.

The United States began its career as a nation under circumstances with which you are all familiar. The struggle with the Mother Country, and the assistance given by France, gave the young Republic a strong bias against England, and an equally strong bias towards her great enemy, France. French ideas of equality and fraternity among all classes of men moulded and permeated the opinions of early American statesmen, such as Jefferson, Madison and Monroe. The condition of Europe during the last years of the eighteenth century was such as to give encouragement to those who fondly hoped for the emancipation of the masses from the thraldom of monarchical government. With the spread of the democratical principles enunciated by the French Republicans all classes in the United States were in sympathy. To them it was a compliment to the young American Republic, and an endorsation of the stand the American people had taken in throwing off the yoke of the Mother Country. Hence we find that a deep interest was excited in the United States in the events that crowd the pages of the history of Europe at this period. The triumph

of republican principles everywhere was for a time confidently expected, and their apparent defeat when Republican France became the bond-slave of the Emperor Napoleon, and when the liberties of Europe were placed under the iron heel of the conqueror and tyrant, left a deep impression upon the minds of Americans.

The downfall of Napoleon in 1815, followed as it was immediately by a rearrangement and reorganization of Europe; a reorganization in which the rights of the people of Europe were scarcely considered by the monarchs and statesmen who carried out the "healing and settling," was another blow which went to prove that the day for the complete triumph of republican principles was still far removed.

The United States then seemed to be the one home of democracy, and the preservation of this refuge for oppressed humanity, the first duty of its citizens. Nevertheless, in spite of the interest taken by the United States in European affairs, it seems to have been the policy of all the early Presidents to occupy a position of dignified neutrality. It is probably true that in the desperate struggle which England waged for twenty odd years against the colossal power of France and her allies; a struggle in which the very existence of European, and therefore of American, freedom was at stake, the sympathy of the United States was with the enemy of liberty, and against its most gallant and staunch defender. But the share the United States took in this struggle was confined to sympathy so long as her individual rights were not involved. The war of 1812, of so great interest to all Canadians, was, as we all know, provoked by the high-handed proceedings of England on the seas towards American vessels and seamen. In Dr. Gilman's Life of Monroe there is a summary given of the attitude taken by the United States presidents prior to Monroe, with respect to foreign affairs. There is not even a hint of the principle soon to be known as the "Monroe Doctrine." There are, however, several very distinct declarations from Washington, Adams (J.), Jefferson and Madison, to the effect that the true policy of the United States is to maintain a dignified neutrality in the struggles and complications so frequently arising in European affairs. At the same time it is recognized that the United States has a special set of interests to guard, if her dearly-bought independence was not to be sacrificed. This, however, was a very different attitude from that taken by Monroe in his famous message in 1823; while Monroe's position is very far removed from that recently assumed by Secretary Olney and President Cleveland, and endorsed by the United States Congress.

Let us now review the circumstances which led to the enunciation of the "Monroe Doctrine." The downfall and permanent exile of Napoleon in 1815 was followed by a congress of the great powers of Europe, to restore or rearrange the boundaries of the different states. Of these great powers, perhaps no one claimed and received so much credit for the destruction of Napoleon's supremacy as Russia. Russia at this period was governed by the Emperor Alexander, a man of curiously mingled qualities. Just at this time he was much under the influence of one Madame Krüdener, who filled his mind with all manner of Quixotic and chivalrous ideas. Of these one took a very strong hold, and through him found expression in an alliance between the monarchs of Russia, Austria and Prussia, and subsequently of France, to bring about a golden age in Europe—an age in which the principles of Christianity would be recognized and practiced. This Holy Alliance, as it was called, bound the monarchs mentioned to "exercise their power according to the principles of religion, justice, and humanity; to afford one another on all occasions aid and help; to treat their subjects and soldiers with fraternal feeling, and to regard their people as members of a great Christian family, whose guidance was entrusted to them by God." Three years later a congress of the five great powers met at Aix-la-Chapelle for the purpose, among other things, of removing the army of occupation of the allies from French territory. But an opportunity such as this afforded was not to be lost by the Kings of Russia, Austria, Prussia and France. England was represented at this congress by her ambassador, and through him seems to have given a provisional assent to the forming of an alliance of the great powers for the purpose of repressing revolutionary movements of a popular character among the people of Europe. This new alliance was not necessarily the outcome of the Holy Alliance, but it shewed pretty clearly what, under vague, misleading and high-flown phrases, the professed advocates of Christian government meant when they proposed to rule in accordance with Christian principles.

Very soon after this congress a practical illustration was given of what might be expected from the Christian Majesties of the Holy Alliance. Spain had, in 1812, during the enforced absence of the Spanish King, obtained a liberal constitution, known as the Constitution of Cadiz. The return of the Spanish king, after the downfall of Napoleon, led to a conflict between him and his people, which resulted in Spain adopting the Constitution of Cadiz, much to the chagrin of the royalistic and reactionary ele-

ments of the nation. Naples and Sardinia both followed the example of Spain, and adopted its constitution.

Such a state of affairs was decidedly alarming to the members of the Holy Alliance, and in consequence, a congress was summoned at Troppau in Silesia, in the October of 1820. The powers held a brief conference, and then rose to meet again the same year at Laybach in Styria. Five great powers were represented by kings or ambassadors; besides a host of minor rulers, the King of Naples included, appeared to advance their claims. All of the great powers save England were resolved to crush out the popular movements in Spain, Naples and Sardinia. England protested against the policy of interfering with the people of Italy in their efforts to obtain constitutional government; and her position was all the more remarkable because Britain's Ministry at that time was well known to be anything but favorable to liberalism in any form. But England's protest was unavailing, and an Austrian army was sent into Italy in 1821, which crushed the revolutionary party in Naples and Sardinia after a brief struggle, and restored all the absolutism, and along with it all the evils of the old regime. The sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia endeavored in a circular to justify this interference with the internal affairs of other states. They contended that there was a vast conspiracy against all established power, which it was necessary to suppress. The British Government, while it acknowledged a right of interference in certain cases, denied that "this right should receive a general and indiscriminate application to all revolutionary governments." The right of interference, in other words, was to be the exception, not the rule.

The royal conspirators next turned their attention to Spain, where a royalist insurrection had, in 1821, broken out in the north, in favor of abolishing the free constitution of Cadiz. The rebels were aided by France, from which they drew both supplies and men.

Another congress was called at Verona, in 1822, for the purpose of interfering with an armed force in the affairs of Spain. At this congress the Duke of Wellington, the British envoy, expressed in strong terms the decision of his government not to share in the coercion of Spain. In spite of this outspoken protest, the other great powers resolved on interference, and France was assigned the task of crushing out the budding freedom of her long-oppressed neighbor. This congress of Verona did more than discuss the propriety of restoring absolutism in Spain. It agitated the desirability of bringing into subjection to Spanish authority

her colonies in South America, which had taken advantage of the Peninsular War to throw off the yoke of the Mother Country, and establish themselves as independent republics. France, it was thought, meditated giving her aid to Spain to recover these colonies, with a view to her own aggrandizement in the New World. The danger to the newly-freed Spanish colonies was great, and the extension of French influence in the New World was a menace alike to England and the United States.

At that time Mr. George Canning was the leading spirit in British foreign affairs, and he had assumed an attitude of pronounced opposition to the policy of the Holy Alliance in interfering with the internal affairs of other nations. Mr. Canning recognized the necessity of preventing the Alliance from taking action to coerce the Spanish colonies; but as England stood alone among the great powers in the policy of non-interference, Canning endeavored to enlist the support of the United States. He represented to Mr. Rush, the United States Ambassador in London, that his country's interests were likely to be imperilled if the Holy Alliance should succeed in forcing the Spanish colonies to return to their allegiance to the Mother Country. At first Mr. Rush was unwilling to move in the direction indicated by Mr. Canning, as the policy of the United States was to remain neutral in the conflicts continually arising among the European nations. But Mr. Canning convinced him that the interests of the United States were at stake in the matter, and Mr. Rush then communicated to his own Government Mr. Canning's proposal that the United States should enter its protest against the Holy Alliance using force to destroy the independence of the Spanish American republics.

James Monroe, the President at this time, had for his Secretary of State and chief adviser in foreign affairs, John Quincy Adams. The subject of making a formal declaration against European interference against Spanish America was seriously debated in President Monroe's Cabinet, and Monroe was so uncertain as to the line of action he should take that he consulted among others Jefferson and Madison, ex-Presidents, and his political friends. The outcome of these anxious deliberations was the "Monroe Doctrine," which might, perhaps, be better named the "John Quincy Adams Doctrine."

With considerable hesitancy on the part of Mr. Monroe, the following passage was put into the Presidential message, which was sent to Congress in December, 1823:—"That we should consider any attempt on the part of the allied powers to extend their

system to any part of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered, and shall not interfere; but with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European power in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States." Shortly afterwards a resolution embodying the principles of these principles was moved in Congress, but it never came to a vote. The President's message, added to the firm stand taken by the British Government, served to prevent any action being taken against the independence of the Spanish colonies.

But in the same message occurred a passage which is often taken as part and parcel of the "Monroe Doctrine," although it really deals with a very distinct matter. The Russian Government had laid claim to the control of the North-west or Pacific Coast of North America, on the ground of prior discovery and occupation. Both Britain and the United States were interested in refusing recognition of the Russian claims, and concerted action between the two Anglo-Saxon nations was equally to the advantage of both. But this harmony of action was seriously disturbed by President Monroe inserting in his message the following wholly indefensible statement:—"The occasion has been judged proper for asserting as a principle, in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." It is quite evident that this second doctrine has no necessary connection with the first, although both occur in the same message and both refer to the United States interests. It is certain that while Mr. Canning approved of the first, the real "Monroe Doctrine," he strongly objected to the second. What meaning was attached to the "Monroe Doctrine" by the American statesman who probably had most to do in framing the famous message, is shown by the following extract from a statement by John Quincy Adams (now President) in 1825, when referring to a proposed congress of American republics at Panama:—"An agreement between all the parties represented at the meeting that each will

guard by its own means against the establishment of any future European colony within its borders, may be found desirable. This was more than two years since announced by my predecessor to the world as a principle resulting from the emancipation of both the American continents." Such is the explanation furnished by Mr. Adams, who was Mr. Monroe's Secretary of State, and probably drew up his message. But it seems that even this mild and moderate view of the rights of the United States failed to receive the endorsation of the House of Representatives, for a resolution was carried before that body that the United States "ought not to become parties to any joint declaration for the purpose of preventing the interference of any of the European powers with their independence or form of government; or to any compact for the purpose of preventing colonization upon the continent of America." On this subject it is remarked by the eminent American authority on international law—Dr. Woolsey :—

"On the whole, then, (1) this policy is not a national one. The House of Representatives, indeed, had no right to settle questions of policy or of international law. But the Cabinet had as little. (2) The principle of resisting attempts to overthrow the liberties of the Spanish republics was one of most righteous self-defence, and of vital importance. But the other principle of prohibiting European colonization was vague, and if intended to prevent Russia from stretching her borders on the Pacific further to the south, went far beyond any limit of interference that has hitherto been set up. What right had the United States to control Russia in gaining territory on the Pacific or planting colonies there when they themselves had neither territory nor colony to be endangered within thousands of miles ?"

In 1848, when Mr. Polk was President, there was an attempt made to give the Monroe Doctrine a new and extended meaning. The Government of Yucatan, it was announced in the President's message, had offered the dominion over that country to Great Britain, Spain and the United States. The President, therefore, urged Congress to take measures to prevent it from becoming a colony or a part of the territory of any European nation, giving as his reason the principle laid down by Mr. Monroe in 1823. It is here worthy of notice that Mr. Polk confined his objections to the acquisition of territory in North America alone. But, whatever support the Monroe Doctrine may have received from the endorsation of President Polk is largely negatived by the atti-

tude taken by Mr. Calhoun, the famous Southern statesman. Discussing the President's message, he declared that the Yucatan case was very different from that which led to Mr. Monroe's interference; further, that the declarations of Mr. Monroe could not be accepted as the settled policy of the United States, and were made without any threats of resistance. The principle, he said, that "lies at the bottom of the President's recommendation is, that when any power on this continent becomes involved in internal warfare, and the weaker side chooses to make application to us for support, we are bound to give them support for fear the offer of the sovereignty of the country may be made to some other power and accepted. It goes infinitely and dangerously beyond Mr. Monroe's declaration. It puts it in the power of other countries on this continent to make us a party to all their wars."

If, then, the comparatively modest claims of President Polk regarding the right of the United States to interfere in the affairs of North American States were likely to lead to serious international entanglements, what must be thought of the extraordinary pretension of Secretary Olney and President Cleveland?

Mr. Calhoun's contention that the Monroe Doctrine had never been accepted by the United States as a national principle to be enforced, if necessary, by a resort to arms, is fully borne out by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850. By this treaty, which deals with the proposed construction of a ship canal across Central America, to connect the Atlantic and the Pacific, the Governments of Great Britain and the United States agree that neither will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over the said ship canal, or occupy or fortify, or colonize or assume or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito Coast, or any part of Central America, etc. The whole of the provisions of this treaty, for brevity's sake, are not quoted; but the tenor of them is that the United States did not claim, nor receive, any special jurisdiction in the affairs of Central America. In other words, the Monroe Doctrine was not recognized as a principle of international law.

It will thus be seen that the Monroe Doctrine was never accepted by the United States as a principle of international law; much less was it recognized by other nations. In fact, the American authority already quoted, Woolsey, does not hesitate to condemn it in the strongest terms. "To lay down," says he, "the principle that the acquisition of territory on this continent

by any European power cannot be allowed by the United States would go far beyond any measures dictated by the system of balance of power, for the rule of self-preservation is not applicable in our case; we fear no neighbors." Doubtless it is true that with growing power, and, we fear, with growing arrogance, the United States have become more and more disposed to interfere in the disputes that have arisen between the European states and American peoples. The action of Louis Napoleon in forcing the Republic of Mexico to accept for a time an Emperor was viewed with strong disfavor by the people of the United States; nevertheless the form of Government of Mexico was changed without the United States vindicating their so-called rights by an appeal to arms. The same disposition to interfere, or give covert aid, has been shown in her dealings between Spain and her revolting possession, Cuba. But the wiser and controlling elements in United States politics have generally been found on the side against active interference in the quarrels between European powers and American States. Lord Salisbury, then, when he repudiated the Monroe Doctrine as a principle of international law, was simply expressing a fact that, as I have shown, is fully recognized by the best American authorities, not to mention the opinion of standard European writers.

But the recent claims advanced by the United States are far in advance of anything ever propounded by Monroe or Polk. Britain is not seeking to force her system of government on any American State; she is not seeking to establish new colonies on any part of this continent; she is not even meddling with the affairs of any North American people. On what ground, then, can President Cleveland invoke the Monroe Doctrine as a justification for his interference with the boundary dispute in South America? At first sight the ground is not apparent; nor is it possible after the closest investigation to say that it is well taken. But there is, by a forced construction of the doctrine, a relation between the present circumstances in Venezuela and that under which Monroe thought interference justifiable. Britain claims certain territory which Venezuela asserts belongs to her. From the standpoint of President Cleveland, Britain's strength enables her to put forth unreasonable and fictitious claims, which she can enforce regardless of all right and justice. By such a line of action a weak nation like Venezuela might be robbed of much of her territory, and the possessions of Britain correspondingly increased. What Britain is doing, or proposes to do, may be done

by France or Spain, and thus, under cover of a mere dispute over boundary lines, European influence in America might be indefinitely extended.

It is not my purpose to argue the justice or injustice of the Monroe Doctrine—that has been done so well in Lord Salisbury's reply, in Prof. Shortt's excellent paper recently published, and in Hon. David Mills' admirable and almost exhaustive article in the Canadian Magazine for February, that I may stand excused. But one is surprised at the attitude taken by a portion of the British press and by some of the British publicists regarding this Monroe Doctrine, and the recent American claims based thereon. To the Canadian who has studied the history of the relations at various times of the United States to Great Britain and Canada, it is bewildering to find that a powerful element in British politics still persists in closing its eyes to the fact that hostility towards England, veiled or unveiled, has been the attitude of our neighbors since the Revolution ending in 1783. The attempts made in many quarters to prove that American sentiment is friendly to England, and that "blood is thicker than water," in this case, as in others, while entirely honorable to the individuals and associations engaged in the pleasant work of reconciliation, are based on a radically false view of what both the history of the past and the experience of the present teaches. The "Monroe Doctrine" in its modern form is simply an expression of the hostility of the majority of the United States people to England and her American colonies. For the Mother Country to yield to her monstrous claims at this time may secure a temporary peace, and may gratify that powerful class in Britain whose commercial and financial interests are so closely interwoven with those of the United States. But the cessation of American insults and threats of war would be bought at the very dear price of Britain's dishonor, without securing what all most ardently desire—the establishment of permanently good relations between the two great English nations of the globe. While all who reflect on the horrors of war must shrink from the very thought of a conflict between nations so closely bound together by common interests, nevertheless Canadians, at least, must feel that a policy of resolute and calm resistance to all claims based on the Monroe Doctrine is the policy which will best secure the interests of the British empire, and at the same time put a stop to that spirit of perpetual and insolent aggression which unfortunately is cultivated in the United States in the joint interests of patriotism and party politics.

THE EARLY SCHOOLS OF NIAGARA.

MISS JANET CARNOCHAN, NIAGARA.

For this term I would claim a broader meaning than that generally accepted. Hugh Miller, in his "Schools and Schoolmasters," goes far beyond the school-room and its pedagogues. We read of the school of adversity, of the school of necessity, each of which gives its peculiar training, and perhaps no place in Ontario has from its early history given greater scope for development of character than Niagara. Many who came here were people of fixed ideas, who had suffered and were ready to suffer, to maintain their opinions. To be subjected to a life of toil and hardship, to know that every turf may be or has been a soldier's sepulchre; that the soil has been watered with the blood of our forefathers, all this gives a peculiar environment, which no doubt told. So shifting has been the population, so many records burnt, that we find the task difficult; but, by dint of newspaper items, here and there an extract from the archives of Canada, some valuable old letters and documents, township records, account books, the tales of "the oldest inhabitant," who tells the story of his father, we are able to piece out a tolerably correct sketch of our "Schools and Schoolmasters"; it must be confessed with gaps here and there, which it is hoped may yet be filled, now that our historical societies have really set to work in earnest. There were private schools and garrison schools, the district grammar school and the district common school, separate schools, church schools, ladies' schools, classical schools, night schools, boarding schools, schools for colored children, dame schools, the fort school, and many others.

In the diary of Col. Clark, father of Dr. Clark, St. Catharines, he speaks of attending the garrison school at Fort Niagara in 1790 (the fort was not given up to the Americans till 1796). When he came to the British side of the river the best teacher he went to was Richard Cockerell, an Englishman. In the Niagara newspaper of 1797 is advertised an evening school. "Writing, arithmetic, bookkeeping taught; four shillings a week. Practical or speculative mathematics, eight dollars; hours from six to eight." In removing to Ancaster he recommends Rev. Mr. Arthur, who teaches Latin and Greek. Again in 1803 Mr. Cockerell has an excellent mathematical school in Niagara, the charge

one dollar a month. G. A. Talbot, who wrote a work on Education in Upper Canada in 1818, says there were only two schools of any note in Upper Canada, that of Strachan and that of Cockerell, which is high praise for the latter.

Enough praise has not been bestowed upon Governor Simcoe for the noble part he played in providing educational advantages for the new country he came to govern. In different letters from Navy Hall, Niagara, we see how much and how deeply he had thought on the subject. On 23rd November, 1792, in a letter to Mr. Secretary Dundas, he speaks of providing for the education of the rising generation; and in 1793, to the Bishop of Quebec, speaks of the Sabbath being almost unknown to the children, who are searching for amusements on the Lord's day. Again, to the Duke of Portland in 1795, he urges the necessity of a school in Niagara, but is coldly told, with sublime disregard of distances, that those who wish to study Greek and Latin may go to Montreal, Quebec or Nova Scotia, all the subjects necessary being reading, writing, accounts and mensuration.

In 1798 Mr. D. W. Smith offers his house for sale for a free grammar school for the Home District, with four acres around it and 160 acres for endowment, but its position in range of the guns from Fort Niagara was objected to. In 1802 Mr. and Mrs. Tyler, between Niagara and Queenston, advertise "a regular day and night school; children from four years of age, both sexes; price in proportion to the kind of instruction; for young ladies all that is necessary for their sex to appear decently and be useful in the world, and in all that concerns housekeeping. Mrs. Tyler, having been bred in the line of mantua making, will receive and do her endeavours to execute her work in the neatest manner," which advertisement is really more comprehensive than it at first sight appears.

In the record book of St. Andrew's church, commencing 30th September, 1794, there are frequent references to teachers in connection with the church, thus: "September 2nd, 1802, the Rev. John Young, from the city of Montreal, was engaged at one hundred pounds, Halifax currency, and a dwelling place, also to have the teaching of a school exclusive of his salary as a preacher of the Gospel." On the 13th April, 1805, a meeting authorizes an additional sum of £50 to be given if the clergyman may be inclined to teach thirteen scholars in the Latin, Greek and mathematics." Why thirteen we do not know. In 1797 steps were taken in Parliament to establish four grammar schools, one of which was Newark, now Niagara. By an Act passed in 1807, £100 was to be

allowed for each district. It has been claimed for Mr. Cockerell that he was the first teacher of the Niagara Grammar School, while others have named the Rev. John Burns; but we may see that while Mr. Cockerell taught there in 1797 and 1803, it could not have been the District Grammar School, since that was not founded; but his school was no doubt what corresponded to the grammar school, since he taught mathematics and classics. The Rev. John Burns preached in St. Andrew's church, and sometimes at Stamford, from 1805 to 1818 at intervals. Till lately there were several living who were his pupils, both before and after the war of 1812. He was taken prisoner, and it is said preached to his captors. A sermon delivered by him in Stamford Presbyterian Church, 3rd January, 1814, on Thanksgiving Day, shortly after the Americans had left Niagara and a few months before the hard-fought battle of Lundy's Lane, has been reprinted by the Lundy's Lane Historical Society. The text is Prov. xxiv. 21, and the sermon shows powers of reasoning, a sturdy loyalty, sound scholarship, and Christian feeling. He quotes the brave words of Nehemiah: "Be not afraid of them; remember the Lord who is great and terrible, and fight for your brethren, your sons and your daughters, your wives and your houses."

Now comes a blank of several years. when we learn from contemporary writers the schools were closed, the town in the hands of the enemy, the British forces around in a circle, and again a heap of ruins representing the homes from which children had gone forth to these schools. Thus records would be lost, and for some time indeed there were no schools to be recorded.

In 1822 the Rev. Thomas Creen opened a private school, and afterwards for some years taught the Niagara District Grammar School; also giving private lessons to young law students. He was an excellent classical scholar, an Irishman, but educated at Glasgow University. Many of his pupils afterwards became distinguished men, as Miles O'Reilley, Q.C., Judge Burns, Judge Miller; and several of his pupils placed a handsome tablet to his memory in St. Mark's church, of which he had become the rector, succeeding Mr. Addison. In the year 1823 there were eighty-five names on the register, while in 1827, from rival schools and the removal of a regiment, there were only eighteen. In the Niagara *Gleaner* of June 23, 1823, appears an account of the examination of the Niagara District Grammar School, and the names of the trustees, Rev. R. Addison, Wm. Dickson, Rev. W. Leeming, Chippewa; Ralfe Clench, Robert Ker, J. Muirhead, who expressed their approval; and the next year the same paper speaks of forty pupils, and

gives the number studying Xenophon, Horace, Cicero, Virgil, Sallust, etc. In 1826 Rev. T. Creen advertises in *Gleaner* that the school would reopen in August, and in the same paper the Rev. —. Handcock, A.B., graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, advertises to open an academy for Greek, Latin, etc., in Butler's Barracks, he being assistant chaplain to the forces in Niagara. The next year Rev. John Fraser, minister of the Presbyterian congregation, proposes to open a class for the various branches of the literary profession. There must thus have been three schools teaching classics. We who remember the day when mathematics was *the* important study, and who also remember that in the words quoted by our president, "a king arose who knew not Joseph," and English was given a more important place, recall with interest the days when Homer and Horace reigned supreme. In 1823 Mr. Creen advertises that the District School is about to employ an assistant and accommodate boarders. In 1823 the report of the Niagara District School, T. Creen, teacher, hopes, in rather magniloquent language, "that literature, at once the blessing and ornament of society, will flourish here with increasing bloom and shine in its generous lustre." To open 7th July.

Niagara is the fourth oldest high school in the province, having been founded in 1808; the three first being Cornwall, Kingston, York. It has been called by different names, first the Niagara District Grammar School, next the Niagara County Grammar School, next the Senior County Grammar School (on this the Rev. T. Philipps always insisted), then the Niagara High School. The seal has these words, "Niagara County Grammar School, established 1808, incorporated 1853," and has on it the figure of a bell, quill pen, inkbottle, globe, telescope. It may be said that in later days the existence of many of the small high schools depended on this school, as when a bill was about to pass through the Legislature, the Hon. S. H. Richards, who was in the Cabinet, and was the member for Niagara, seeing that his constituency would lose its high school, had such changes made in the bill as would prevent this, and thus saved many schools from extinction. Honor to whom honor is due.

A circular signed by Ralfe Clench seems to demand what we would now consider a work of supererogation. It is a system of Bible distribution, so paternal as to be resented in our days. The teachers are to inquire by going from house to house, if the settlers possess a Bible, and in what condition; if not able to pay for one, the name to be sent to Samuel Street at the Falls Mills, Secretary of the Niagara Bible Society. There is also the form

of certificate from trustees to teacher to receive salary, stating that he has taught the school six months, is a British subject, had not less than twenty scholars, and has demeaned himself to "our satisfaction."

In 1817 were issued rules for the government of the common schools in the District if Niagara, ten in number. As Dr. Hodgins succinctly remarks, "As compared with the comprehensive and elaborate ones of to-day, those of eighty years ago make up for their lack in this respect by their clearness and brevity." No. 1—The school is to be opened with a short prayer. No. 9—To be closed with a few verses from Gospel. No. 4—Corporal punishment seldom necessary, except for bad habits learned at home, as lying, disobedience; but gentleness would do better. No. 5—All other offences, arising chiefly from liveliness and inattention, are better corrected by shame, such as gaudy caps, placing the culprits by themselves, detaining them after school, and by ridicule. No. 7—Wednesday and Saturday for religious instruction; ten copies of Barron's Questions on the New Testament to be furnished, the teacher to have one copy of the key. The propriety of rule 5 would certainly be called in question by our training schools of to-day. The framers of the rules do not seem to have had much faith in the Scriptural knowledge of their teachers.

A few words with regard to other teachers. Mr. Cockerell in 1806 was succeeded by Mr. Hughes; Mr. John Ray, who was fifty years clerk of St. Mark's, also taught a school. There was a private school by Mr. McKee, who was a classical scholar; his wife taught fancy work—this being after the war. The usual way of starting a school was to go round and procure a promise of fifteen or twenty scholars; the usual pay was $1 a month. In the *Gleaner* of 1817 Mr. and Mrs. Roberts advertise a boarding and day school, English, French, construction of maps, and the use of globes.

The school in connection with St. Andrew's was continued till 1843. In the *Gleaner* of 1817 an advertisement speaks of the annual meeting of the congregation, when the account of monies received and expended in building the school-house will be produced. This building seems to have been used before the war as a school-house, and after the war on Sunday for divine worship and Sunday school, and on week days for a school, the upper part at one time being used for the colored children. In 1840 the school was taught by Mr. James Webster, and the trustees and members of the Kirk Session were the committee for its management. In 1842 Rev. Robert McGill advised as to how the school could still be maintained in connection with the church under the Act passed at the late session of the Provincial Legislature.

And now we turn to what we can find of what may well be called the backbone of the educational system of Canada. There have been several references to the common school before. In 1823 had appeared a petition of the teachers of the Niagara District, complaining of the non-payment of their salaries, and the proceedings in the Legislature in consequence. And in 1839 another complaint came before the Legislature, £500 being granted to make good the loss by the bankruptcy of the treasurer. On the 9th September, 1826, there is a letter in the *Gleaner* advocating the erection of a public school-house, as the population of the town was then 1,200, and they had an able teacher in Mr. Thomson. On June 2nd, 1827, a certificate appears in the *Gleaner*, signed by Rev. Thomas Creen and Thomas Handcock, A.B., testifying to the ability and fitness of the teacher of the Niagara common school, Mr. David Thomson, giving the number of the classes in arithmetic, grammar, bookkeeping, etc.; total twenty-five. The fees were 2s. 6d. or 50c.; with writing added, 62½c.; with arithmetic, 75c. per month. An agreeable sparkle of color is given to these dry records thus: February 23rd, 1827, account of a collection taken up by the pupils of Mr. Thomson's school in aid of the distressed Greeks, 11s. 1½d. This was the year of the battle of Navarino; and now after seventy years the generous deed of these Niagara school children is recalled even to the 1½d., as we are sending away our contributions to the Armenians, so barbarously treated by the same "unspeakable Turk"; but now the nations of the world do not rise up as then to help the weak. Mr. Rollston and Mr. Crombie taught here at this time. The methods of punishment to present pupils must seem amazing. One boy in the town was struck by the teacher on the head with a round ruler an inch in diameter; the boy falling to the floor insensible, was carried out to the snow to revive. It is pleasing to know that the big boys of the school then did what so rejoiced the heart of the honest Yorkshireman when Nicholas Nickleby "bate the schoolmaster." His next feat was on his removal to Stamford to shut up in a brick oven a little girl for punishment, but he was sent away in consequence.

Among the teachers of Niagara perhaps the most striking personality was Dr. Whitelaw, who taught the grammar school from 1830 to 1851. From the description given by his old pupils he must have been an able teacher and a Christian gentleman. His son John, a young man of great promise, died at an early age, and while his father's assistant gave lectures on chemistry. It is one of my earliest recollections seeing nitrous oxide, or laughing gas, administered by him, and the disastrous effects in one case.

The love of science must have been shared by the father and son, as we find that Dr. Whitelaw lectured in Kingston in 1817, while teaching the grammar school there. A course of thirty-six lectures was given on chemistry and geology, three guineas for the course. We know from the address of Sir Oliver Mowat in Niagara at the centennial of St. Andrew's, that Dr. Whitelaw also practised medicine in Kingston. In 1838 the Rev. R. McGill and Rev. Thomas Creen commend the progress of the pupils in Latin and Greek, taught by Dr. Whitelaw.

An old pupil gives some reminiscences thus: "The doctor was very particular in giving us, as he called it, 'a thorough grounding' in Greek and Latin, and this grounding was sometimes secured by to us very painful methods. The room was divided by a board partition; there was one stove, which very imperfectly heated the room, being half in one room and half in the other. There were forty pupils, many of them the sons of officers from the regiment stationed here. The Bible was read in the school, and we had morning and evening prayers. One circumstance I remember. When Brennan was hanged at the Niagara jail, we boys did not know any better than to get up a petition for a holiday. One boy wrote it from the dictation of another, while a third presented it. Such a lecture we received I shall never forget. Such depravity was a sure proof of original sin. The next day we went to school, our request of course having been denied; but the old doctor was ill. Whether he had taken our conduct so to heart we did not know; we had the coveted holiday, but I question whether any of us went to see the execution." Among the punishments in vogue was one which may be considered questionable now, viz., to commit to memory a chapter of the Bible. At a later day in the common school, on his return from school a boy was asked the question so frequent then, "Were you whipped to-day?" "Yes, *I* was whipped, but *Mary* (his sister) was *kissed*." The teacher had left the room, leaving a monitor to give the names of all who talked, and coming to the little girl, whose name had been given, instead of the dreaded tawse, stooped down and kissed the astonished child.

In the report of a commission on education in 1839, among twelve, that of Rev. R. McGill is remarkable as suggesting changes afterwards embodied in the school system of Dr. Ryerson. He says that the master of the Niagara school receives £100 from the fund, pays £30 for a house, £40 for an assistant; the fees are £4 for each pupil.

The Rev. T. Philipps taught the grammar school from 1852 to 1861, and had a large boarding school, forming quite a procession,

marching to St. Mark's on Sunday morning. Rev. T. D. Philipps, of Chicago, the famous cricket player. was his assistant. The pupils were very successful in passing university examinations.

The buildings in which the school has been held have been as varied as the teachers. In early days the block house, the stone barracks, and many others, before the present brick buildings were erected, not without a long struggle, for the result of which the Rev. Charles Campbell, of Toronto, then chairman, deserves much credit. Four of the teachers have had a long term of office, Rev. John Burns, Dr. Whitelaw, Rev. T. Phillipps and Mr. Andrews, while the fifteen others covered various periods of from one to three years.

A reminiscence given by a colored woman of her school life in Niagara must not be forgotten. "The first school I went to was to a yellow man called Herbert Holmes—Hubbard Holmes our people called him. Oh, he was severe; they were then, you know; but he was a fine man; had been educated by a gentleman in Nova Scotia, and then he went to England and came back. He used to drill the boys, and when holiday time came he would march us all in twos to a grocery kept by a black man, and treat us all to 'bulls' eyes' and gingerbread. Holidays were not two months as they are now, but two weeks. I went to a black man upstairs in the school-house of the Scotch church; the room was full, full of children; the benches were slabs with the flat side up and the bark of the tree down, with round sticks put in, slanting for legs. The children all studied aloud, and the one that made the most noise was the best scholar in those days. Then I went to a Miss Brooks, from Oberlin College, in 1838-9. She was sickly and died of consumption. Oh, what hard times she had with some of the boys; bad, rough ones. But Herbert Holmes was a hero; he died in trying to save a black man from being returned to slavery, and he is buried in the Baptist Colored Church graveyard." The tragic and heroic death of this Niagara teacher I have told elsewhere, but some reference may be made to it here. An escaped slave was to be returned to the United States authorities on the charge of having stolen his master's horse in escaping; but Herbert Holmes organized a party of several hundred colored people, who blockaded the jail for over a week, and the teacher was shot dead while holding the horse's head to let the prisoner escape. This was in 1837, and his drilling the boys may have had some result, as a company of black men formed here did duty for the Government which had given them refuge.

Among the educators of Niagara must not be forgotten Mr. John Crooks, who taught a Sunday school in 1820 to 1833, distri-

buting tracts to the children in the place of library books. Another educator deserves honorable mention, Mr. Andrew Heron, the originator of the Niagara Public Library, founded in 1800, he being the secretary, treasurer and librarian, giving his services gratuitously, the influence of this library being widespread and beneficial, one thousand books having been put in circulation. Other libraries of those days may be named also, as among the schools and schoolmasters of Niagara, as the library of the Agricultural Society, founded 1793; that of Rev. R. Addison of rare books, now in possession of St. Mark's church; that of St. Andrew's church, 1833, and the present public library of 4,000 volumes, founded in 1848, for books are our teachers as well as men.

Another educative force may be mentioned, viz., the many books printed in Niagara. Shortly after 1800 Andrew Heron reprinted Mavor's spelling book, with the catechism of the Church of England at the end; and in 1841 was issued Davidson's spelling book, used in the town for many years. From the advertisement it seems comprehensive, containing outlines of geography, grammar, religious lessons, morning and evening prayers and hymns. Mr. Davidson printed also "Sacred Melodies," used in the Methodist Church; Agricultural Reader, by a Vice-President of the Agricultural Society (Bishop Fuller). The History of the War of 1812-14 was printed in Niagara in 1832, written by Mr. David Thompson, of the Royal Scots, teacher of Niagara; other books are the Canadian Forget-me-not, by John Simpson, and the first long poem of William Kirby, F.R.C.S., called the U. E., giving descriptions of Canadian life and scenery, yet unsurpassed in Canadian poetry. In the advertisements of Mr. Heron, as bookseller, we see that the study of classics was not neglected; Cæsar, Ovid, Sallust, Homer's Iliad, and many others.

The ladies' schools must not be forgotten. One tells of a Mrs. Radcliffe, in 1820, who taught the harp and piano; another mentions a young girl, Miss Birdsley, who was a good Latin scholar, having been taught by a Mr. McPherson. In the Niagara *Herald* for 1830 is the advertisement of the Niagara Seminary for Young Ladies, taught by Mrs. Fenwick and Breakenridge.

Besides the names given before, as pupils taught in the early schools of Niagara, may be mentioned Bishop Fuller, Judge Baxter, Hon. Archibald McKeller, Judge Campbell, Hon. J. G. Currie, Rev. F. Trew, Judge Kingsmill, James M. Dunn, LL.B., F. Harkness, A. Nivin, P.L.S. Dignity is given to the schools of Niagara

by the many points of their history which also touch the history of the country and the important part played by many of the teachers of the place.

Many amusing stories could be told of the snowballing matches between the public and separate schools, not quite so exciting nor so bloody as that described so graphically by Sir Walter Scott in the streets of Edinburgh with green breeks. Other contests between the town boys and the dock boys were perhaps as exciting in their way as those in the English universities between Town and Gown. It is recalled of one of the dock boys that when some boys were sent out to bring him in to school as a truant, the report came back to the horrified pupils that he was standing in defiance of monitors and master with a pile of brickbats collected to do execution on any assailing force.

It is not proposed to refer to the schools of a later day, or the changes from the severe methods of corporal punishment, the dreaded public examinations, the prize books, to the changed curriculum, the presence of girls in the high schools, the change from the excessive memorizing, etc. While we must naturally exalt the present and acknowledge the merits of our school system, and what we owe to Dr. Ryerson and Hon. George W. Ross, we need not depreciate the past, as some are so fond of doing. When hearing the boasting over some supposedly new idea, and the condemnation of any other system, we often wonder how the old system produced such grand men of such solid attainments, and we bow our heads in humility and salute the pedagogues of the past, acknowledging that they often did conscientious, excellent work, and humbly wish that our work of to-day may stand as well the test of the searching light of the future, as we see that theirs has done; that our work may—as it is claimed is the true work of the teacher—enable the human souls under us to reach unto the divine.

In extending congratulations to the Historical Association, which has at last achieved existence, and to its president, Mr. Robertson, it may be well to ask what would be lost to the world were all history blotted out? How much would we miss if from all literature were erased the record of brave deeds, of heroic struggles, of all the battles, whether with mailed warriors, or the giant selfishness under all its multiform shapes? Let all the histroy of these brave deeds be blotted out. Still more, let all the literature inspired by them be destroyed. We shall have no Homer, and no references to Homer; no poems formed on the great epic; no Arthurian legends; no exquisite amplifications of

these legends by Tennyson, nor the Idylls of the King, nor Evangeline; no heroic story of William the Silent, as told by Motley; no story of Laura Secord, by Mrs. Curzon; no heroic story of Joan of Arc, nor of Moses facing the mighty King of Egypt to free his people; nor of the little ruddy David before the great Goliath. Fancy blotted out of existence the main part of the wonderful tales of the great Magician of the North, and thus the exquisite pleasure derived from reading these tales, no story of Leonidas at Thermopylæ resisting to death that immense host, nor the inscription, "Go, tell our countrymen that we lie here in obedience to her laws"; no tumulus at Marathon to tell of a few bravely fighting against such vast odds; no story of Grace Darling, nor Daulac and his sixteen brave companions devoting themselves to certain death to keep back the Indian foe; no story of the Maiden Martyr of Scotland's salt sea sands, chained to a stake while the tide came slowly rolling in; no story of the stern discipline of those brave soldiers on the "Birkenhead" saving the women and children, and going down to a watery grave with a ringing Britisb cheer. And then the patriotic songs sometimes struck out on the anvil of a nation's agony, as "The Southern Flag," or "Scots wha hae wi' Wallace bled"; no ballads, such as Horatius who kept the bridge in the brave days of old; no story of Abigail Becker and her brave deed of "seven men to save"; no column surmounted by the heroic figure pointing to the grand panoramic view from Queenston Heights. Still more, let us suppose all the lessons taught by those heroic deeds unlearned, and unperformed all the brave deeds inspired by reading of the past in emulation of heroes of other days! How bald, and poor, and tame would be our literature; what gaps in the eloquent orations and appeals which have inspired men to greatness. What a blank would we find in verse and prose, where now there is such wealth of illustration and allusion. In discussing the prominence to be given to different subjects in the curriculum—let it always be remembered that history as an educator is an important factor; and it is earnestly hoped that this and other historical societies may do a great work in developing a spirit of patriotism, a love of Canadian literature, and all that can ennoble our young country.

THE CAUSES OF THE GERMAN REFORMATION.[1]

REV. H. SYMONDS, ASHBURNHAM.

Whatever opinions we may hold in regard to the Reformation, there can be no question that it was one of the greatest and most epoch-making events in the history of mankind.[2]

It was the opening of a new chapter in human history. The nations that have most profoundly influenced the subsequent movements of human activity in all its manifold provinces have been those which most fully and freely adopted the underlying principles of the Reformation.

But its influence has not been limited to these nations. The real strength of any movement is to be tested by the power which it exerts over those who are opposed to it, and there can be small doubt that the principles of the Reformation have profoundly permeated those nations which yet as a whole rejected it. "Protestantism," said Carlyle, "is the grand root from which our whole subsequent European history branches out."

The Reformation was a movement with many aspects. It was by no means simply a religious movement, still less a theological.[3]

It has a political aspect, a literary aspect, a social aspect, as well as a religious aspect. It was the end of a great age. The political, social and religious moulds into which the life of Europe had been cast were worn out. For political, social and religious forms are but shells which enclose the living kernel. Christianity breaks with Judaism, but in new forms carries on its mission. Democracy sweeps away monarchies, but Government goes on. The Reformation destroyed the unlimited power of the pope and the hierarchy; but churches, clergy, sacraments and sermons continue.

I wish to speak of some of the various causes of this great event, for it is by no means the case that papal or clerical corruptions were the sole cause of the Reformation. The whole

[1] This paper forms part of a lecture on Martin Luther and the German Reformation, originally prepared for a general audience. It was read before the Historical Association at a short notice and is therefore of a more popular character than if it had been in the first place been written for the Association.

[2] "The Reformation is the hinge on which all modern history turns."—Froude, *Lectures on the Council of Trent*, p. 1.

[3] "The original Reformation was a revolt of the laity against the clergy."—Froude, *ut sup*, p. 4.

complex organism of European civilization was broken up at the time of the Reformation. Hence those are very shallow historians who trace the Reformation to a squabble between the Augustinian and Dominican orders of monks, and very inadequate historians who fail to take account of all the causes which, meeting together in the 16th century, combined to produce the Reformation.

Let us in the first place seek to take a comprehensive view of that great period of history known as the Middle Ages. It dates from the subversion of the western Roman Empire by the barbarians, which was accomplished in the fifth century. "Before the conclusion of the fifth century the mighty fabric of empire which valour and policy had founded upon the seven hills of Rome was finally overthrown in all the west of Europe by the barbarous nations from the north, whose martial energy and whose numbers were irresistible. A race of men, formerly unknown or despised, had not only dismembered that proud sovereignty, but permanently settled themselves in its fairest provinces, and imposed their yoke upon the ancient possessors. The Vandals were masters of Africa, the Suevi held part of Spain, the Visigoths possessed the remainder, with a large portion of Gaul; the Burgundians occupied the provinces watered by the Rhone and Saone, the Ostrogoths almost all Italy, whilst Germany was inhabited by the Franks and other heathen and savage tribes.[4]

To understand the condition of things we must entirely wipe out of our minds our ideas of the map of Europe, save that of its outline. There was then no France or Spain, or Germany, or Austria, or Switzerland, as now. In the main Europe had composed the Roman Empire: the old Roman Empire being swept away, it was a chaos of barbarous and warlike tribes, out of which modern Europe, as we know it, has been built up.

But the first stage in the construction of modern Europe was not the consolidation of independent nationalities, but the growth of the Holy Roman Empire and of the Holy Roman Church. Gradually out of the confusion of savage anarchy there re-emerged the old and yet new Roman Empire, to which the Holy Roman Church, by its missionary zeal and its organizing genius, lent the sanction and ties of religion.[5]

The greatest of the barbarians themselves were filled with admiration for the organization of that empire which they destroyed. Athaulf the Visigoth, the brother-in-law and successor

[4] Hallam, *Middle Ages*, I., i.

[5] Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire.*

of the terrible Alaric, said: "It was at first my wish to destroy the Roman name, and erect in its place a Gothic Empire, taking to myself the place and power of Cæsar Augustus. But when experience taught me that the untamable barbarism of the Goths would not suffer them to live beneath the sway of law, and that the abolition of the institutions on which the State rested would involve the ruin of the State itself, I chose the glory of renewing and maintaining by Gothic strength the fame of Rome, desiring to go down to posterity as the restorer of that Roman power which it was beyond my power to replace." [6]

In the year 395 A.D. the Roman Empire was divided into two parts, the western empire, with Rome as its capital, and the eastern, whose seat of government was at Constantinople. The western empire came to an end with Romulus Augustulus in 476 A.D., and henceforth until 800 A.D. there was only one emperor, who reigned at Constantinople.

This removal of the imperial presence and court from Rome gave a great impetus to the already great power of the Bishop of Rome. The spirit of the western church presented a great contrast to that of the eastern. The eastern mind is speculative, the western is practical. All the great theological speculative controversies were waged in the east. Of the four great general councils, one was at Nicaea, one at Constantinople, one at Ephesus, and the fourth at Chalcedon—all in the east.. In its almost fanatical zeal for theological precision, the eastern church sacrificed life to form. The age of the great councils marks the commencement of the decay of the Greek Church, which fell an easy prey to the virile faith of the Mohammedan.

It was very different in the west. The only great western controversy was about a thoroughly practical question, viz., the relations of human free-will and of Divine grace. The old Roman genius for government descended upon the shoulders of the popes and the church. Monasticism in the east ran to all kinds of extravagance; in the west it became and continued for centuries one of the most beneficent civilizing agencies the world has ever seen. Missionary enterprise carried civilization in one hand and religion in the other, by the establishment of the monastery in the forests and wilds of Europe. It is perhaps hard to realize, but we should in justice remember that it was under the auspices of the Holy Roman Church that the nations of Europe were converted to Christianity. The story of missionary work in the eighth and ninth centuries is per-

[6] Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire.*

haps unsurpassed in the annals of missionary enterprise. To great countries like Japan and India we send our missionaries by twos and threes; to England, then an insignificant island inhabited by savage barbarians, Pope Gregory sent a band of forty monks.

There are periods in the world's history when the absolute rule of the strongest man is the best form of government. In consideration of the tremendous problem of reducing to order the social chaos of the fifth century, it is easy to believe that the papacy was for that time a divine institution. By whatever pretences and forged decretals the pope may have supported his position, that position was his by the right of being the best man, and on the whole was justified by its splendid accomplishments.

Thus it came to pass that the Holy Roman Church established its sway over the newly organized states and peoples of Europe. It remains to speak of its relation to the Holy Roman Empire.

I have already referred to the extinction of the western empire in 476 A.D. That empire was, however, revived in the year 800 A.D., and continued to exist (in name at least) until the year 1806. In the eighth century the Frankish power predominated in northern Europe. In a moment of danger from the Lombards of North Italy, Pope Hadrian invoked the aid of Pipin, the king of the Franks. On the death of Pipin the Lombards again took up arms, and again the Franks came to the rescue of the distressed pope, this time under Charles, Pipin's son, known as Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. The Lombard kingdom was destroyed, and Charles became the governor of Rome, with the title of Patrician. "Twenty-eight years rolled on. The alliance betwen Charles the Great and the pope was more firmly cemented with time, and at last the event, which it is not improbable the pope had for some time been revolving in his mind, occurred. It was Christmas Day in the year 800. Charles was in Rome, and heard mass in the basilica of St. Peter's. On the spot where now the gigantic dome of Bramante and Michael Angelo towers over the building of the modern city, the spot which tradition had hallowed as that of the Apostle's martyrdom, Constantine the Great had erected the oldest and statliest temple of Christian Rome. Nothing could be less like than was this basilica to those northern cathedrals, shadowy, fantastic, irregular, crowded with pillars, fringed all round by clustering shrines and chapels, which are to most of us the types of mediæval architecture. In its plan and decorations, in the spacious sunny hall, the roof plain as that of a Greek temple, the long row of Corinthian columns, the vivid mosaics on the walls; in its

brightness, in its sternness, its simplicity, it had preserved every feature of Roman art, and had remained a perfect expression of Roman character. Out of the transept a flight of steps led up to the high altar, underneath and just beyond the great arch, the arch of triumph, as it was called; behind in the semicircular apse sat the clergy; rising tier above tier around its walls; in the midst, high above the rest, and looking down past the altar over the multitude, was placed the bishop's throne. From his chair the pope rose, as the reading of the Gospel ended, advanced to where Charles knelt in prayer by the high altar, and as in the sight of all he placed upon the brow of the barbarian chieftain the diadem of the Cæsars, then bent in obeisance before him, the church rang to the shout of the multitude, again free, again the lords and centre of the world. 'To Charles, the most pious Augustus, crowned of God, the great and peace-giving emperor, be life and victory.' In that shout, echoed by the Franks without, was pronounced the union, so long in preparation, so mighty in its consequences, of the Roman and the Teuton, of the memories and the civilization of the south, with the fresh energy of the north, and from that moment modern history begins." [7]

Out of this union of the Holy Roman Empire and the Holy Roman Church there sprang a magnificent theory of Christendom. Christianity was a world-wide society. "Before the conquests of Rome, men with little knowledge of each other had held differences of race to be natural and irremovable barriers. Similarly, religion appeared to them a matter purely local and national; and as there were gods of the hill and gods of the valleys, of the lands, of the sea, so each tribe rejoiced in its peculiar deities; looking on the native of another country, who worshipped other gods, as Gentiles, natural foes, unclean beings." "The Roman Empire, giving to many nations a common speech and law, smote this feeling on its political side; Christianity more effectually banished it from the soul by substituting for the variety of local pantheons the belief in one God, before whom all men are equal." [8]

Thus the Roman Empire prepared the way not only for Christianity, but also for the Holy Roman Church. And when the Roman Empire, by the conversion of Constantine, became the Holy Roman Empire, men's minds were, alike by the universal sway of the emperor and of the pope, prepared for the conception of a vast political and ecclesiastical unity. The idea of a world-wide society, with the pope as its spiritual and the emperor as its

[7] Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire*, p. 48.

[8] Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire*.

political head, gradually took possession of men's minds, until they looked upon them both not only as part of a divine, but also as an eternal order of things. And if we divest our minds of prejudices, we shall admit that it was a truly glorious ideal, calculated to inspire the zeal of clergy and monks, and to subdue the minds of rude and rough barons and knights? Thoughtful men know that everything truly great springs from great ideas, and those of us who have beheld from a distance the tapering spire of Salisbury Cathedral, as it seems to remind the whole surrounding country of another world, or stood under the arching roof of the great church at Ely, and contemplated the vast nave, with its aisles and massive pillars, stretching up into the dim, mysterious choir, must feel that the application of the term Dark Ages to those days is in many respects misleading; and that those mighty builders, who built as though for eternity, must have been inspired by a magnificent ideal. And that ideal was none other than the ideal of an universal empire and an universal church. St. Thomas Aquinas compares the relation of the papal and imperial power to that of the soul and body. "The pope, as God's vicar in matters spiritual, is to lead men to eternal life; the emperor, as vicar in matters temporal, must so control them in their dealings with one another that they may be able to pursue undisturbed the spiritual life, and thereby attain the same supreme and common end of everlasting happiness."

Thus the Holy Roman Church and the Holy Roman Empire are one and the same thing under two aspects. These ideas inspired not only mediæval architecture, but its painting and its literature. There is in Rome a copy of a mosaic constructed by Leo III. about 800 A.D. "It represents in the centre Christ surrounded by the Apostles, whom he is sending forth to preach the Gospel; one hand is extended to bless, the other holds a book with the words 'Pax vobis.' Below and to the right Christ is depicted again, and this time sitting; on His right hand kneels Pope Sylvester, on His left the Emperor Constantine; to the one He gives the keys of heaven and hell, to the other a banner surmounted by a cross. In the group opposite, i.e., on the left side of the arch, we see the Apostle Peter seated, before whom in like manner kneel Pope Leo III. and Charles the Emperor; the latter wearing, like Constantine, his crown. Peter himself, grasping the keys, gives to Leo the pallium of an archbishop, to Charles the banner of the Christian arms. The inscription runs, "Blessed Peter, grant to Pope Leo life, and to King Charles victory," while round the arch is written, "Glory to God in the highest, and in earth peace to men of good will." [9]

[9] Bryce, *Holy Roman Empire.*

Such was the theory of the Holy Roman Empire and the Holy Roman Church in the middle ages, and unless we strive to understand it as a pious ecclesiastic, and a plain, straightforward, hard-hitting baron of the better sort might have regarded it, we must inevitably misunderstand and misinterpret that period of history which, lasting for just a thousand years, has been absurdly styled "The Dark Ages." "General phrases like these," it has been well said, "not only give no information, as it is impossible to sum up great periods of history in single sentences, but they are essentially inaccurate." [10]

Protestant historians have too often had eyes only for the abuses of the Middle Ages, and their interpretation of its history has been unduly one-sided. We must remember that it is possible to write a history in which there shall be nothing but facts, and yet to leave a thoroughly false impression upon the mind of the reader. Both Protestant and Roman Catholic ecclesiastics have thus sinned against the truth, but history can no longer be prostituted to the purposes of sectarian propagandism. Absolute impartiality is of course impossible, but at least all the necessary facts may be given, upon which the reader may base his own judgment.

We have now to trace the causes of the corruption, decay and downfall of the Holy Roman Empire and of the Holy Roman Church. It bore within it the seeds of its own decay.

For, first, according to the theory, these twin institutions should have been universal. But eastern Europe lay outside of both the Empire and the Church, whilst England never, and France only for a few years, belonged to the Empire. So long as institutions are living and beneficent, their theoretical imperfections are overlooked; but when they become objects of suspicion or hatred, these become as handles to the sword of their enemies. In the second place, there were flaws in the title deeds. Did Charles the Great win the empire with his sword, or was it conferred upon him by the pope? If the former, why did he never claim it, but only receive it at the hands of Pope Leo on that memorable Christmas Day in the year 800 A.D.? If the latter, we ask by what right the pope conferred an empire? These questions undoubtedly exercised the minds of politicians and ecclesiastics. The ecclesiastics took the short cut of forgery. A document entitled the "Donation of Constantine" was composed, "whereby it was pretended that power over Italy and the whole west had been granted by Constantine the Great to Pope Sylvester and his successors in the chair of the Apostle." [11]

[10] Grant, *Religions of the World*, p. 177.

[11] Bryce, p. 43.

This is the most famous of the forged decretals, concerning which it is but fair to state that their spurious character was first pointed out by a Roman Catholic theologian.[12]

When the donation of Constantine was proved to be an impudent fraud, the whole structure of the temporal power of the church, of which it was the chief corner-stone, fell into ruins.

In the third place, the heads of the Holy Roman Empire and the Holy Roman Church were continually fighting. One instance must suffice. The popes steadily encroached upon the rights of the empire. When Pope Gregory VII., the great Hildebrand, placed the copestone upon the edifice of papal supremacy by declaring "that it was sin for an ecclesiastic to receive his benefice under conditions from a layman," a provision which freed half the land and wealth of Germany, which was in the hands of bishops and abbots, from the control of the emperor, and placed it in that of the pope, the Emperor, Henry IV., who already mistrusted Hildebrand, prepared for war. The world beheld the following passage of arms between God's representatives: First, "The pope cited Henry to appear and be judged at Rome for his vices and misgovernment. The emperor replied by convoking a synod which deposed and insulted Gregory." The representative of God in the spiritual order promptly excommunicated the representative of God in the temporal order. Encouraged by this action, the Saxon subjects of the emperor broke into revolt, and Henry submitted at Canossa, and did penance for his sins. Then occurred one of the most dramatic events in the whole course of European history. The pope was staying at the castle of the Countess Matilda of Tuscany, at Canossa. The suppliant emperor was compelled to stand barefooted and woollen-frocked on the snow three days and three nights until Gregory consented to admit and absolve him. It was a dearly-bought triumph of him who claimed to be the successor of that Apostle who exhorted all men to "submit themselves to every ordinance of man for the Lord's sake."[13]

The fourth cause of the decay of the mediæval theory of European civilization was the schism in the papacy itself. From the year 1102 to 1168 there were no less than nine anti-popes. Again from 1378-1394 there were two, and again another in 1439. Each of these causes was like a new wedge driven deep into the mediæval theory of the unity of church and state. They gradually but surely dispelled the awe which produced unquestioning obedience. Questions must arise in men's minds when they saw two popes,

[12] cf. Ency. Britt., Art. "Canon Law."

[13] Bryce, p. 159.

each claiming supremacy, or the pope and the emperor in deadly strife, and with each new struggle they were asked more loudly and boldly, until at last an answer was demanded, and when none was forthcoming from those in authority the people answered them for themselves.

There was another cause of political change which was simply the result of natural political development. The great political movement of the fifteenth century was the centralization of national power in the hands of the kings. In this century the power of the barons as independent chieftains, owing only a feudal allegiance to the monarch, was broken. The whole policy of the crafty Louis XI. of France was devoted to the destruction of the power of the nobles and the centralization of the monarchical power.[14] In England the Wars of the Roses destroyed the old nobility, and prepared the way for the great kings of the line of Tudor. From Spain the Mohammedans were driven out, and by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella Spain became a united kingdom. This rise of a national spirit, which was followed after the Reformation by the rise of national churches, so closely are politics and religion connected, gave the death blow to the theory of the Holy Roman Empire. "The most remarkable event in the history of the last three hundred years had been the formation of nationalities, each distinguished by a peculiar language and character, and by steadily increasing differences of habits and institutions. And as upon this national basis there had been in most cases established strong monarchies, Europe was broken up into disconnected bodies, and the cherished scheme of the united christian state appeared less likely than ever to be realized." [15]

From this sketch you will see how powerful were the political causes that not merely prepared the way for the Reformation, but rendered it inevitable.

We will now turn to the religious causes of the Reformation, and as these are better known it will not be necessary to dwell upon them at any great length.

A recent writer upon the Reformation sets forth eight main influences which led to the Reformation.[16]

1. The overwhelming growth of the power and claims of the papacy, the abuses connected with the papal administration, and the immorality and tyranny of many of the popes. Of these, Alexander VI., the most infamous of the infamous family of the Borgias, was the worst. One of the best and most learned men of his

[14] cf. Guizot, *History of Civilization*, vol. I., p. 289.

[15] Bryce, p. 243.

[16] Bettany, *Popular History of Reformation*, p. 2.

day, Pico della Mirandola, "gravely relates that the manner of his death was uncertain, some believing that he had been carried off by a demon, others that he was poisoned by wine which he or his son had prepared for one of his cardinals." [17]

The story of the poisoning is now discredited, but it shows us in what estimation he was held. The contempt and disgust with which his life inspired even abandoned men is illustrated by the events that transpired upon his death. "Ere the corpse was cold the pontifical apartments were pillaged by the satellites of Cæsar Borgia, the pope's son. At the funeral a brawl between the priests and soldiers left it exposed in the body of the church. When placed before the altar its shocking decomposition confirmed the surmise of poison. Finally, stripped of its cerements and wrapped in an old carpet, it was forced with blows and jeers into a narrow coffin, and flung into an obscure vault." [18]

A Roman Catholic writer, the Abbé Christophe, has sought to mitigate the verdict of history, but confesses that he would have liked to close the history of the popes of the fifteenth century with a holier and more glorious figure than his; and adds, "Say, if you please, that Alexander VI. dishonoured religion and humanity; we will not contradict you." [19]

2. The second cause enumerated is: The interference of the papal power with national and princely rights and liberties, and the antagonism this produced between Romanism and champions of natural liberty.

3. The immorality and practical irreligiousness of many of the secular clergy.

4. The wealth, degeneracy and corruption of most of the monastic orders.

It is necessary to dwell upon these two causes, for they go far to justify the fierceness and bitterness with which the Reformers expressed their antagonism to the Roman Church. I do not, however, propose to quote a single Protestant writer, but solely Roman Catholic and mostly contemporaneous testimony.

M. Audin, the learned Roman Catholic author of "A Life of Luther," says that "at the Council of Basle, 1431, Cardinal Julian said to Pope Eugenius IV., in speaking of the disorders among the German clergy, "These disorders excite the hatred of the people against the whole ecclesiastical order; and should they not be

[17] Clark, *Savonarola*, p. 230.

[18] cf. Ency. Britt., Art. Alexander VI. A satirical Latin couplet of the period runs:

Vendit Alexander claves, altaria Christum.
Emerat ille prius, vendere jure potest.

[19] Clark, *ut. sup.*, p. 231-2.

corrected, it is to be feared lest the laity, like the Hussites, should rise against the clergy as they loudly threaten us." He predicted that "if the clergy of Germany were not quickly reformed, that after the heresy of Bohemia, and when it would be extinct, another still more dangerous would soon succeed." "The little respect," he says, "now remaining for the ecclesiastical orders will soon be extinguished. Men will cast the blame of these abuses on the Court of Rome, which will be considered the cause of them, because it had neglected to apply the necessary remedy." [20] The popes inaugurated some measures of reform, but so long as they were like Alexander, scandalously immoral, or like Julius II., fonder of fighting than preaching or reforming, or like Leo X., openly suspected of infidelity, it was impossible they should be carried out.

Dante thus spoke of Rome:

> Once Rome! now false and guilty Babylon!
> Hive of deceits! Terrible prison
> Where the good doth die, the bad is fed and fattened.
> Hell of the living
> Sad world that dost endure it! Cast her out!

Juan Valdez, the brother of the secretary of the Emperor Charles V., himself a Catholic, said, "I see that we can scarcely get anything from Christ's ministers but for money—at baptism, money; at bishoping, money; at marriage, money; for confession, money—no, not extreme unction without money! They will ring no bells without money, no burial in the Church without money, so that it seemeth that paradise is shut up from them that have no money. The rich man may marry his nearest kin, but the poor not so, albeit he be ready to die for love of her. (Bear this remark in mind when we are told of Luther's crime in permitting two wives to Philip of Hesse.) The rich may eat flesh in Lent, but the poor may not, albeit fish perhaps be much dearer. The rich man may readily get large indulgences, but the poor none, because he wanteth money to pay for them." [21]

When Roman Catholics themselves wrote in such good set terms, I think we shall admit that the violent language of many of the Reformers is not without justification.

Page after page might be quoted from the writings of Erasmus, who well knew whereof he wrote, in condemnation of the monasteries, but we must pass on to the fifth cause, which was

[20] cf. Audin, p. 78, *ff.*

[21] Quoted from Seebohm's *Era of the Protestant Reformation*, p. 57.

5. The revolt of intelligent men against the enforced acceptance of a system of theology, or a scheme of religious practice, on the mere authority of the existing church, when errors in interpretation or lack of competence to interpret might be proved against churchmen.[22]

6. The renaissance of intellectual, classical and artistic culture, leading on the one hand to a revival of mere paganism, and in reaction from this to a revival of religion apart from pagan influences.

7. The tyrannical and cruel proceedings of the Inquisition.

8. The continuous germination of practical and heartfelt religion in the characters of such men as "the Friends of God," "the Brethren of the Common Life," and religious reformers like Savonarola.

Such were the causes already in operation which had produced the premature and yet not ineffective movements of Wyclif, Huss, Jerome of Prague, those reformers before the Reformation—causes which were a source of deep anxiety to the best Catholics, and were never more surely preparing the way for revolution than when Martin Luther was born on November 10th, 1483.

[22] At the Council of Trent, the authenticity of the Vulgate was proclaimed, but at the same time the need of revision was urged. Under Sixtus this was accomplished (1590), but no sooner was the revised version issued than it was found to be full of errors, and another edition, itself by no means free from error, was published in 1592.

COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATION.

THE PLACE OF COMMERCIAL WORK AND DRAWING IN A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE.

J. A. WISMER, M.A., TORONTO.

When this newly-formed commercial section applied for recognition to the College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association last year, it was treated (as many of you will remember) in a somewhat cavalier manner by a number of the members of that department. There was evidently a belief that commercial work and drawing were on a plane quite inferior to that of classics, mathematics, modern languages and the sciences.

Having had many years' experience in teaching many subjects, and speaking, as I do, without prejudice, I may be pardoned for saying that such an assumption is, in my opinion, both erroneous and unjust, to prove which is the object of this paper.

Two reasons have been given for the efforts to push commercial work and drawing into the background; first, because it took up too much time; and secondly, because it brought no *glory* to the school. I have also heard it sneered at as a bread and butter subject, because, forsooth, it enabled pupils who were compelled to leave school early to at once enter on a business career and earn their own living.

As to time, it is a specialist's department in all collegiate institutes, and hence has a right to as much time as any other department. As to its bringing no glory to the school, there has been heretofore some truth perhaps, and so long as school boards and the public generally rate schools and teachers high or low, according to the number of students they can cram up in the shortest possible time for passing departmental and matriculation examinations, I cannot but sympathize with head-masters who are compelled to view the subject from that standpoint. I need scarcely say that such an opinion of the teacher's duty as an educator is unworthy of an intelligent school board and of a semi-intelligent people. *We* know that the best teaching is needed for a class of dullards, that a school cannot be filled with bright intellects every year, and that, as a rule, teachers deserve most credit for their work in the years when they pass the least number of candidates. I have often thought that it would be a good thing if some such

facts as these were printed in large type and posted up in some conspicuous spot on the wall of every school house in Ontario. I would have in it also the following hints to school trustees: 1st. Secure the best teachers you can. 2nd. Satisfy yourselves that he is doing the best work he can. 3rd. Pay him well. 4th. Let him alone.

Commercial work is a much more comprehensive term than most people imagine, and in determining what place it should occupy it is necessary to define its limits.

In some schools I am told it means only enough bookkeeping to enable candidates to pass the primary examination, and the work is done by the science or the mathematical master. Under such conditions commercial work, as understood by us, is simply not done, and there it very justly may be relegated to a secondary place. Better days seem to be dawning, however, and the Commercial Diploma Course, even as arranged by the Education Department, is certainly a step in the right direction. In every school it should include: 1. Penmanship. 2. A thorough knowledge of all ordinary business forms and their use. 3. Common points of law in respect to notes, drafts, cheques, protests, partnerships, mortgages, and the collection of debts. 4. Bookkeeping by double and single entry. 5. Business correspondence, telegrams, commercial column of the newspaper. 6. General office work, such as use of the letter book, indexing, etc. 7. Commercial arithmetic. 8. Banking. 9. Stenography.

This work seems to be sufficiently extensive for one master, and in the ordinary commercial college it takes three men to do it. As if this were not enough, or for some reason which I have never yet heard explained, the department has tacked on model and object drawing to the work of the commercial master.

Having defined the limits of the work, we have next to consider the all-important question, What is its *educational value* to the student? Which of his mental activities does it develop? What effect has it on the building up of his character? In answer I place first the power of *observation*.

Writing, drawing and stenography train the eye to see and the hand to perform. This training is more thorough and more extended in the mastery of these subjects than in any others on the school programme. A cultivated observant faculty is a potent factor in one's success in life. The outcry for manual training in the schools is simply a progressive development along the same lines.

Secondly, commercial work develops the reasoning power, i.e., the *judgment*. This applies more particularly perhaps to book-keeping and commercial arithmetic. When a set of books are in a "snarl" the amount of persistent thought and judgment required to disentangle them is known to practical accountants only. The journalizing of intricate transactions is as good a training to the pupil's reasoning powers as any he can get from any other subject of study.

Thirdly, it trains the *memory*, and a good memory is, as we all know, a very excellent thing. Stenography is of especial value in this respect.

Fourthly, these subjects naturally induce *independent effort and perseverance* on the part of the student. How valuable an influence this is on his real advancement, probably only teachers know.

Fifthly, they induce habits of *neatness* and *cleanliness*.

Sixthly, they promote the habit of *accuracy*.

Seventhly, penmanship and drawing conduce to *good taste* and *aesthetic culture*, more of which is, in the opinion of the Minister of Education, very much needed in our schools.

Lastly, in addition to its educative value, and unlike any other department in the school programme, a commercial course prepares a student immediately on leaving school for entering upon remunerative work. In a country where so many of us are poor, this should, it seems to me, be a reason for praise rather than blame.

In the history of the world it is a well-known fact that the real greatness of a nation depends almost, if not altogether, on the development and extension of its trade and commerce. It is also true that the cultivation of the commercial instincts of a race is the measure of its strength and progress. If this is true of races and nations it must be true of individuals, for individuals make races and nations. The teacher is an important element in the development of the individual. Hence the work of the commercial master is a solid benefit, not only to the individual, but to the race and nation of which he forms a part.

Time will not admit of any more detailed investigation, but I hope I have fairly stated the case and shown that commercial work and drawing occupy, and should occupy, a place on an equality with that of any other department of high school work.

BOOK-KEEPING.

WILBUR GRANT, TORONTO.

It was with a great deal of reluctance that I accepted the invitation to prepare for this meeting a paper on Bookkeeping, because I felt that I would not be able to do the subject that justice that its importance demands, and, further, that perhaps I was inadvertently filling the place of one far more competent to deal with the subject than I am. However, if in this paper I have scattered a few seeds for thought, or provoked discussion on any points, I shall feel that I am repaid for my trouble and have accomplished something.

In commencing, let me state what should be the object of bookkeeping.

In a general sense, bookkeeping is a systematic recording of the transactions of a business, extending over any period of time, by which the merchant will be enabled to accurately determine for himself, and, if needs be, to show to others in a concise manner how he stands financially.

But bookkeeping in this sense should not be confined to large mercantile establishments where competent and well-trained bookkeepers are employed, but should be extended downwards through the various grades of mercantile life, even into the private life of the individual, where household receipts and expenditures should be carefully recorded.

If the practice, in a modified sense, could be started among our children and they could be induced to keep a record of their little receipts and spendings, such a procedure, if followed up, I feel, would be exceedingly beneficial to the individual, would greatly tend to cultivate precision and accuracy with business habits, and encourage thriftiness among our people.

With the preceding remarks in view, I have no hesitancy in saying that everyone should have some knowledge of this subject, no matter whether he be in the professional, mechanical or laboring field of life.

To those in mercantile life it is exceedingly important that they should be more or less familiar with the intricacies of bookkeeping. It is not sufficient for a man to say, "I can employ a bookkeeper who will know everything necessary." Such a man places himself at the mercy of his employee, who, if he be dis-

honest and unscrupulous, may bring disaster to the concern in which he is employed. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the merchant to have at least a general knowledge of this subject. He should keep himself thoroughly informed in all branches of his business, so that he may not only direct it, but be competent to detect error and fraud should such ever arise.

Bookkeeping, when conducted on sound principles, is invaluable, for, while on the one hand it promotes order, regularity, fair dealing, and honorable enterprise, on the other it defeats dishonesty and tends to preserve the integrity of man when dealing with his fellows.

In teaching this subject the following practices should be thoroughly impressed on the mind of the pupil :—1. That he should be neat in his work. 2. That he should be precise in his method. 3. That he should be accurate in his figures; and that he should be systematic in all his entries. In short, to be careful in making a complete and true record of business transactions at the proper time and in the proper place. As a matter of fact, in case of a lawsuit, books kept in an uncertain and slovenly manner would have but little weight as evidence—in fact, might have the very opposite effect.

Hence some system should be adopted, and the simpler the better. This, however, must be kept in view, that the plan adopted should be sufficiently comprehensive and explanatory to satisfy not only the person keeping the books but those who may have occasion to refer to them. Hence the necessity for the adoption of certain recognized and approved systems, which, being plain and easily understood, must prove satisfactory to all concerned.

There are in vogue two systems of bookkeeping, known as Single Entry and Double Entry.

The former is passing gradually out of use, being only used by the smaller dealers. It is little better than the old-time practice of keeping accounts on a slate and erasing them when paid. As but personal accounts are kept in his ledger, the dealer is only enabled to tell how he stands financially in regard to those persons he is doing business with. No opportunity is afforded of ascertaining his various sources of profits, nor whence are sustained his losses. This plan is, therefore, only suitable to the small retail dealer.

To the larger, more extensive mercantile and manufacturing concerns the system of double entry is applied with great advantages, which may be briefly stated as follows :—

1. Unless the debit balances correspond with the credit balances the books are wrong, and the error must be discovered by comparison.

2. The discovery of such errors is more easily accomplished than by the other plan.

3. Accounts can be readily analyzed.

4. The profits or losses from various sources are shown, and hence plans may be formed for more effectively carrying on the business.

In the whole range of life one book will appear to be indispensable, and in itself will meet the requirements of the individual as distinguished from the business concern. This is the Cash Book. I would, therefore, advise the consideration of this book and the teaching of its uses as early as possible. In fact, the sooner it can be taken up in the public school course the better. For this purpose a number of exercises might with advantage be prepared, varying in description and becoming more complex as they proceed. For ordinary purposes and for the smaller business concerns the single page plan of cash book wherein is used a debit and a credit column is ample and sufficient. Balancing the account weekly should be adopted from the first.

As progress is made in the subject, the double-page form should be introduced, and this form amplified from time to time by the introduction of special columns. As the uses and advantages of the special column Cash Book, especially when it is used as a book of original entry, are exceedingly important, considerable time and attention should be given to its study.

With regard to the Day Book, comparatively little may be said beyond the fact that neatness and conciseness should prevail in recording the transactions. But where this book takes the part of a sales book I would like to adopt a uniformity of ruling and usage of the ruled columns. There should be a cash column followed by an item column, and that followed by an extension column, as per the following example :—

L.P. or J.P.		Cost.	Item.	Extension.

The book called the Journal, being an auxiliary book, need not take up our attention. But the principles of journalizing cannot be overlooked in the least. Considerable time must and should be spent on this part of the work, for many pupils have great difficulties in understanding and applying the principle, "Debit what goes into an account, and Credit what comes out of an account," and that every Dr. has its corresponding Cr.

When this and the Day Book are combined, as perhaps is the more general custom nowadays, we have the Journal Day Book, a book which is exceedingly useful, especially so when the business is of such a character as to allow of the use of special columns. As in the Cash Book, so here, the use of special columns will be a great saving of time and labor, and give great satisfaction in the application of the principle and usage.

Let me next touch on the Bill Books, which, with their elaborate headings, present very little difficulty, especially in the recording of ordinary notes. It is only with regard to drafts that there is much trouble. If notes and the various forms of drafts be studied prior or simultaneously with the use of the bill books, the simple recording of them is made comparatively easy. The bill book is of great assistance, especially in a business where a large number of notes are handled, enabling the merchant to see at a glance, as it were, what notes are maturing, that he may make his calculations on them if they are receivable, or for them if they are payable.

The neglect to make provision in some way for one's notes has a very bad effect on one's financial standing, and tends to the curtailment of the dealer's credit.

The Ledger is that book to which all the transactions are transferred and distributed into certain heads or accounts which tell their own history. These accounts, if unbalanced, will show (1) either a resource or a liability, (2) a loss or a gain.

In connection with the ledger no account should be opened therein without properly indexing it in the small book kept for that purpose.

In the matter of transferring or posting care should be exercised to so index the entries that a clear connection of the transaction is kept from book to book.

The posting to the ledger should be performed as quickly as circumstances will permit. As it is customary to render accounts or statements immediately after the first of the month, this can only be done by the keeping of the ledger posted up to date.

Trial balances are made in the larger concerns every month, which enables the bookkeeper to see if his ledger is correct, and lessens his work in making out his final balance sheet.

At least once a year it has become customary with merchants to close their books and make out a balance sheet. In order to do this properly and effectively the bookkeeper must see that all the transactions have been posted to the ledger, that inventories of whatever nature have been proprly made, and that his ledger is in equilibrium. The balance sheet should show clearly (1) the assets and liabilities and net capital ; (2) the profits and losses and net gain or loss.

The making out of balance sheets presents considerable difficulty, and should be carefully considered in connection with our theoretical sets. I may say that I invariably make these out before closing the sets, and by means of the balances shown in them check the accounts that are being closed.

In conclusion, let me say, "That while in our teaching and from the text-books allowed us for use, we must to a great extent be theoretical, yet we should not fail wherever an opportunity arises to give practical every-day illustrations of the principles we are endeavoring to inculcate." Thus, our teaching will not be merely to meet the exigencies of the examinations, but will fit our young people the better to be prepared to strike off into commercial life, feeling that they have a knowledge of the nature of business transactions, and with an assurance that they can deal with them as they arise. In short, with the knowledge that they have the knowledge, needing only the keen edge of experience to sharpen.

DRAWING—ILLUSTRATIONS.

W. H. FLETCHER, KINGSTON.

My subject is "Drawing Illustrations," and in the course of my paper I shall attempt to give a concise and general treatment of the subject, in so far as it relates to the more common pictorial representations of our books and periodicals, to the mechanical operations by which these pictures are produced, and to the drawings required for their production.

Perhaps in no other way are modern publications so differentiated from those of the last century as by the number and variety of their illustrations, and the increased skill shown in the execution of these. The managers and editors of our daily papers, in response to the demand of the reading public, provide illustrations for almost every important article they cause to be printed. Our magazines, Canadian, British and American, abound in portrait, landscape and mechanical illustrations. The advertising columns of nearly all periodicals are replete with innumerable representations, all designed to arrest public attention. In fact, we may with safety say that, in these days, all things are illustrated.

Yet, despite their number, we have considerable variety in the matter of our engravings. The processes and modifications of processes for producing printed pictures are very numerous. This article, however, can notice but a few of the devices which are now in general use. These are engravings on wood, on copper and steel, etchings, and photo-engravings, which last we shall see to be based on the etching method.

Wood engravings for printing purposes are supposed to have been those first used. The Chinese conceived the idea that it would be easier to stamp a letter than paint the character with brush and Indian or China ink. From a single letter to a word, and from a word to a private seal, and representations of common objects were easy steps. Though the primitive methods of the Chinese have been greatly improved, yet the same principle underlies modern work. A block of hard wood, generally boxwood, is cut across the grain and the section polished. A light coating of Chinese white is applied to this surface, and on it the drawing is made. When the sketch is complete the block is given to an engraver, who proceeds to cut away all parts of the surface except the lines of the drawing. If the drawing is not *in line* a careful

gradation of the surface must be made to produce in the print the proper shades. From the engraver the block goes to the printer. In the case of large woodcuts, or where great haste is required, the block may be divided into several sections, and given to as many engravers. Perhaps the best specimens of modern wood engravings for rapid printing purposes are those contained in the Graphic, of London, England.

Engraving on copper and steel is the opposite in method of wood engraving. In the latter the drawing is left in relief on the block, in the former the lines of the drawing are sunk into the surface. The process of engraving on copper and steel was derived from a method by which jewellers tested their engravings in gold for enamel work. These workmen, being anxious to test the accuracy of their lines before filling them with enamel, resorted to filling the carved space with ink, and taking an impression on damp paper. The principle of pressing the paper into grooves or lines is that on which copper and steel engraving is based. The plate is polished, carved, and ink is made to fill the carved lines. Then by pressure paper is forced into the lines and extracts the ink. Just here is where copper and steel prints derive their superior artistic effect. The paper is forced *into* the plates, and hence the copy must appear in slight relief on the paper. In wood cuts the opposite is the case, the lines of the drawing being forced *into* the *paper*. But engraving on copper and steel has been found too expensive, and too slow for modern demands, hence it has been largely superseded.

Various etching processes seem to be in most general use at present. The root idea of etching is eating away or corroding, and so the term can never, without a spice of vulgarity, be applied to a pen and ink drawing. To produce an etching the metal plate is covered on its polished face with etching ground, a composition which resists the action of acids. A good ground is most necessary for successful work. If good it will be so adhesive that it will not quit the metal when a small quantity is left isolated between lines, yet not so adhesive that the etching needle cannot easily and entirely remove it. A good ground will also be hard enough to bear the hand upon it, yet not so hard as to be brittle. When the ground has been applied it is then smoked until it incorporates enough lampblack to blacken it. The edges and back of the metal plate are now protected from the action of acid by giving them a coating of Japan varnish. The next part of the work

is to transfer your drawing from the paper on which it has been made to the prepared surface of the metal plate. Sheet gelatine is laid over the drawing and with a sharp pointed tool the lines of the drawing are scratched in the transparent gelatine sheet. These scratches are then filled with fine black lead. The sheet is reversed and applied to the prepared plate. By means of a burnisher such as is used by photographers the gelatine is pressed very tightly to the surface of the metal plate, and to this the black lead in the scratches now adheres. Now you have in light grey lines a copy of your drawing. The etching needle is now brought into requisition, and with it you erase all the lines of the copy and the ground under them, thus laying bare the metal plate. After this has been done the plate is ready for its bath. It is immersed in acid a sufficient time to allow of the metal being eaten away or bitten to a sufficient depth. When it has been properly bitten the ground is all removed, and after some slight retouching or rebiting the plate is ready to print from, in precisely the same way as a copper or steel engraved plate.

A combination of etching and photography produces what are called photo engravings. There are two principal kinds of these, viz., line and half-tone. For a description of the half-tone process I have relied mainly on an article from the New York Recorder. The process is as follows:—A glass screen, with diamond scratched lines ruled at right angles so closely together that the spaces can hardly be distinguished, is placed an eighth of an inch in front of the sensitive glass plate in the photographic camera. The distance these ruled lines are apart will depend upon the purposes for which the engravings are to be used. For rapid newspaper printing the spaces are wide; for slow work on fine paper the spaces are very narrow. The photograph or wash drawing from which the photo-engraving is taken is photographed in the usual way, with the previously described screen in the camera between the plate and the picture. This produces a negative of the picture showing the fine cross-lines represented by clear glass. Now, in order to have the same position of the object in the engraving as in the original, the film of the negative is treated to one or two coats of collodion, which gives it a sufficient consistency to permit of its being removed. This film is transposed to the opposite side of another glass. After careful mounting the new negative is ready to be used as a medium for printing on the zinc plate.

The face of the zinc plate is buffed to the highest degree of polish, then coated with a solution of albumen and gelatine, then sensitized with bichromate of ammonia. It is then dried and placed in the printing frame, the coated side next to the negative film. The case is then exposed to the sun or light three to five seconds, or to an electric light for fifteen or twenty seconds. The light passes through the heavy inch-thick glass of the printing frame, then through the negative, striking the sensitized plate and decomposing the chemicals wherever it may fall. Where the plate is protected from the shadows and half tones of the negative the sunlight has less effect, and where the shadows are dense it has no effect. This plate is removed from the frame in a dark room and carefully washed under running water for several minutes, when dried and heated until picture appears of dark brown color. The picture on the plate is acid-proof, and the etching solution eats only where the plate is unprotected, namely, that part which appears white in the engraving. The plate is allowed to remain in the acid bath for about fifteen minutes, or until a sufficient bite is obtained. It is then washed, retouched, and handed over to the printer.

Photo-engravings in line differ from half-tone engravings, in that light, half-tone, shade, and shadow are all represented by lines. The mechanical process for their production differs from that for half-tones in but a few of the early stages. To make a photo-engraving in line, of a photograph (or any other picture for that matter) a drawing of the photo in line with pen and ink must be produced. This drawing is then treated precisely as for a half-tone, except that the diamond-scratched screen is omitted from the camera. As may readily be inferred, these engravings in line cannot compare as to accuracy and artistic effect with half-tones. The price charged for them ranges from $1 upwards, while half-tones cost from $1.50 up, according to the mechanical skill expended on them. These prices are for engravings of from 6 to 8 square inches in area.

Your attention has now been successively directed to wood engraving, copper and steel engraving, etching, the combination of photography and etching to produce half-tone and line photo-engravings. I cannot hope that I have given you more than the most general idea as to how they are produced, yet your interest may have been quickened so that illustrations may have more fascination than they have hitherto had.

Little stress has been laid on the relation which drawing bears to these engravings. However, you will have noted that in all the processes outlined, except half-tone photo-engraving, drawings from which to produce the engravings must first be made. The production of these drawings is a most lucrative occupation if good and rapid work can be executed. Should we not seek to make our pupils acquainted with the method of producing illustrations and encourage those who seem to have a special aptitude for sketching to aim at becoming proficient illustrators ?

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.

D. YOUNG, GUELPH.

Fellow Teachers,—I am glad again to see so many of you at our Annual Convention, to welcome you here, and to know that the public school teachers of the province are becoming yearly more interested in the work and the success of this department.

In the first place, I have to thank you for the honor you conferred on me a year ago in unanimously electing me to preside over this meeting; and I do thank you most heartily for your kindness, although at the present moment I feel the responsibility much more than the honor attached to the position. I have looked back upon the list of past presidents, who have discharged their duties with such eminent satisfaction to you, and then forward to the Easter holidays of 1896, and to this present moment, with considerable fear and trembling. But of this I am sure, that I have your sympathy, and that I shall have your hearty support in our earnest endeavor to make this convention, in its results, one of the most successful in the history of this department.

And now, to relieve your minds, I wish to say that it is not my intention to make a lengthy address on an educational subject. Our programme is, in my opinion, already too long. I shall endeavor in the few general remarks I shall make to call your attention to:

1. What we have accomplished, and what, in my opinion, we should mainly aim to accomplish at this convention, and in carrying out this programme.

2. The desirability of more complete organization of the Public School Department, and to the expediency of uniting with the other departments concerned in public school work, in order to secure legislation beneficial to all.

At the close of last meeting the committee presented the resolutions adopted by this department to the Minister of Education, and the result has been published in the minutes and proceedings of 1895. Although the concluding clause shows that the members of that committee were somewhat disheartened after interviewing the Minister, yet, considering what we have accomplished in the last few years, I think we have rather great reason to feel encouraged. The Minister has in many instances carried out our sug-

gestions; in other cases he has taken them under consideration, and in the others he yet intends, I think, to follow the example of the Commendable Son in "The Parable of the Two Sons," neither of whom, however, took his father's request into consideration with the courtesy that might have been expected. However, when we consider that all the recent legislation, from the inauguration of the public school leaving course to the increased holidays, and increased grants to rural schools, and the proposed continuation classes for towns and villages, that all this legislation, most favorable to the uplifting of the public schools, and therefore to the advancement of the public school teachers of the province, has been mainly brought about by the agency of this department and departments interested in the same work; we may rest assured that, as we educate the people and combine our forces, this department will yet be of greater service in the cause of popular education.

As to the programme, I think the good sense of the association must determine to a very large extent the amount of time that should be spent on the discussion of the different papers that may come under our notice; but you will pardon me for saying that I am strongly of the opinion that we should not spend *much* time on any subject the discussion of which is not likely to tend towards influencing the policy of the Education Department in favor of the improvement of the public schools, and the advancement of public school education in this province. I mean by this that the three days which we spend here should not be occupied mainly in forming ourselves into a mutual improvement society for the express purpose of becoming better teachers individually, no doubt this is one object we have in view. But it is more the province of our county association work. We might perhaps better consider how much the value of our county associations might be enhanced to those now in the profession, if, for instance, at the county associations we could have the assistance of *modern* men, who have made a study of teaching, psychologically as well as experimentally, such as the very *best* men we have now in our normal schools. During the three days we are here we should, I say, directly bend all our energy towards improving the general edcuational policy of the province, and we should make special effort each year along such lines as will elevate the dignity of our calling in relation to public opinion. And, notwithstanding earnest and continuous efforts to improve our public schools and school system, is there not still much to be done in which our association can assist ?

Our public schools as well as our public school system should be the pride of the country. The course should be liberal and

extensive, but its curriculum elastic, attractive, and encouraging to those who have in view other courses than the teacher's, the learned, the professional courses. The farmers, tradesmen, mechanics and business men form the backbone of this young country; yet many of them have of late years been driven from the public schools to business colleges and secondary schools for a full public school education.

How often we have looked after pupils who have left our public schools with only a smattering of each subject now on the curriculum, although in their opinion they had an extensive knowledge of all the facts in connection with English and Canadian history, an exhaustive knowledge of formal grammar, and of drawing by the book. How often we have wished to at least interest our pupils in science, in civics, and to give to them the general information which they as intelligent citizens should have; but in doing this we have had to content ourselves with merely taking advantage of the opportunities that presented themselves incidentally, as in the reading lessons, and in doing this we have discovered the advantage of having a good curriculum and of adhering to it for results. Then even more to be desired than a liberal course and a remodelled curriculum in our public schools is the well-trained, experienced and successful teacher, not the intellectual and precocious, but young and inexperienced graduate of a college or school of pedagogy; but experienced, full-grown men and women (especially men), capable of elevating, developing and directing into proper channels the endowments of those who are to become the people of Ontario, the Canadians of the future.

We should investigate the grievances of our profession. I do not mean by this that we should spend further time in criticising, and, to a certain extent, deploring the existing conditions which we may have cause to regret. It is quite natural that this stage should precede all efforts of any association bent on reform; but I think we have spent already too much time and energy in this way (and perhaps some of our recommendations on this account have been extreme, or, at least, extra-judicial, made as they have been on the urgency of the moment and without the proper organization to thoroughly consider, discuss, and advocate the purport or wisdom of their provisions); but I do mean that our department must now enter upon a broader and fuller work, and bear its share in the formative or legislative work of the association; and in doing this we shall not achieve the best results until we organize fully and unite our forces in advocating the measures on which we agree, until our discussions are marked by dignity

of manner, until our resolutions are characterized by calmness of judgment and forethought, as well as a fair consideration for all other sections. With this end in view, I have become thoroughly convinced that there is the greatest need of immediately getting into touch with the other departments of the association that are working along the line most nearly related to our work. I refer specially to the need of co-operating with the inspectors' department, the training department, the trustees' department. While we are at variance with any of these sections, or rather while the opinions of these sections differ on the necessity or desirability of any special legislation, and in fact without their vigorous assistance we cannot hope to secure that legislation. On the other hand, I am confident whatever measures these three sections with our own unanimously approve, the department will not hesitate to look upon with favorable consideration.

I am very glad to say that this year we have to a certain extent framed our programme with this end in view, and, as you will see, Wednesday afternoon will be almost entirely devoted to a union meeting of the four sections.

I have already suggested certain reasons why our department has not been so successful as might have been hoped in securing the adoption of certain measures by the Education Department, and I now beg to submit what in my opinion would lead to a more thorough consideration of all such measures, and also to a more complete organization of our forces in the different departments bearing on public school work, viz., that we should, if possible, have a more complete organization of the county associations and a better system of appointing delegates to the Provincial Association.

I would also recommend for your consideration that we should have a permanent committee on legislation for the public school departments, a comprehensive committee, composed of a fair proportion of members (our director has suggested three each) from each of the departments named above, viz., the inspectors' department, the trustees' department, the public school department, and the training department, one member from each department of such joint committee to retire each year. This committee or council would be to a great extent not only in sympathy with the various sections doing public school work, but would also have the advantage of being permanent, or at least a fixed quantity, thoroughly conversant with the difficulties to be overcome in securing beneficial legislation,

and would therefore be able not only to direct us largely, but also to act for us in a representative capacity.

I hope that these few remarks may lead to a further and fuller consideration by the association of the subject alluded to, and that before the close of this year's session we shall be able to form out of all the departments interested in public school work a strong alliance with a more perfect organization, commanding the confidence and respect of the Minister, the Department, and all true educationists, and capable of influencing wisely and moulding materially the educational policy of this province for the good of our public schools.

PHONICS.

MISS A. A. CAREY, DONCASTER.

In the time allotted for my paper it is impossible to give a comprehensive detail of my method of teaching phonics. I will endeavor to give a philosophical reason why this system must eventually supersede all others. Indeed, we can hardly reason otherwise, for any method which so quickly enables a child to recognize and construct new words for himself must be better than one that leaves him totally dependent upon memory or his teacher.

I hold that reading is the most important subject in the child's early curriculum. Nothing has more lasting effect upon his character even in early life, while the later effects are too prominent to admit of contradiction. It has been said, and truly, that the teaching of reading is at the bottom of our whole educational system, and it is doubtless true that unless a child learns to read well in the primary classes, he will never acquire a taste for reading, and will in consequence with much greater difficulty become proficient in any of the more important branches of science. If he finds it hard and painful to get the meaning from his books, he stops reading on leaving school. If, on the other hand, he gets pleasure from his book, then he is ready and eager to go from his "Hans Anderson," his "Grimm," his "Mother Goose," to Shakespeare. To learn to read is one thing, to learn to love reading something far greater. Therefore, too much attention cannot be given to this subject. The teacher should keep these ideas before her and have definite plans for her lessons, for if her ideas are nebulous she will hardly make them clear to her pupils.

Again, if the reading lesson is uninteresting to the teacher, it will surely be so to the pupils; but if, on the contrary, she enjoys it, they will unconsciously catch up her enthusiasm, and the chief condition of success is secured.

Reading consists in two distinct processes, each dependent upon the other. First is the recognition of the word, and through the word to get at the thought behind it; and second, the presentation of this thought through the recognized word. Thus these processes are the reverse of each other. In the former I see the word, and through it get the thought; in the latter I have the thought, and present the word. Hence it follows that

the first of these must precede the second, and it is with the first, with word recognition, I purpose to confine myself.

For the teaching of this branch of reading, three methods have been employed—the Alphabetic, the Look and Say, and the Phonic.

As regards the first of these, we are all of us familiar with the serious difficulties experienced in the old A, B, C method. The names of the letters in no way indicate to the child what the word is. Take, for example, our little word "at"—spelling it, it sounds "*eighty*" (a—t). (J—l) would be our word jail, (m—t) empty, (k—m) came, and so on with many others.

So we find that words are not pronounced according to the names of the letters that compose them. Besides, we all know that while we have only twenty-six letters in our language there are over forty sounds used.

In the Look and Say method, or, as it is oftener called, the word method, while there is less drudgery, still the child is dependent upon the teacher for every new word; whereas if he knew the powers of the elements composing the word, he could with a little practice readily coalesce them and find the word out for himself. I admit this method helps to train the memory, but develops no mental activity on the part of the child. It calls for no original research, and Frœbel says, "Man is to be valued even in boyhood, not only by what he receives and absorbs from without, but much more what he puts forth and unfolds for himself." This method is mechanical, and consists of a great deal of telling and much guessing, and often the child memorizes his reading lessons and simply recites instead of reading them. Neither does it train the pupil to use the knowledge already acquired in gaining new. He does not learn by what he already knows, nor can he recognize or form a new word for himself until by some means or other he has learned the powers of the letters composing that word.

Adults use the phonic method in recognizing new words for the first time. Take, for instance, a Latin book, read a page of it; we pronounce the words according to the sounds of the letters. Look at the German.

Since this is so, and since we must admit that all other methods of word recognition become phonic, it is for us to decide whether or not we shall train the child in it from the beginning, and give him all the benefits to be derived from it, or leave him to find it out for himself. If left to himself, think what an amount of energy is wasted before he gains the power to recog-

nize new words. And should we not lead the child, especially the little child, along those lines on which there is the least possible resistance?

What, then, is the phonic method? The phonic method deals with the sounds or powers of the letters, not with their names. These are taught only incidentally.

It presents but one difficulty at a time. The first letters taught should be m, a, p, because in making these sounds the tongue lies motionless in the mouth, consequently these are found among all peoples to be the first sounds uttered distinctly. (Preyer's Infant Mind.) The teacher gives the sound of the letter first and the children imitate; she makes the letter, or rather the picture of the letter, and the children do the same. At first I would associate the sound and sign of the letter with a story. Make them real things, as making three walking canes of the letter "m"—"a," a little girl standing beside them. Lead them to coalesce these two sounds, and we have the word "ma." This would constitute a first lesson, and at once creates a bond of sympathy between home and school. In like manner we may get the word "pa"—P being a smoker. By this I mean that the mouth takes the same form in forming the letter "p" as the smoker's does in emitting smoke from the mouth.

When they have acquired the powers of a few letters, they can begin to construct new words with them. Let there be no divorce of knowing from doing.

Perhaps no two teachers will teach the letters in exactly the same order, yet all will be careful to present only one difficulty at a time—only one power of a letter at a time. The little learner must not be worried with contradictions and exceptions.

I would confine myself at first to the short sounds of the vowels, and the consonant sounds, ever remembering that much drill is necessary. Aim to gain the ability to pronounce new words without conscious effort. "The association of sound and symbol must be perfect." When the child has learned the sound of a symbol let him make that symbol on his slate or the blackboard. Thus we see that from the beginning writing accompanies reading. While the ear is trained accurately as well as the eye, the hand is trained to act automatically; thus this method strengthens the co-ordination of eye, ear and hand in fixing mental impressions.

Great care must be taken to give and get the correct sounds of the letters. Some children have physical defects, others have never acquired the correct use of the vocal organs—for instance,

some children cannot sound "s" in a word, some cannot sound "c" at the beginning of a word. They say "tat" for "cat," "tap" for "cap," "tum" for "come." Others, again, through slovenly pronunciation, omit "t" at the end of a word, saying "kep" and "slep" for "kept" and "slept." These defects can be readily detected, and by judicious treatment easily removed. Here is the benefit of vocal gymnastics.

While this method begets and strengthens the power to think, it enlarges the vocabulary, for a cursory investigation will prove that children can acquire more words by it than could possibly be done by any other. With the regular sounds of our letters and combinations, from 1,800 to 2,000 words can readily be obtained, words, too, that children are able to use in every-day life. This is ample for any child of six, seven, or eight years of age, and forms the nucleus of a vocabulary which will grow of itself as its needs and mental power develop. It overcomes habits of incomplete articulation. Children are trained to observe that words have a structure, and are formed of a few simple elements, while the teacher is enabled to study and set a high value upon evidences of original thought and effort.

I have said that at first I would confine myself to the short sounds of the vowels and one sound of the consonants, yet do not understand me to mean that I would teach the short sounds of the vowels one after another. Not at all. After "m," "a," "p" are taught, build words with them; continue with new letters "s," "t," "d," "r." Take the combination "ma," "pa," and let the children build on them, as mat, pat, mad, pad, mast, and so forth. Be careful to present only such letters to the little ones in which no mistakes can be made in their combinations, and you will be surprised at their interest in what *they themselves do.*

Teach "ee" and "I" as soon as possible, so as to be able to make complete statements. In this we can introduce our first lessons in composition.

I would teach "ee" with a story; any teacher can devise her own to suit her pupils. For instance, suppose *ee* two little sisters that one fine day go out for a walk. They go down the street hand in hand, and wander on till they find themselves lost. They begin to cry (here the teacher gives the sound of long e). People come out of their houses to see what is the matter with them, but they only continue to cry. At last an old goose, hearing this noise, runs out to see what it is, and going up to them makes the hissing sound of "s." (These two sounds, "*s*" "*ee*," make the word see.) Then one of the little girls looks up and says, "I *see*

ma," and the other one looks and says, "I *see* pa." They both say, "I *see* ma and pa." Similarly, "*ea*" are two little cousins, who one day went to the bush, and after roaming around found themselves very hungry. They began to cry for food, when they met the old man that always keeps his hat on "t" (teacher here gives the sound of "t"). They told him they wanted something to *eat*. He gave them some "*meat*," some tea, and a peach, and so on.

Such simple childish stories as these, with which any ingenious teacher can provide herself, lighten her work, make it more pleasing, keep up a lively interest in her class, and fix indelibly the sound intended to be taught. No fear of sounds thus taught ever being forgotten. Do not use stories except when necessary; do not surfeit the childish mind with sweets of this kind, otherwise they would lose their relish.

After the children know a sufficient number of sounds, give them a new word containing a sound they do not know; that is, let them feel the necessity of a new symbol. For instance, suppose they do not know the letter "f," give them the word "self" to write on their slates; they will sound it s-e-l-f, and stop and ask you what is the letter that says "f." Then drill on that sound, by giving a number of words containing it, at the beginning of words, in the middle, and at the end—as fan, fen, fog, feed, fed, aft, oft, often, soft, and if, of, snuff, cuff. In this system there are no arbitrary rules to guide teachers, as each teacher will have plans and devices of her own, which in her hands are more efficient than any that could be given. A variety of plans, depending on the circumstances of the pupils, will be adopted by the teacher. She has abundant material to work with, and thorough preparation is the key to success.

The effect of silent "e" on the vowels is another interesting branch of these lessons. First when it is placed at the end of the word, and secondly when closer to the vowel it lengthens.

If the teacher is careful in grading her lessons so as to make a gradual advance from the easy to the difficult, from the simple to the complex, she will not experience the difficulty that many anticipate in the same letter having several sounds. These lessons can be kept sufficiently far apart so as not to conflict with one another, and the little learner will not bother himself over the inconsistencies of our language. He will notice them when older, but will then have mastered many of them unconsciously through practice in using them. MacLennan says, "There is a memory for everything learned depending upon the vividness and distinct-

ness of the original apprehension." "When one thing is attended to at a time, the requirements of correct apprehension are so well met, that remembering follows naturally."

The transition from script to print is not so difficult as many imagine, and although I would not print, nor allow my pupils to do so, yet by using the script and print together, the children easily recognize the two forms of the letters. Let them pick out the "a's" or "b's," and so on, of a line of print, and later the words beginning with "a" or "b," or any letter you choose. Again, let them arrange the words of a page alphabetically once in a while. This is a useful seat occupation, and at the same time trains the observing powers.

As regards spelling. Correct spelling in practical life being a mark of previous training, whether rightly so or not, is a standard by which we judge another's scholarship. It is a powerful agent as a means of discipline in observation and memory. Now, many argue that phonics spoil our spelling. I think not, for by it children are taught to observe whether or not the words are spelled as they are pronounced, and thus special attention can be given to those words whose common and phonetic spelling vary. Again, by this method a child has only to learn the exceptions; he can at once spell all the words that are phonic. Whereas by the other systems he must learn all the words. Take, for instance, the words such as "made," "like," how many do we not find, even in more advanced pupils, spelling them as mad, lik, while had they understood the phonic method they would know at once that "e" was necessary to lengthen the vowel. Again, in doubling the consonants in the middle of a word, children can easily be led to observe that the vowel sound is usually short when the consonant is doubled, and long when it is not so.

Let us examine our alphabet and tabulate it for our own use. We find b, f, j, k, l, m, p, r, qu, v, w, z, sh, wh, oy are invariables (l, b, k) being sometimes silent.

1. The short sounds of the vowels.
2. Simple consonant sounds.
3. Long sound of vowels.

(a) "a," "e," "i," "o," "u" lengthened by silent "e," "ee," and "ea" as "ē."

(b) "ai," "ay," "ei," "ey," as "ā."

(c) "oa," "ow," "o" before "l," as "ō," as in "load," "window," "old."

(d) "ei" and "ie" as "ē," as in "receipt" and "thief."

N.B.—The "e" comes before the "i," usually after the sounds of c (soft) and s.

(e) "oo," as in "moon"; "ou" and "ow," as in "out" and "owl"; "oi" and "oy," as in "oil" and "joy," and "ew," as in "Jew."

* "aw," "au," "a" before "l" and "a" after "w" as "ŏ."

* "o" after "w" takes the sound of "ŭ" as in "work."

As regards the combinations:—

1. sh, ch, th, wh, (ph) as f.

2. ar, ir, or, ur, er.

3. ng, family (ing, ang, eng, ong, ung); nk, family (ink, ank, unk).

4. "tion," as "shun" ("tious, cious") as "shus"; "tial," as "shal"; "tient," "scient," as "shent"; "tience," "science," as "shens"; "alk," as in "walk," "talk," etc.

5. The three sounds of "y"—first, as in "yet," "yonder"; second, as "ĕ," in "empty," "silly," "Billy"; as "ĭ," in "my," "try," "fly," etc.

In cases like the different terminal sounds of "y" show that it is usually in little words that y has the long sound, and I would at first mark it so.

Similarly with "oy" and "oi," show that the symbol "oy" is usually used at the end of the words, "oi" in the middle.

Then the effect of silent *e* on "c" and "g"; take words in "ace," "ice," "age," "e" softens "g" and "c."

I would keep a list of words in "ough," "igh." *Ough* is very irregular, and requires much more careful study.

There are some words, but not so any as is often supposed, which are non-phonetic. These eccentricities must not be anticipated, but dealt with as exceptions and memorized as they occur. In the First Reader, Part I., there are about fourteen such words.

It is the work and privilege of the teacher to lead the child through difficulties that she knows it can master and understand, and carefully cull out those requiring more effort than the young intellect can grasp. Step by step; "Just a little every day"; "That's the way, That's the way." I cannot close without referring to the incalculable help and necessity of supplemental reading. The words you present to the young learners must plainly illustrate the sound you desire to teach. The ingenious teacher will couple this new sound with those already learned and make short stories of the words. These can be made on pieces of cardboard and distributed to the pupils. They read them silently at first, then tell her or tell each other what the story is. Again, they may copy the words on their slates and make up new stories of them for themselves. Here is an excellent exercise for language lessons.

Primary children can and should by this method be made familiar with the simple works of Longfellow—the story of the "Boy Hiawatha"; of Tennyson, "Sweet and Low," "The Brook"; of Whittier and others.

By cultivating this love of original research in using supplemental reading, children soon realize that the little stories they now read are but stepping stones to "better things." Besides that, we quicken thought and give power to ready expression. The teacher's aim from the start should be to help the children to acquire a taste for good reading, and to cultivate the habit of employing spare moments in profitable reading, which strengthens character and gives higher ideals to life.

Thus we create a thirst for knowledge which is gratifying to every teacher to satiate. Who knows what germs of thought may be dormant in the children that come before us from day to day. It is for us to give these tiny seeds proper nourishment. Give them power to *do* for themselves, and by *doing*, they will grow as they never could by imitation or memory work.

Giving knowledge is like giving light. It makes things plainer not only to others, but also to ourselves.

I feel I hazard nothing in saying that in using the phonic method the teacher will save at least a year's time in the primary grades.

THE ELEMENTS OF OUR POPULATION.

MISS E. J. PRESTON, OTTAWA.

In preparing a paper it is rather difficult for the writer to present his thoughts in the form he wishes. It is easier for him to say the things he knows are expected of him than his own inner convictions; easier to tickle the vanity of a people than to educate their reason.

My attention was drawn to this subject by looking over the answers given by some pupils in the Kansas Educational Exhibit at the World's Fair, when one pupil gave me the astonishing information that "Montreal was a province of Great Britain," and "Canada was inhabited by hunters, fishers and lumbermen." The old Hebrew word "Zadakah," which we translate "Charity," in the original has the force of our word justice. Now, while I am willing to throw the mantle of "charity" over such sentiments as that, I demand "justice" for my libelled countrymen.

I wish to present them in a three-fold aspect, the Past, Present and Future, viewed from the physical, economic and moral (or intellectual) standpoint. As the range of the subject is so wide, and my time limited, I must be brief, and you will please accept many of my statements without asking for proof. Professor Pearson says that "Purely warlike nations cannot hold their own against the industrial races"; and I shall start out with the assertion that an agricultural race will flourish and increase where a stronger non-agricultural one will decline. The Indian of North America, not having passed the hunter stage, faded before the white man; while his brother in South America, Mexico and Central America, being a tiller of the soil, held his own against even more cruel treatment by the Spaniards. These countries are now mainly peopled by pure Indians or half-breeds.

The success of Great Britain as a colonizer is due in a great measure to her people being tillers of the soil. The early Canadian settlers, coming from northern France, were able to adapt themselves to the climate; but, being more of the roving fisher class, attempted little in the agricultural line. Apart from the military and church, they were not a high order of persons in any way. The French being for centuries a warlike people, the flower of their male population was in the army, leaving the weaker to till the soil and transmit to posterity their feebler physical and more con-

tracted mental qualities. In looking back over Canada's early history we can now see where mistakes were made in its attempted settlement. But during the French regime politicians were much like those of our own day, and did not plan for fifty or a hundred years ahead, but for the immediate future, and the interests of themselves or their company.

What is not according to reason and justice will in time perish of itself, but the blunders of a statesman, or the work of a few fanatics may hinder the progress of a people, perhaps for centuries. These French settlers might have done much better had their feeble efforts not been cramped and weakened by the despotic or criminal acts of their officials, and the molly-coddling of the home government, on whom they were taught to depend even for their supply of wives. The white population of that time consisted of the upper class, composed of the military and church officials; the middle or trading class, made up of the Coureurs-de-Bois and trader, and the few small farmers scattered along the St. Lawrence. I shall not speak of the Indian tribes of that time, as they have no direct bearing on our subject. Many of the governing class were men of education, enterprise and refinement; but those engaged in trade cared nothing for the progress of the country; their great object being to take as much from it and give as little as possible. Then, as now, we find the ecclesiastical power encroaching upon the constitutional, and even dictating to the governors; while the Jesuit Fathers followed up the roving Indians, who were gradually retreating from the seaboard before the white trader or small farmer. I have not time to speak of those pioneers of the Cross; but this I will say, the Protestat population of Canada do not seem to realize all we owe to these men, and the influence their labours have had over the Canadian red man in his relation to us. Neither can I dwell upon that hardy and peculiar section of the French, the Coureurs-de-Bois. Had these settled down to farming it would have changed the face of French-Canadian history. Though reckless and irreligious, they were possessed of stronger mental and physical grasp than the farming class, and while these "runners of the wood" gathered the harvest of furs, the more civilized and unscrupulous trader or official reaped the benefit. Human races outgrow their customs and habits as they do their clothes, but unlike the latter they do not throw them away. They mend, patch and rearrange them in a more comfortable or artistic way around the body politic. Thus we find the French farmer or habitant of the present in many ways resembling his predecessor of the French regime. Now, as then, the priestly

father is the keeper of his conscience and his general adviser. Whatever may be said of the unprincipled conduct of the French in Canada, then as now, it was found outside the farming class. The habitant was fairly honest and industrious, paid his church dues and did as his cure advised. He was loyal, in a passive way, to France, but did not furiously resent the displacement of the Fleur-de-lis by the Cross of St. George.

With this change new elements were introduced. "England's younger sons and men in search of destinies" arrived, much to the disgust and annoyance of the French. British redcoats were garrisoning stockaded forts all through the forest, and the country was being slowly settled on a more agricultural basis. With the advent of the U. E. Loyalists began the history of our own province. The founders of the United States left the mother country for a principle, and became the nucleus of a great nation. The United Empire Loyalists left their homes for a principle, and founded the banner province of our Dominion. Here they planted the Protestant religion, a high sense of honour and love of justice, not often found in these stormy times. These plants, watered by British law, and protected from adverse winds by the Union Jack, struck deep roots into the soil. Ontario's population is now over two millions, all of British, German, Scandinavian or American origin, except about 6,700, who are Poles, French, Italians or Chinese. Springing from such a stock, being reinforced by men of the same language, principles and aims, with no immigration tending to lower their morals or physique, can we wonder that Ontario leads the provinces in education, progress and commercial activity? What has produced this? Mainly the high standard of the pioneer settlers, and the absence of any contaminating elements in those who followed them. Taylor says, "The reformer's path of the future must be laid out on deliberate calculations from the track of the past." And we can, if we will, produce on a larger scale in Canada what has been done in Ontario. Just here I will call your attention to the British settler, by whom Ontario is so largely peopled, because he is the same wherever found, from the equator to the pole.

There are four classes of Britons: English, Irish, Scotch and Welsh, differing slightly from each other, but all having the same principal characteristics. Leslie Stephens, in his reply to Huxley, asks, "What is the most efficient type of human being? What is the best combination of brains and stomach?" And he answers it by saying, "The best stock for the race is that in which greater intellectual power is gained without the loss of physical vigour."

It seems to me the Briton meets this requirement, both in stomach and brain power. He is a peculiar character, often surly and gruff, slow in motion, temper and intellect; slightly lacking in artistic ability; sometimes brutal in his sports, pleasures and vices, like the Vikings, from whom he sprang. There have been races of higher culture, of finer sensitive nature, but this rather unattractive being has filled the world with the force of his mental and physical power and endurance. As to the latter, permit me to give one illustration, taken from the work of a French scientist.

"While the allied armies were camped before Sebastopol, during the winter of 1856, when hostilities were about suspended, only 606 British soldiers died in hospital, while the French lost over 21,000." He also adds that, exposed to the same hardships, the English surgeons lost, from arm amputations, 24 per cent., while the French loss was 55 per cent. And for leg amputations it stood 35 per cent. English to 71 per cent. French. He is a resourceful individual, being found in all countries working along varied lines, seldom occupying menial positions, but exploring, trading, planning, and eventually leading or governing. If you notice an English Briton walking you will see that he plants his heel first. So when Great Britain plants her heel on a foreign shore she comes to stay; generally in peace, as a controller of the commerce and money market of that country. Without seeking glory she has gained it. Without striving for erudition her literature and language are the most varied, flexible and expansive. No other nation exhibits the commercial, mechanical, military, agricultural and administrative ability combined, and history fails to show any race who has successfully resisted her onward march. Statistics tell us that in the past no people multiplied more rapidly. In Canada, apart from the native born, we have about 500,000 of these people from the mother country. The French come next in numerical strength, of whom we have about 2,000,000, including the half-breeds. The French habitant is a simple, guileless person having few wants and of a happy nature. He makes a fairly good farmer on a small scale, but rarely attempts a large business in any line. Hopeful and contented, even under poverty, he will marry on nothing, and bring up a large family on the same airy material. Though kind, indulgent parents, they have not the almost deathless parental love of the Briton, more especially the Irish. Principally owing to too early marriages their physique is deteriorating. Statistics seem to show that they do not increase as rapidly as the size of their families would indicate; but, from personal observation, I should think the pure French do, though

perhaps not the half-breeds. Whatever may be said of the politeness of the natives of Old France, our habitant has it only on the surface. His "Oui, oui, Monsieur," accompanied by a smile, may leave a more pleasant impression than the gruff "No, sir," of his burly neighbour, but it amounts to the same thing in the end. He lacks the surly, sturdy independence of the Briton; looks more to his government for help, and when he becomes financially stranded falls back on it. This may explain in a measure the repeated demands made upon the Federal Government to pay the debts of the Province of Quebec, not to mention the persistent and almost barefaced boodling of French Government contractors.

I have said he decreases physically, and his educational advantages not being favorable, he decreases intellectually as well. You can readily see that in the course of time the enterprise and commerce of the country must pass into the hands of others, and the French (speaking in a general way) occupy a lower social position. This must follow, unless some power be brought to bear which will compel the people to at least be able to read and write. We cannot force a school system on their great stronghold, Quebec, but could not the reading and writing test be made a requisite for the exercise of the franchise? How is it possible for persons lacking these to be able to form a correct judgment on any public matter or vote intelligently? It is only in cities and towns where the French venture to think or act for themselves in political matters, and there but rarely. His spiritual adviser is not alone the dictator of his religious acts, but his political ones also. I am speaking of the masses of the French-Canadians, not of such men as the late Senator Tasse or the gifted Laurier, who are admired and respected alike by English and French.

As to the loyalty of the French-Canadian, at present I do not question it. He is proud of Canada, but prouder of his French origin. He knows (or his leaders know, which amounts to the same,) that he enjoys greater privileges and freedom here than he could under any other Government, consequently he is loyal. And it is to be hoped that his advisers will not insist on stretching those privileges too far. Some time ago the Ultramontanes had a dream of French domination in a Canada of the future, but

> "Sorrow hath come with the dawning of morn,
> And the voice in their dreaming ears melteth away."

I have dwelt more particularly on the French, as they form so large a part of the population. I shall now call your attention to an entirely different type of person: our staid, stolid German.

In order to study the French-Canadian I had to kraal him in Quebec, but the German may be studied in the open ground. Apart from those who are Canadian born we have about 2,800 from the "Fatherland." Though not so active and fond of sports as the Briton, he is his equal in strength and endurance. As he is phlegmatic, cautious and fond of domestic life, his mortality is reduced. The Germans are an honest, industrious people, not excitable, more plodding than clever. When they come here they make it their home. They say to us in the words of Ruth, "Where thou dwellest, I will dwell; thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God." As he does everywhere, he settles down beside the Anglo-Saxon, readily falling into line with his surroundings and living peacefully.

They do not herd to any great extent in cities, but the great mass of those in Canada are farmers. Gœthe, their great writer, once wrote of them, "No German can buckle his shoe until taught by some foreign nation." When he has buckled it, however, few nations will dare attempt the unbuckling of it. He is our co-religionist, and being a branch of the great Aryan family possesses the latent energy and ability of that race. He has his vices, but they are akin to ours. He is looked upon as one of the greatest beer consumers in the world; but he takes this, like everything else, in a quiet matter-of-fact way; and even in his drinking habits is not an extremist, being able to pursue the even tenor of his way without being much demoralized thereby. He comes from a land of industry and education, but rather crowded population, so there is all the more probability that a large immigration from there may reach us. We hear a great deal about the Socialistic tendency of the German; but in the Fatherland, though there are two million Socialists, the people quietly submit to restrictions which would set the Irish brandishing shillalahs or the French singing the Marseillaise. German commerce has lately been forging to the front, and the recent sudden outburst of rage at the Kaiser may perhaps be traced to the growing feeling in England that Germany is becoming too close a rival. No one is more easily annoyed than the British public when it thinks its rights are invaded; like the Irishman at Donnybrook, "Tread on whose coat-tails you like, but don't step on mine." The German has a dry sense of humor, too. During the late excitement about probabilities of war between Great Britain and the United States, an enthusiastic American was giving to an old German friend of mine a graphic description of "how easily an American ironclad could sink a British warship, by firing into her broadside." "You may be ride," said

my friend, "but deem Breetish sheeps do note coom sidevays, dey coom, Bitin, eend furst." In Ontario we find the greatest number of Germans, and British Columbia comes second.

Our next largest element comes from the United States. Those who come to Canada are of Anglo-Saxon or German origin, and need no special mention.

During the last few years there has been a small stream of immigration setting in from Denmark and Scandinavia. These are a fine class of settlers. While perhaps not such an agricultural people as the Germans, in some things they are their superiors; their industry, education and morality being of a high order. These are the people—if we can secure them in sufficient numbers—who will develop the great mines of natural wealth in Canada's fisheries and minerals. Perhaps no people in the world are better fitted for this, and they are our co-religionists as well, being Lutherans. At present we have between eight and nine thousand of them, the greater part being in Manitoba. All those of whom I have spoken have been from the northern latitudes of Europe, and belonging mostly to the great Teutonic race will, in time, quietly sink their nationality in Canadianism. But we find little streams beginning to flow from the south and west. Russia has given us over 9,000, who are principally Mennonites settled in Manitoba. They resemble the Quakers, and seem quiet and industrious, but not an enterprising or progressive class. Our Italian population numbers over 3,000, being mostly found in Ontario. It may seem a harsh thing to say of the dark-eyed children of sunny Italy, that they are a most undesirable class of settlers, but it is true. They rarely take to the cultivation of the soil, but herd together in cities. It is claimed they make good sailors, but as they bring homicidal tendencies, the vendetta, and the secret and dreaded organization known as the Mafia, if Canada is wise she will not encourage them. I have not spoken of our Indians, of whom we have (including those of Labrador) over one hundred thousand. More than fifteen thousand of them are entirely pagan. The red man is a vanishing quantity, and need hardly be taken in with our future population; but I might just mention that of the nominal Christian Indians over 41,000 are under the Roman Catholic church, and 25,000 the different Protestant churches.

Now we have reached a point in our history when it behooves us to pause and take our bearings. Up to the present our immigrants have been of a superior class; but in our calculation for the future we may take into account many other nationalities, Austrians, Hungarians, Turks, Syrians, Armenians and Jews.

Coming from countries ruled by corrupt or despotic governments, these people bring with them a hatred of the civil power, engendered by ages of misrule, strange language, strange religion, and a host of customs and vices, inimical to our western civilization, and for some persons possessing a fascination, because of their strangeness. In imagination I see my successor of fifty or a hundred years hence, endeavouring to instil Anglo-Saxon ideas into the heads and hearts of the children of a partly semetic or eastern population. Thirty years ago the immigration to the United States from Poland, Italy, Russia, Austria and Spain formed only 1 per cent. In 1893 from those countries it had risen to 50 per cent. of the total immigration. In 1894 our immigration decreased as follows:—British, 27 per cent.; German, 68; Scandinavian, 81; Belgium and France, 55. But from Italy, Poland, Russia, Austria and some countries of Asia we find not a decrease, but the alarming increase of 143 per cent. Now is the time for us to lay our plans before the seed is sown. If Canada pursues the same reckless system as the United States we may well exclaim, "What shall our harvest be?" The United States is now suffering, and will continue to suffer, from her indiscriminate system of immigration. For over half a century she has been calling to the overflow of Europe's nations, "Come unto me and rest. Lay down, ye weary ones, lay down, your head upon my breast"—forgetting that centuries of tramping and vagabondage leave an unrest in the blood, not to be exorcised by handling a ballot, or a breath of the air of Freedom, which Parkman says is as "malaria to those who have not been educated to it." Of old, the Egyptians besought the gods for wealth, the Greeks asked for beauty, and the Romans for power. To each was given the fulfilment of desire, and this became their ruin. We are now crying out for population to fill in our waste places. Let us be careful that the granting of this petition plants not the seeds of decay in our virgin soil. A stock breeder chooses animals capable of standing the climate, and doing the work required of them. Shall we be less sensible? If Napoleon required six years to make his raw recruit into a veteran, we need not expect to purge the inherited habits of centuries from these people by placing the ballot in their hands, as we do. There are certain inexorable conditions that limit the geographical location of races, over which man has little control. The black and yellow races are not found to have spread to any appreciable extent over the temperate zones. These seem to be the natural home of the white races, and with them alone we are likely to deal. But it seems probable

that at no distant day China's teeming millions may overflow, and we be swept by a tidal wave of Asiatic immigration. It is an acknowledged fact that when he can he follows the British flag. In the colony of Victoria in five years the Chinese took possession of cabinet-making, and drove out every white workman. We have now about 13,000 of them in Canada. As the Chinese empire is so vast, those from the northern provinces can readily adapt themselves to our climate, and these are the ones who come here. At present we have no restrictions laid on foreigners, except the Chinese, and if he pays his $50 and takes the oath of allegiance, he has as many rights as you or I, though he may not be able to write or speak a word of English, and knows nothing and cares less for the welfare of Canada. At present our hearts are stirred with sympathy for the Armenians, and projects have been advanced for the settlement of colonies of them in our country. Leslie Stephen says, "To develop sympathy without developing foresight is a one-sided development," and Prof. Pearson says, "There is no trace of Greek or Roman blood in the people of Asia Minor." Who are they then? A Semetic or Syrian race, with a mixture of Turkish and perhaps a dash of Aryan blood, professing in part, it is true, our religion, but apart from this having little in common with us. Whether those coming be Armenians, Chinese or Russian Jews, let us pause ere admitting them to all the rights of citizens. It is probable that the more lawless and reckless of foreign countries will not flock into our country in such numbers as they have done into the United States, on account of the inflexible administration of our laws, and the prevalent idea among them that ours is a monarchical or despotic government. But they may come in sufficient numbers to be a source of trouble, unless care be taken to prevent. They will herd together in cities and towns, forming a little colony of their own nationality, at first harmless enough; but by and bye, (through the power given them by the ballot), they become the Italian, Austrian, Armenian, Chinese or Jewish vote, and a menace to the government. Of late years the United States have seen their mistake, and through the "Immigration Restriction League" are trying various remedies. Among the latest is the "educational test," requiring immigrants between 14 and 60 years of age to be able to read and write in some language. It might be difficult for us at present to make this a part of our immigration law, but it can and should be a requisite for suffrage. We have no means of judging of the educational status of our immigrants; but I have drawn up a chart showing the percentage of those able

to write in the countries of Europe, United States and Canada. Here you see Russia the lowest, only .15; Spain, .26; Italy, .45; Austria, .54; Belgium, .78; Canada, .81; United States, .83; France, .84; Holland, .86; Great Britain, .90; Switzerland, .95; Germany, .96; Scandinavia, .97. We can see at a glance from which we are likely to get the more educated settlers. But education is not all. In the Talmud we read that a "father who neglects to teach his son a trade teaches him to be a criminal." We need skilled workmen, and Chart No. II. shows the percentage of such who came to the United States in 1893 from the following countries:—Scotland, 25 per cent.; England and Wales, .20; Belgium, .14; France, .11; Scandinavia and Germany, .10; Italy, .07; Russia, .06; Poland, .04; Austria, .03. In this we find more skilled workmen among the nations showing the high percentage of education.

On Chart III. I have given the results of the reading and writing test as applied to our provinces. It is of course impossible to classify them according to different races. Quebec is .63, though my own observation would lead me to say it is much lower than that (and a note in the census states they were not properly classified, owing to misunderstanding the questions). It is rather singular that in Quebec the female population shows a higher percentage than the male, while in all the other provinces the reverse is the case. British Columbia (with its two men to each woman) stands at .75; Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick, .80; Nova Scotia, .81; Territories, .88; Ontario, .91; while Manitoba leads with .93. Certainly it is the "bulls-eye" (in more than location) at which we should all aim.

I have endeavoured to give you as far as possible an impartial view of the different elements from which we hope to build a great nation. But how fuse into one homogeneous whole so many dissimiliar races and languages? A nation is not born in a day. The revolving years will gradually build up, brick on brick, our walls and ramparts; our little political, religious and race frictions will smooth and round off our angles, and fit each into its destined place. There is, however, another route to this end. Most nations date their rise from some great defeat or success in war. After the fall of Sebastopol, Russia freed her serfs. The iniquity of the French under the Second Empire was washed away in the blood of Sedan, while Italy and the United States climbed into prominence under Garibaldi and Washington, and the Wars of the Roses cleared and prepared the way for the Elizabethan era and Great Britain of to-day. The Archduke

Constantine of Russia once said, "I do not like war. It spoils the soldiers, dirties their uniforms, and destroys discipline." True, but it solidifies the moving constituents of a nation. Canadians do not like war any more than the Russian Prince. We are willing to go slowly and trust to time for our development. But should the United States, yielding to the clamour of her foreign elements, force Canada to stand on the defensive, in fighting a common enemy and battered by the shocks of war, we would come out of the struggle, no longer in sections, but a united British-Canadian people. And now what is the feeling of Canada for the Mother Country in "her splendid isolation"? In the words of her own immortal Tennyson, "We love her still. Let no man dream but that we love her still." Not for her white gulls of commerce skimming o'er every sea; not for her morning drum-beats, girdling the globe with a zone of sound; not for her Flying Squadrons, those dragons of the deep. But because as by cathode rays we have seen through these temporal integuments the white foundation bones of Truth and Justice; because a kindred blood throbs through the arteries of our political, commercial and religious life; because whatever in us "makes for righteousness" we owe to Great Britain and our British ancestors, on whose centuries of trials, defeats, sorrows and victories we have risen like corals "grave on grave, paving a pathway sunward."

THE RELATION OF SCHOOL WORK TO THE OCCUPATIONS OF THE PEOPLE.

J. R. Brown, Madoc.

By school work is meant education, esthetic, physical, intellectual, moral, and religious so far as religion is dealt with in the school. The subjects of the school curriculum have, at least, a three-fold value: (1) as to information or knowledge, (2) as to training or culture, (3) as to application or practical use. The importance of the first and second values is not to be detracted from in the least in this paper, but rather emphasized, as knowledge and training, when properly adjusted, are the most forceful factors in determining the usefulness of the pupil's future career. Without character, without proper motives and correct aims in life, a person's usefulness is sadly marred, if not wholly impaired. Too much care and attention cannot be devoted in the school-room to these all-important matters. Though the third value is to be made emphatic here, all three should be attended to jointly and concurrently.

The occupations of the people of a country depend mainly upon the sources of wealth in that country. In our province the main sources of wealth are the farm, the factory, the forest, the fishery and the mine. These provide labor for the large majority of our people. Merchandise, professional work, carrying traffic and several lines of labor about complete the list of occupations in Ontario. The peace, prosperity and progress of our country depend largely upon the attitude of our people to their environment and occupations. Anything that can be done to assist people in improving their surroundings, in giving them a higher ideal of their own occupation and the occupations of their fellow-citizens and of the relation and interdependence of these occupations, is worthy of our support. We have ample authority for doing our utmost in the matter. There can be no better field for operation than ours. We have the plastic, youthful mind to act upon. We all understand what that implies.

Our object may be carried out in connection with history, geography, agriculture, or by information and observation lessons. A series of graded lessons should be prepared dealing with the occupations referred to, taking the chief occupation of the vicinity first. For the province, agriculture easily ranks as the most important. The large majority of our people are employed in farming opera-

tions, and the whole population depends directly or indirectly upon the products of the farm for sustenance. Agriculture, on account of its paramount importance, is a school-room subject, and much has been done to give the young people of the rural sections better ideas and nobler aims respecting the leading occupation of the province. As there is a text book on the subject there is no need for saying anything along the line of its contents. However, it may be noted that by attending the lectures given at the farmers' institutes, teachers may obtain much valuable information that may be used to advantage in the school-room. Tell the pupils about the work done on the experimental farms at Ottawa and Guelph, and at the dairy schools at Kingston and Strathroy. A lesson may be learned from our sister province, Manitoba. In 1893, a resolution was passed by the Provincial Teachers' Association declaring in favor of agriculture being taught in the schools. Action was at once taken by the Government. Suitable work was prescribed. Arrangements were made for procuring suitable apparatus to aid in teaching the subject. Much good has been done. Last year joint meetings of the Provincial Teachers' and Farmers' Associations were held. Cannot we in Ontario arrange for something similar?

As to the factories, their names, locations, machinery used, raw material, mode of manufacture, nature and use of products, prices, places of sale, etc., may be dealt with.

As to forests, their extent, location, kind and uses of wood, danger from fire, manner of sale, lumberman's work as a pioneer are among suitable topics for consideration.

As to fisheries, we may deal with the kinds of fish in the different lakes and streams, their food and habits, the different ways of catching, curing and marketing, the location and management of fish hatcheries, close seasons.

As to mining, the names and uses of the metallic and mineral products, their natural locations, the nature of the ores and manner of reduction, some knowledge of the Laurentian, Huronian and other formations, and their contents, of sinking shafts, drifting, etc., are to be considered.

As to mercantile life, which seems attractive to so many of our rural young people, it should be said, among other things, that only a small percentage of the merchants make fortunes. A few more make a fair living, while the large majority fail after more or less work and worry in carrying along and dealing with delinquent debtors.

In the profession, due attention should be given to the nature and use of the labors of the lawyer, the doctor, the

banker, the editor, the clergyman and others, not omitting the teacher. Space will permit only a thought or two about the newspaper, not as a party sheet, but as a medium for conveying the news of the day. Do not deal with text book history to the exclusion of current history. Ask questions that will compel pupils to read the newspapers. Have one or more in school. Do not overlook the local paper.

The carrying companies employ a large number of hands. Due consideration should be given to the different means of communication, rail, boat, mail, express, telegraph, telephone, the nature of the work done, the machinery used, etc.

In dealing with the various occupations, pupils should be led to understand their relation and interdependence, and to realize that each citizen, if honestly and faithfully following his vocation so as to provide (unless disabled) for himself and those depending upon him, is a desirable factor in the economy of our country, one not to be despised however menial his vocation may seem. We should lead our pupils to know that though some of the learned professions are overcrowded, there is within our own province, so far as the sources of wealth are concerned, ample room for the surplus population of any congested districts in the older-settled southern parts of the province. The part of Ontario south of a line from Owen Sound to Ottawa, is, in extent, only a fraction of the province. The writer has travelled miles and miles of country north and west of Lakes Huron and Superior well fitted to support a population several times as large as the present population of Canada. Fine agricultural areas, rich soil, valuable mineral deposits, extensive timber limits, a healthy, invigorating climate better than that of Toronto, excellent water, are some of the inducements to settlers. The extent and variety of the resources of our own province should be brought more prominently before the notice of our own people.

So much variety of occupation and products exists within our borders that nearly every locality has something peculiarly its own to which it may point with pride. For instance, in Hastings county a year ago we could say our county was the banner county in the dairy produce. This year we lead in the output of iron ore. A large supply of hematite is shipped to the new blast furnaces at Hamilton. Lambton county produces most petroleum. Nipissing leads in nickel. The largest grain elevators in Canada are at Fort William, Thunder Bay district. Huron's salt wells were the best until the Windsor well was sunk. Keewatin, Rainy River district, has the largest flour mill in the province. The most ex-

tensive manufactures are carried on in Toronto. Statements of this kind may be readily made for different localities.

This work may be made more interesting by having specimens of the products of the different sources of wealth, raw material and suitable manufactured articles. Foreign articles should also be obtained when possible. By these means the child's faculties may be more readily developed along the lines of usefulness. Better citizenship, rather than mere passing of examinations, is the aim of the true teacher.

The general verdict is that our young people are not getting, in return for the outlay on education, sufficient information and training for practical use in after life. Would more manual training in school injure our pupils, or would some knowledge of co-operative industries, scientific farming, and cooking, of the principles of supply and demand or similar topics, dwarf them?

The necessary information for the teacher in this work may be obtained from practical observation, standard books, Government reports, the newspaper and other such sources. The Government reports may be placed with advantage in the schools for reference on the part of all interested in them. The school should be made the medium for as much usefulness as possible in the section by those in charge of it. Only one ideal vision will be given of the rural school a few decades hence. Methinks I hear the teacher receiving over the wires, in shorthand, by a copying machine, the chief news of the day, weather probabilities, etc. A copy is handed to the pupils for each family in the section. The pupils have, at least, a one-plank sidewalk along the road to keep them out of the mud in wet weather.

READING, AND HOW TO TEACH IT.

J. C. Brown, Peterboro.

Reading is the most important subject to be taught in our public schools. It is so because it is the chief instrument in acquiring a knowledge of most other subjects. A celebrated schoolmaster, one who was exceptionally successful in preparing his pupils for examination, and, what is much better, in preparing them for the great battle of life after school days are past, on being asked the secret of his success, made this reply: "I teach my pupils to read, and get them to learn other things." This man had found the teacher's true secret. *Teach pupils to read, and get them to learn other subjects.* Unfortunately this is not what we are doing in Ontario. We are not teaching our pupils to read, and we are attempting to teach them many other things. Of all the pupils attending our public schools *fifty-eight per cent.* are in the first and second books. There should not be more than *twenty-five per cent.* in these books. In the cities and towns where children can go to school at an early age, and go regularly, the average age of those in the second book is between ten and eleven. Under the circumstances they should be able to read all the four books of the Ontario series at nine, and they should be able to read any ordinary English book at ten. Were a proper reading test applied to candidates at the entrance examination not one in a dozen would pass. As matters stand, progress in reading is slow and uncertain, many things that ought to be learned have to be taught, and the general result is unsatisfactory. What is the cause? The adoption of wrong methods of teaching. The methods in vogue are the Look and Say, and the Phonic, so called. I never knew a school in which the reading of English was taught in a reasonable time on the Look and Say plan, or on the Phonic plan as generally practiced, or by a combination of the two. I never heard of such a school. I don't believe there is one. Of all the plans hitherto devised for teaching the reading of English, the Alphabetic is the shortest, the easiest, the most philosophic, and incomparably the best. How, it may be asked, has the Alphabetic mode of teaching reading been so generally discarded, and modes so ineffective substituted? Chiefly, I think, in consequence of undue haste, admiration of showy results that are of little general and permanent value, and the adoption of wrong plans for overcoming the imperfections of our alphabet. There is a *mechanism of reading* (as

there is of most other subjects) that must be thoroughly mastered before the advantages of reading can be fully reached and enjoyed. We cannot have the bud, the blossom, the formed fruit, the fully grown fruit, and the fully matured fruit, from the beginning, as some shallow theorists would have us believe. Much that is mechanical must be patiently taught, patiently learned.

What is reading? The interpretation of a system of conventional signs. The chief signs are (1) letters, (2) syllables and words, (3) phrases, and (4) sentences. Now there are two maxims of great importance in teaching any subject; first, "Teach one thing at a time," and second, "Teach the simple before the compound or the complex." In reading, the letters are the simple. They should be taught first. They are few; and the others are many. An additional reason that they should be taught first. All the others are represented by the letters. A further reason that the letters should be taught first. They should be taught in order. They must be learned in order some time. At the beginning is the best time. The best forms to teach first are vertical script. They should be large, simple, and perfectly formed. By repeated tracings the children should be made familiar with the names, forms and order of the letters, and their hands accustomed to the motions necessary to produce them. In naming the five vowels (a, e, i, o, u) the ordinary names should be used. The names of c, g, h, q, w, y and z should be changed, for reasons that I shall endeavour to make apparent. Most of the consonants have phonic names, that is, names that denote their functions. No improvement could be made in naming b. The function of the letter is perfectly given in the name, and in the shortest from. The function of f is given in its name and in the shortest form. All consonants should be named like one or other of these two; that is, with a simple vowel after or before. It is well to remember that a consonant does not represent a sound. It represents how a sound begins or how a sound ends. The sound of b cannot be given. It has none. It has an effect, and that effect is perfectly shown in the name *be*. *Be* is the name, b . . the attempted Phonics. The former is a vastly more effective instrument for teaching and learning than the latter. It is familiar; it is easily made audible; it is easily learnt; is much more easily, and much more rapidly applied. So of all the consonants. The name is better than the attempted phonics.

The letter that we call *se* was originally called *ka*. The change in name was probably made by the Normans. The letter has the *ka* function ten times as often as the *se* function, and fifteen times as often as *k* itself. When the frequency with which

this letter is used is taken into account, calling it by a wrong name is a serious drawback to a learner. Nine words out of every hundred as they occur in a good English dictionary begin with this letter when it has the *ka* function. As a final letter it always has that function, and in a median position it has it more frequently than that of *se*. In the first part of the first book of the Ontario Readers it is used in only one word with the *se* function, and that is in the word "once." By the wrong name given to this one letter, probably more than fifteen per cent. of all the words of the language are made much more difficult than they otherwise would be, and the progress of children is retarded from six months to a year. We cannot restore its original name *ka*, but we can give it one equally good. *Ke* is an easy word, a familiar word, and should under the circumstances be the name of the third letter of our alphabet. All the organs of speech in beginning to pronounce the word *ke* assume the same position that they do when beginning to pronounce such words as cat, cot, cute, clime, clam, crop, crater, etc.

More than three per cent. of English words begin with the letter we call *je*. In eighty-five out of every hundred of these the initial function is that in *ge* (as in geese), and only fifteen that in *je*. As a final letter it has always the *ge* function, and in a median position it generally has it. Calling it by the name *ge* is in teaching and learning a by no means inconsiderable advantage, as will be evident in naming over the words go, got, gun, gone, grass, glad, grope, bag, flag, frog, grog, etc.

The letter that we call *aitch* begins more than three and a half per cent. of our words. Its function is now always initial, and is never that heard in its name. A name should be found for this letter as for *b* by adding *e* to it. *He* is a name giving its function to perfection, as will be seen in naming hat, hem, home, hard, here, hire, horse, hurl, etc. Every one beginning like *he*; not one beginning like *aitch*. No wonder the Englishman handles this letter so badly, since it has such an outrageous name.

Q. The name *ku* contains more than is necessary, and is, besides, a difficult sound for many children to utter. *Koo* contains all that is needed, and is easy to pronounce.

The next two letters are used both as consonants and vowels. This double use must be kept in view in naming them.

Double u is a cumbrous name. At one time it was descriptive of the shape of the letter to which it is applied. It is not so now. The letter ought to be called *woo*; the letter itself showing its use as a consonant, and *oo* showing its chief use as a vowel.

The appropriateness of the name will appear in the words win, wit, went, wait, west, William, new, blew, etc.

Y is peculiarly named. Its consonantal function is not in its name. It would be just as philosophic to call the letter *b* by the name *de* as to call this letter by its usual name. It should be called *yi*. This will be evident from naming the words yet, yes, yard, yarn, yell, yoke, yonder, etc.; every one beginning like *yi*, and not one like *wi*.

The last letter should be called *ze*. There is little more reason for calling it *zed* than there is for calling *b bed*, or *d ded*. The propriety of calling it *ze* is apparent from zeal, zest, zone, zenith, zigzag, zodiac, etc.

The names of the letters as they ought to be taught are: a, be, ke, de; e, ef, ge, he; i, ja, ka, el; em, en, o, pe; koo, ar, es, te; u, ve; woo, eks, yi, ze. The changes suggested facilitate learning no matter what mode of teaching may be adopted. They are equally applicable to the Alphabetic, the Look and Say and the, so called, Phonic method of teaching, or any combination of these.

There are a number of compound letters which should also receive names. The compound vowels are *oo*, as in ooze; *au*, as in aught, and *aw*, as in awl; *ou*, as in out, and *ow*, as in owl; *oi*, as in oil, and *oy*, as in oyster. The compound consonants are: *Ch* (che), *ck* (ek), *gh* (af), *ph* (fe), *qu* (kwe), *sh* (she), *tch* (etch), *th* (the sharp), *th* (the flat), and *wh* (hwe). The advantage of giving these names will be shewn farther on.

Syllables and Words. These may be taught as they occur in sentences. Taught in this way the labour is great, the progress slow, and the result far from the best. They should be taught in families and the regularities presented first.

Ab. This is the beginning, the first part of a family. It illustrates a very important principle in English: *A vowel before a consonant is short*. Ab, bab, cab, dab, fab, gab, hab, jab, lab, mab, nab, pab, rab, tab, blab, flab, slab, crab, drab, grab. Here are a considerable number of words or syllables. In certain particulars they are alike, both to the eye and to the ear. No two of them are exactly alike. To distinguish them requires accurate observation and strict attention. No better object lesson could be set before children to develop and strengthen these important mental qualities. They should spell and pronounce them in order, backwards, promiscuously. Write them. Drop the spelling and pronounce only. Dwell upon until thoroughly known. Take up the families founded upon ad, ag, am, an, etc., treating in the same way. Each will be mastered in a shorter time than

the preceding. Ere long a family will be known as soon as presented. And, band, cand, dand, fand, gand, hand, land, mand, nand, pand, rand, tand, bland, gland, brand, grand, stand, strand. Similar on ang, ank, ant, arb, ard, arl, etc.

When syllables and words of one syllable founded on the short *a* digrams are thoroughly mastered, similar exercises should be given on short e, i, o and u, successively; ed, bed, fed, led, med, ned, ped, red, ted, wed, zed, bled, fled, pled, sled, bred, fred, pred, tred, etc.; in, bin, din, fin, hin, jin, kin, lin, min, nin, pin, rin, sin, tin, vin, win, zin, blin, flin, glin, plin, brin, frin, grin, prin, swin, etc.; og, bog, cog, dog, fog, hog, jog, log, mog, nog, pog, rog, tog, blog, clog, flog, frog, prog, etc.; un, bun, cun, dun, fun, gun, hun, jun, lun, mun, nun, pun, run, tun, blun, flun, plun, brun, crun, grun, prun, stun, trun, etc.

Some may say children will not be interested in this kind of work. This is a mistake. Children are interested in any work not beyond their powers, and continue interested until they can do it well. If there be a lack of interest, the fault is in the teacher.

On account of the slow and unsatisfactory progress made by the modes of teaching usually employed some are advocating beginning with a sentence. If this mode be tried it will make matters worse. The learners will have to think of the letters, the words, the phrases, and the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Their attention will be distracted. They will become bewildered, discouraged, indifferent. They will come to have no ambition, beyond leaving it to the teacher to help them out.

Long vowels. *Ave.* In this *e* is silent, but it makes *a* long, an example of a very general expedient. From *ave* come, cave, Dave, lave, nave, pave, rave, save, wave, brave, crave, drave, grave, slave, stave, trave, strave. Have is left out because in it *e* is silent and useless. It is an evidence of defective teaching to introduce exceptions before the rule is impressed upon the learner, unless in unavoidable cases. Ere: dere, fere, here, jere, lere, mere, nere, pere, rere, sere, tere, stere, etc. Ite: bite, dite, kite, lite, mite, nite, pite, rite, tite, vite, smite, spite, trite, strite, etc. Ore: bore, core, fore, gore, hore, lore, more, nore, pore, tore, store, plore, etc. Ute: Bute, cute, jute, lute, mute, pute, tute, flute, etc. Other expedients should be shown and learnt, as in maid, plead, meet, etc.

The naming of the double vowels as taught by those who practice the so-called Phonic system, is the only part of their system that can be defended on philosophic grounds. *Oo*, as in ooze, too, tool, stool, pool, spool, loom, bloom, gloom, room, broom,

groom, loon, coon, Doon, coop, hoop, loop, coot, hoot, crook, croon, etc. *Au* as in aught. Caul, Gaul, haul, maul, Paul, Saul, daunt, gaunt, haunt, taunt, vaunt, fault, vault, etc. *Aw*, as in awl, awn, pawn, spawn, raw, draw, drawn, craw, sprawl, crawl, etc. *Ou*, as in out, bout, gout, lout, pout, flout, snout, spout, stout, bound, found, hound, wound, count, house, mouse, grouse, etc. We have to teach, perhaps, five hundred words in which the combination *ou* occurs. In about four hundred of them it is perfectly regular; in a considerable number of the remainder (chiefly of French origin) it is like *oo*; and in some very common words it has various sounds, generally like a sound of one of its parts. In though, it is like *o long*; in cough, like *o short*; in tough, like *u short*; and in thought, like *aw*. *Ow*, as in owl. Fowl, cowl, howl (an Irishman would be inclined to include bowl), brow, brown, crown, drown, frown, gown, etc. In many words *w* is silent but lengthens *o*, as in grown, sown, blown, etc. *Oi*, as in oil, boil, coil, foil, soil, toil, spoil, broil, noise, poise, foist, hoist, moist, roist, coif, coin, join, loin, etc. *Oy*, as in boy, coy, foy, hoy, joy, roy, toy, and the proper names Boyle, Coyle, Doyle, Hoyle. This is spelling according to Hoyle and Coyle.

Compound Consonants. *Ch* (che). Chap, chat, chin, chit, chop, chum, charm, chase, cheap, cheer, cheat, chide, child. As a terminal: each, teach, peach, preach, such, much, march, parch, etc. Of this combination sixty-six per cent. is regular, as in cheese; twenty-eight per cent., chiefly from the Greek, like *c*, as in chasm; and six per cent., chiefly from the French, like *sh*, as in chaise. *Ck* (ek). There are four characters which have the same main function, c, *k*, *q* and *ck*. They can be distinguished phonically only by name, *ke*, *ka*, *koo*, and *ck*; four characters, four names, one phonics, and that phonics in each name in the simplest form. Back, Jack, peck, deck, rick, brick, trick, rock, brock, crock, luck, cluck, speck, slack, truck, etc. The ability to pronounce a word depends on two things: (1) naming the parts, either by letter or phonically, and (2) the rapidity with which this is done. The fewer the parts, and the more rapidly they are put together, the more likely the pronunciation is to follow. *Gh* (af). We have three characters, *f*, *gh*, and *ph*, whose function is the same. They can be distinguished by naming them *ef*, *af*, and *fe*; three symbols, three names, one function, and that function in each name in the simplest form. Laugh, cough, trough, slough, etc. *Ph* (fe). Phase, phasm, phiz, phlox, phone, phrase, etc. *Qu* (kwe). Quack, quail, quart, quench, quick, quite, quoit, quote, queer, etc. *Sh* (she). Shad, shed, ship, shod, shut, sharp, shaw, shoal, shoot,

shout, show, cash, gash, hash, hush, slush, (bush and push are not here given because irregular, *u* being like *oo short*). *Tch* (etch). This, in English, is generally used as a terminal. *Ch* and *tch* have the same function, as will be seen from examining the words such and Dutch. Their names *che* and *etch* distinguish them, and give their function in the simplest way. *Tch* (etch). Batch, match, snatch, fetch, stretch, retch, ditch, pitch, stitch, witch, switch, botch, scotch, crotch, clutch, smutch, etc. *Th* (the sharp). Theme, thank, thatch, thick, think, thread (*a* silent and useless), thrush, thwack, thwart, (*a* like *o short*, as it generally is after *w*). If anomalies and absurdities are referred to as they occur until thoroughly known, and are thus brought prominently before the people at large, they will, after a while, be removed, "a consummation devoutly to be wished." *Th* (the flat). This, thine, these, those, that, them, etc. *Wh* (hwe). The order of the letters of this digraph has become inverted. Whale, wheat, which, whack, whim, while, whin, whisk, etc.

Thus far words of one syllable in their simplest form have been chiefly dealt with. It now remains to say a little of teaching various forms, and of words of more than one syllable. They should still be dealt with in families: bat, bats, batter, batters, battering, batterings, battered, batten, battens, battened, battening, baton, batons; fat, fats, fatten, fattens, fattening, fattened, fatter, fattest, fattening; let, lets, letter, letters, lettered, lettering; fetter, fetters, fettered, fettering; titter, titters, tittering, titterings, tittered, titterer, titterers; twit, twits, twittering, twitted, twitter, twittered, twittering, twitterings; blot, blots, blotter, blotters, blotting, blotted; flog, flogs, flogged, flogging, floggings, flogger, floggers; cut, cuts, cutter, cutters, cutting, cuttings; ding, dings, dinging; sing, sings, singing; fling, flings, flinging; think, thinks, thinking; wink, winks, winking; blink, blinks, blinking, etc. In order to distinguish the above words the learner must examine them thoroughly with both eye and ear. Words should not be left as the main object, until the name of any ordinary word can be pronounced readily at sight.

The next great step is a knowledge of phrases. Begin with the (1) *A Phrase*: A bat, a hen, a pig, a fox, a bun, a slip, a leaf, a trunk, a branch, a railway, etc. In these phrases *a* is short and obscure. (2) *The Phrase*: the barn, the house, the stable, the horse, the buggy, the bran-box, the shovel, the curry-comb, the horse-shoe, the telephone, etc. (In the foregoing the *e* in *the*

is both short and obscure). The eagle, the owl, the old pasture, the ugly dog, the oyster-bed, the answering echo, the Indian warrior, the unanswered letter, etc. (3) Other adjective and noun phrases: Humble name, ugly customer, great expectations, magnificent results, glorious victory, transcendent genius, multitudinous phrases, etc. (4) Prepositional phrases: At a time, at a house, at a church, at a dwelling, etc. (Changing the noun leads to the emphasis being placed on it, which is what is wanted). To the cart, to the buggy, to the waggon, to the steam-engine, to the telephone-bell, to the front window, etc. Similar phrases with in, on, by, up, of, off. Down the hill, down the river, down the deep ravine, down the horrid cavern, etc. Similar with from, past, round, save, since, till, for, with, through. After the wedding, after the noontide, after the shower, after the thunderstorm, after the great victory, etc. Similar with about, above, across, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, during, except, into, over, out of, toward, towards, under, until, unto, upon, within, without, touching, athwart, throughout, underneath, excepting, regarding, respecting, concerning, notwithstanding. A thorough knowledge of prepositional phrases goes a long way towards making an accomplished reader.

The Sentence is the grand object to which we have hitherto been working. The most important thing in reading a sentence is making a proper division of it. The parts into which a sentence ought to be divided may be called Reading Phrases. *A Reading Phrase is all the words uttered without pause.* A few examples will be given in which the reading phrases will be numbered. (1) The little boy (2) tore his clothes. (1) For three days (2) no one (3) dared (4) to carry the intelligence to the King. (1) In the tropical forests of America and Asia (2) the vanilla (3) whose fruit is so sought after for its sweet aroma (4) twines its slender stem round the neighbouring trees (5) forming an elegant, flexible, and aerial garland (6) an ornament in these solitudes (7) at once grateful and pleasing. (1) Without a telescope (2) we can see at once (3) about three thousand stars (4) so that (5) as we see only half the star-sphere at one time (6) about six thousand stars can be seen in all. The phrases should be drilled upon separately, then the sentence as a whole, paying attention to emphasis and inflection. Some phrases should be rendered parenthetically. The blackboard should be used. Reading classes should be small. If class is large divide into sections.

Following the course outlined, children of six years of age should be able to name all the letters, point them out, trace them and write them in two months ; in six months more they should be able to pronounce most words at sight ; and after a month's drill on phrases, and another month's drill on sentences, they should be able to read an ordinary sentence fairly well. They should be good readers of books at the end of their second year of school ; and, taking it for granted that their teachers are such, they should be accomplished readers at the end of their third year.

NATIONAL PATRIOTISM.

W. IRWIN, FLESHERTON.

When I was asked to prepare a paper for this association I felt very reluctant about doing so, not that I desired to escape doing my duty in any way, but I feared to put myself in the way of other teachers whose wider experience and higher range of thought would enable them to present material more practical, more valuable, and more capable of being turned to good account than anything I could say or do; and I had almost decided to decline when I thought how inconsistent I would thus show myself to be, inasmuch as I have always tried to take an active interest in our local institutes, and to encourage others to introduce subjects that might be beneficial in our own community. A paper may be lacking in merit and yet furnish material for profitable discussion; moreover, I believe it to be the duty of every teacher to reveal what he knows if such revelation have any tendency towards the betterment of the condition of the people, the evolution of true citizenship, and the development of true character. It should be the aim of every teacher to give to the world the result of his experience, or the benefits of any discoveries he may have made from a thoughtful investigation of any subject he has carefully considered. In view of these facts I decided to be consistent, and in introducing the subject of "National Patriotism" I do so with the sincere hope that the defects of the introduction will be more than counteracted by the merits of the discussion.

To many of our teachers, who are already overworked in the preparation of candidates for the various literary examinations, it may seem an injustice to expect them to do anything towards the inculcation of a patriotic sentiment; yet since education should fit a person for true citizenship, and true citizenship must be coexistent with love of country, it follows that the teacher who fails to instil into the hearts and minds of his pupils a feeling of loyalty to their fatherland fails to perform one of the highest functions of the true teacher.

Patriotism is defined to be "Love and devotion to one's country; the spirit that prompts to obedience to its laws, to the support and defence of its existence, rights and institutions, and to the promotion of its welfare." This is a comprehensive definition, but to die for one's country is perhaps a more popular and

a more ancient definition of patriotism. We don't always want to die, and, while it is our privilege to live, we may live for our country in such manner as to act the part of the truest patriots by using the talents God has given us in striving to elevate humanity to a higher plane of true Christian brotherhood, and as teachers, with an influence as lasting as eternity itself, we should do our very best for the universal good.

We want a broader patriotism than that which is limited by national boundaries, and to grasp these higher ideals of true greatness, and to appropriate to ourselves, and to incorporate into our constitution, what has proved a blessing in the constitution of any other truly great and prosperous nation should be the ambition of every subject, and until we are willing to do this we fail to fill properly the highest duty of the best type of citizen. This leads us to realize the absolute importance of knowing not only the history and civil government of our own country, but also the history and government of every nation that leads the van in social, political and religious reform. We all admire, no doubt, this truly catholic spirit of a universal patriotism, yet the ties of nature force us into a deeper love for that land which we are pleased to call by the endearing name of *Home*.

Patriotism is an essential factor in national greatness, and the greater degree to which this love-of-country spirit is developed the greater will be the height to which such country will ultimately and inevitably rise among the nations of the world. In order to have a true love for our country we must have a full conception of everything true and noble and great that our country possesses or is capable of producing, and seeing that we have many things worthy of our admiration we will be forced to form for our native or adopted land a love that can never be estranged.

Patriotism prompts to obedience to the laws of a country; but I believe only so far as these laws can be shown to be good laws. In a democratic country like our own, the governments are made *by* the people and *for* the people, and our representatives in parliament are there because of the expressed wish of the majority of their constituents. Once in power, the partisan politician feels the political pulse of his supporters, allows self-interest to overrule judgment, and legislates with a view to securing a majority vote at the next election. The political partisan, who swears allegiance to any one political party, and who blindly upholds its actions through evil as well as good report, is not a national patriot, but a political bigot. Now, since the people make the legislators, and the legislators make the laws, it is

not difficult to infer that the character of the laws reflects in some measure the character of the majority of the people. The patriot is liberal in his views, and willing to allow to others the freedom he claims for himself. The political bigot is narrow-minded and intolerant, and sees nothing good outside of his own opinion. The patriot recognizes the importance and rights of other people and other lands. The bigot sees nothing in them worthy of his recognition. The patriot lives for the good of his country, but the bigot lives only for self and party. Principal Grant says: "The school should teach patriotism, but let us not forget that there is as great a difference between patriotism and the blatant, arrogant, spread-eagleism as there is between enthusiasm and fanaticism; the one is healthy and full of generous inspirations, and the other unhealthy and the destroyer of patriotism and morality. The one teaches us to love our own land and race first; the other teaches us to hate men for the love of God or the love of country." We have also a pessimistic class, who never see anything good at home, who are always grumbling about our country, our governments, and all our other institutions. They are always attracted by the bright spots in some distant picture, which portrays to them the golden treasures of some far-off land where without much toil they may ever reap a bountiful harvest; but while gazing on the shadow they lose sight of the substance.

The success of this association, or of any similar institution, depends largely, I may say wholly, upon the efforts of its members to make it successful, and to achieve the best possible results we must have unanimity and interest. If to make this meeting a success we have each a duty to perform, it must be equally true that each has a duty devolving upon him in the national development of the country to which he belongs. If our country is lacking in prosperity, whom should we blame? If our governments are corrupt, are we using our vote and influence to make them pure? If not, are we doing our duty as true patriots?

The patriotic spirit of a country must be kept alive. If the flame die out its independent national existence is doomed. Were it not for the self-reliance, unity and patriotism of the ancient Greeks, their names would never have been handed down the pages of history as the conquerors of the largest army of which history has any record. Were it not for the intense and burning patriotism of her subjects Scotland would never have had a Bannockburn. History falsifies fact when it teaches that the English conquered Scotland. The patriotic love of native land still

burned in the hearts of the Scottish people, and they only awaited a favorable opportunity to reassert their independence, and later on this said-to-be conquered country gave to England a crowned head, one of whose descendants to-day sways the sceptre of that mighty empire whose colonies encircle the globe. A truly patriotic people knows no such thing as conquest. Goldsmith says:—

> The shuddering tenant of the frigid zone
> Boldly proclaims the happiest spot his own ;
> The naked negro panting at the line
> Boasts of his golden sands and palmy wine.

Here we have a text affording us a beautiful picture of contentment—one of the most potent forces in building up a national loyalty and engendering a love that is characteristic of and essential to true patriotism. Now, let us look at our own country, see what we have to be proud of, and investigate by what means we can imbue the minds and hearts of our pupils with a love for their native land.

We have much to stimulate a pardonable pride—an extensive territory of fertile soil, vast mineral wealth, valuable timber areas, a most salubrious climate, an inland water communication such as few other countries can boast of, world-renowned fisheries, a network of over twelve thousand miles of railway and telegraphic and telephonic communication, unsurpassed in proportion to our requirements by any other land. Our postal system is almost perfect, and our civil and religious institutions are worthy of our deepest admiration. Our country is young; the industry, skill and energy of our forefathers have transformed it from its primeval solitude into smiling gardens, luxuriant cornfields, and populous marts of trade. Our sails of commerce are wafted by the breeze of every ocean, and our merchandise is entering nearly every port; and now, even young as we are, we occupy the third or fourth position among the trading nations of the world. In science, art and literature we occupy no mean position, and the possibilities and developments of the twentieth century no one dares to predict.

In the educational world we are making phenomenal advancement. We consider our school system second to none, each department being so related to the other as to form an educational ladder from the kindergarten to the university, yet fifty years ago our school system was in its infancy. Schools then were few and teachers of scholastic attainments hard to procure. The teacher of the past, viewed in the light of modern advancement, was a

mere tradesman; the true teacher of to-day is an educational artist. His work then was mechanical; his work now is scientific. The teacher of the present must understand the nature of the material on which he works. He must be able to take a psychological view of the child's mind, and knowing its operations he is able to impart instruction by the most modern and most rational methods. The child of the past was often treated as if he were a mere passive recipient; but the child now is an active agent in the acquisition of knowledge, so that teacher and taught are coworkers in the harmonious and symmetrical development of all the intellectual faculties. Our teachers, with few exceptions, are men and women of principle, integrity and uprightness of moral character; and if it be true that "like begets like," we must have growing up amongst us and around us an army of boys and girls who will develop into men and women of the same stamp. Let us have truly patriotic teachers, and we'll soon have a patriotic people that will defy the very worst forms of despotism. We don't want special text books on patriotism. We don't want long-winded sermons on loyalty, but we do want an army of teachers so full of love for their country, and for the institutions of their country, that their whole lives will be one long sermon on patriotism. The patriotic teacher will find many opportunities for introducing incidentally the principal points by which the child will be unconsciously led to be patriotic. Some of our reading lessons are spiced with patriotic touches; our geography tells us of our territorial extent, our connection with the mother country, and the important position we hold in our relation with other lands through her; our histories tell us of our heroes and give us lessons in civil government; and by a proper development of themes like these, the teacher will find means to inspire his pupils with a spirit of true loyalty. An eminent American educator says: "Every school should teach lessons in civics and patriotism. Whenever the sentiment in any lesson of any study touches the important field of civics, the mind of the pupil should be imbued with its nobility. The teacher should remember that all studies at some time touch the field of civics, and should develop these lessons. Reading and literature are full of passages fraught with sentiments of love for our country, of confidence in our free institutions, and of respect for our nation's benefactors. Lessons in civics may be learned from geography when it treats of our material resources; from arithmetic when it deals with taxes or duties; physiology when it teaches to preserve health and develop power in the individual that he may be

a stronger and better factor in the government. Interesting object lessons may be given by taking the classes to court-rooms, council chambers and legislative halls, where they may observe for themselves the processes of government in actual operation. In addition to all this, leading economic questions should be selected for free discussion. By this means the pupils are not only profited by drill in debate, but are put in possession of the power to investigate for themselves all questions of public importance, and they also acquire the power and courage necessary to stand and defend their views."

The teacher should realize that he occupies an influential position second to no other man, not even the clergyman. We may form a slight estimate of his power in controlling the character of the future if we remember that the minister's way to the pulpit, the lawyer's way to the bar, the politician's way to parliament, and the merchant's way to the counting-house, as well as the farmer's way to the plough, all pass through the school-room; and the teacher possessed of the right kind of personality has the opportunity of wielding a mighty power in influencing the life and character of all future generations, and inculcating into the minds of all classes a love for what he loves and a hatred for what he hates. How important it is, therefore, that the mind-moulders of a country, the character-builders of a nation, should be men and women fired with all the nobler qualities that go to make a perfect manhood. Bearing these facts in mind and feeling that "children are the to-morrow of society," it is essentially necessary for our truly progressive country that every school should have at its head a truly patriotic teacher, whose spirit of enthusiastic loyalty may be so infectious as to be caught and cherished by every Canadian from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

As Canadians we should teach more of Canada, and in teaching Canada we should teach it as only one colony of that vast British Empire on whose dominions the sun never sets. We should have a Canadian History, fearless in exalting the great actions of Canada's great men. We should know more of the geography of our own country. We should know more of our commercial relations, the value of our exports from various sources, our imports, our material advancement, and our relative position in the commercial world—in short, we should know our geography, which consists of more than a knowledge of a few cities, lakes and rivers. We should honor our country's flag and know its significance, and in studying as a patriotic object lesson the crosses of St. George, St. Andrew and St.

Patrick, we must appreciate the fact that these emblems are typical of a triune power, ready and willing and able to protect us from any insult that would bring dishonor upon our national escutcheon. Let us hope that the new national flag will have emblazoned upon it an ensign worthy of "the land of the maple leaf."

It must not be thought that the patriotic spirit of the past is on the wane. At times when peace and order reign supreme it does seem that our people are lacking in patriotic sentiment; but let once the war cloud, or any other disturbing element, begin to darken our horizon and we soon find a people who are willing to sacrifice time and property, yea, even life itself, in defence of their country; and the same spirit that characterized our ancestors in the past would manifest itself in the present generation to defend us from dishonor. We want a growing loyalty, a progressive patriotism, and we must look to our schools to get it.

We cannot fail to admire the superlative, shall I say omnipotent, loyalty of our neighbors to the south of us, and I believe that we, as Canadians, might do worse than to take a leaf from their book, and do our "level" best, as they are doing, to build up a national love of country. Yet I do not think it would be wise to carry out to the full the principles practised by our American cousins. The children in the great American union are grounded and drilled in the history and geography of their own country. We believe this to be right, yet we as sincerely believe in a broader knowledge and a broader liberalism than that which sees everything worthy of admiration within the political boundaries of any one country. I have no reason to assert positively that the American children are taught that the sun rises in Boston harbor and sets at the Golden Gate, but there are some who act as if they really believed it to be so. Notwithstanding this, we feel like honoring the young American for his enthusiastic loyalty, and we are looking forward hopefully to the time in the near future when Canadians will appreciate Canada as much as the Americans do the United States. The American mother teaches her infant child about George Washington's hatchet and the favorite cherry tree, and admonishes her dear one to emulate the virtues, particularly the truthfulness, of that good old father of his country. It is scarcely necessary to say that some forget their first lesson. The remaining presidents are next taken in order; all their virtues are instilled into the child's mind, and by the time he enters school the boy has learned about all the presidents, and has had his first lessons in patriotism; the work is carried on in the school and practised throughout life. Is it not possible to

find in our Canadian schools pupils in the highest forms, and perhaps teachers, who would hesitate before naming the governors of Canada since confederation? This knowledge in itself may not be of any great educational value, yet it would be well for every Canadian pupil to have a tolerably good knowledge of the history of his own country. Perhaps there are still those who think, as some of my teachers did, that Canada has no history. Let such a one read Parkman's admirable works, and he will find that Canada has a history, and a history, too, whose truth is stranger than fiction. We have other writers on the same and different periods, whose works are equally interesting, and, though the introduction of such voluminous works into the school-room would be out of the question, the teacher's knowledge of their contents would enable him to vitalize the dry bones of history, as it is often presented, and to divert many a child's mind from reading with suicidal relish a class of literature that saps the intellect, destroys the manhood, and unfits a person for true citizenship.

So far I have endeavored to give a presentation of the subject from a rational standpoint. We can hardly hope to make true patriots through intellectual training alone. We are all more or less emotional. We need to cultivate the heart as well as the head, and I believe there is no more powerful means of touching the emotional side of a man's nature than through the power of song; hence the necessity for teaching in all our schools those patriotic gems of national song whose influence fires the soul and awakens the emotions. The poet says, "Let me make the songs of the people and I care not who makes the laws." In the teaching of song, as in everything else, the teacher must *feel* what he is doing. "O Pedagogy, how long wilt thou continue to darken wisdom with thy rules, leading-strings and machineries!" We have too much conventionality in our teaching, and we will hail with delight the advent of the time when the teacher will be measured by his ability to make true citizens rather than his aptitude to cram intellectual storks for the passing of some literary tests. We want a loyal people if we are ever to be a great nation. We should love and respect our country's flag, and from every schoolhouse throughout the length and breadth of the land it should be seen floating on every national holiday. We should have a patriotic school paper, unstained by party politics. We should have a day in each year devoted to the commemoration of our dead heroes and our patriots of the past. We should know the lives and characters of our nation's benefactors, and try to emulate their virtues. The teacher should be able to put on an emotional garb, and

awaken the emotions of his pupils by a touching appeal to their sympathies, in explaining the conduct of our heroes. We have had few wars. In no case have we been the aggressors. Our school history says very little—much too little, to give us inspiration. Let us supplement these dry facts when we can, by reading to our classes literary gems whose tendency is to awaken the emotions. The reading of Hull's bombastic proclamation to the Canadians, coupled with a touching word-picture of his subsequent cowardice when he saw the first redcoat, and heard the yell of the first Indian, will give to "the war of 1812" a vividness it never had before. The teacher must feel what he teaches, and weep if necessary to give emphasis to his teaching.

We want a system of ethics that will not stop with the individual, but extend from the centre to the circumference of all our corporations, even to our legislative halls, for after all we may say and do, we cannot have a truly loyal, happy and progressive people unless the light of our constitution is made to shine in the hearts and homes of all classes; then, and only then, can we look for the truest loyalty, and feel that Canada is a habitation of patriotism, and the teachers of our public schools are the Archimedean levers to whom we must look for the accomplishment of this great end.

Permit me to say a few words with reference to the qualifications of the teachers who can aid in bringing about these results. The state says he must have enough intellectual power to enable him to pass his literary examinations; he must have good morals, but his certificate fails, and ever will fail, to show his percentage of morality. There are other forces without which no teacher can be successful in building up a true citizenship. He must be truly patriotic; he must have character; he must have a strong personality; he must have sympathy, and he must have will power. How is it that a teacher of Herculean strength physically has a school that might well be characterized as a pandemonium, while under the influence of another, with scarcely strength enough to endure the fatigue of the labor, the same school is soon changed into a paradise? The former is lacking in that decision of character necessary to the enforcement of his own authority. A person who lacks will power or the ability to exercise it should never be a teacher.

As to *what* we should teach, I cannot express it better than in the words of a liberal-minded American: "Teaching patriotism," he says, "is teaching love of home and native land; love for the flag, whether it be the Union Jack of grand old Eng-

land, or the Star Spangled Banner of our glorious American Union. Teach the national airs, whether it be "God Save the Queen," "America" or the "Marseillaise" hymn. Teach patriotism as you teach national history; teach loyalty and fidelity to the government, whether that government be a republic, an empire or a kingdom. Teach the duty of true citizenship. Teach the triumph of national genius. Teach the achievements of nations. Teach the richness and productiveness of the nation's soil. Teach the grandeur and the beauty of the nation's art, and of its scenery. Teach everything, and anything, in fact, in nature or in the nations, or in individuals, which will make the student stronger, which will make him patriotic, faithful and true. Teach a patriotism to our children, a love of country, of our country's traditions, of the traditions of our mothers, of our country in the past, of our country in its present pride and power, and our country in its future and great destiny; its vast resources, constitutional liberty, and above all, our country in its freedom and union forever."

EQUIPMENT OF RURAL SCHOOLS—PRESENT CONDITION AND HOW IMPROVED.

(AN ABSTRACT.)

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Grounds.—The usual size of the grounds in our rural sections is one-half acre, which, in my opinion, is much too small. Foot-ball and baseball are the favorite schoolyard sports, and neither of these can be played with satisfaction on grounds of less than two acres, especially when provision is made for school-house, wood-house, well and outbuildings, proper portions fenced off as private resorts for the girls and the boys respectively, and all surrounded and ornamented with trees, shrubs, etc. The water supply, too often, is far from being satisfactory; in many yards there is no well, and frequently where a well has been provided the water is unfit for use. This is the case, not only where the trustees, through carelessness or indifference, have allowed the pump to get out of order, or the covering of the well to become defective, but also where the trustees have gone to a good deal of trouble to provide good water. It may be the result of some lack of care in finishing the well. The earth around it may not have been raised so as to throw off the surface water, and the platform tightly laid to prevent the waste water from the pump leaking through and mingling again with the water in the well. The closets are commonly too small, too much exposed, rough in construction, and in many cases untidily kept. Frequently they are without doors that can be properly fastened, or walks leading to them, and as they are commonly placed at the remote corners of the school-yard and near high fences, they frequently become filled in with snow during the storms of winter, and in some cases even buried beneath the snow banks. When making contracts for lighting the fires the trustees should provide for shovelling the snow from the walks leading to the closets and for keeping the closets clean. The health of the children, especially in rural sections, where so many of them take their dinners with them to school, and hence are from home comforts not less than eight hours each school day, demands that every effort be made to secure all needed conveniences in each school-yard.

School-house.—Comparatively few rural school-houses are well built. Teachers and pupils suffer in health and comfort from the effects of *bad ventilation* and *uneven temperature* in many of our rural schools. Commonly the only means of ventilation is by raising the windows and opening the doors. The windows are seldom hung on weights, and it is often with difficulty that they are let down from the top. The teacher and pupils become accustomed to the atmosphere of the room, and hence feel no immediate inconvenience from it, and prefer to continue to breathe the impure air rather than to take the trouble of adjusting the windows, and then to submit to the more disagreeable and perhaps equally dangerous experiment of standing or sitting in draughts. It is difficult to keep the temperature of a rural school-room uniform in winter. In a *single-roomed* building the walls are all exposed to the weather. Frequently cold draughts from open ventilators, or defects in the foundation, after circulating freely under the floor, keeping it cold, find their way through the floor into the room, and others enter through the wainscoting or defects in the walls. No amount of heat from a stove eight or ten inches above the floor will in such buildings keep the room warm and the temperature even throughout the room. It would be well if all school-rooms were heated by means of furnaces.

Supplies.—The regulations of the Education Department require that each school be supplied with good desks, maps, globe, clock, tablets, numeral frame, dictionary and gazetteer. To this list should be added at least a good tellurian and a modern encyclopædia. It would be helpful also if a cabinet were provided for each school, to contain such articles as an inch, a foot and a yard measure; an ounce and a pound weight, a cube, a cone, etc., etc., together with such little articles or specimens as could be easily supplied by the pupils in each section. With these at hand the teaching could be made much more *real* to the younger pupils at least than it is at present. It would be in the interest of education also if schools were furnished with single desks, as this would ensure greater independence in work on the part of the pupils and greater ease in discipline and management on the part of the teachers.

How Secured.—It is my opinion that we shall not have satisfactory school surroundings in our rural sections while the grants are distributed to the public schools as they are at present on *attendance* only. In the case of high schools the grants are distributed, not on attendance, but on the suitability of the grounds,

buildings, supplies, etc., and wisely so. If an impetus of this kind was found to be necessary to secure suitable surroundings in the case of high schools, situated as they are amidst the liberalizing influences of cities and towns, it is difficult to understand why some such impetus is not even more necessary in the case of rural schools. This plea is not so much for increased grants to our public schools as that the present grants to them be so distributed as to *awaken* and *encourage* local effort and liberality with a view to secure for the boys and the girls in our rural schools pleasant and healthful surroundings during the many years of their public school life.

EFFICIENCY OF OUR RURAL SCHOOLS.

D. W. PARSONS, DELHI.

I have no hope of saying anything new in regard to the efficiency or non-efficiency of our rural schools, but I am content to be a repeater, knowing that it is mainly by repetition that some lessons are instilled.

The rural schools of Ontario are accomplishing important work in so far as pupils are there taught to read, to write, and to do elementary operations in arithmetic. Certain facilities have been provided and parents have been compelled to make use of them, with the above results, and in some cases with the additional advantage of making some progress in grammar, history, geography, drawing and so forth.

There is reason to fear, however, that comparatively few go beyond this primitive mark sufficiently far to successfully grapple with the High School entrance examination.

I am aware that departmental examinations are not an absolute test of the work done, but I may be permitted to make use of them as a gauge, since they are the only statistical means the public have of judging of the efficiency of schools. In what may be considered, at the very least, an average county of Ontario, the proportion of successful entrance candidates stands at about two per cent. of the entire public school population. In this county are one town and four important incorporated villages, all containing flourishing public schools, and four of them efficient high schools. These centres, it will be readily understood, furnish the greater part of even this small percentage. Add to these a number of smaller villages, containing schools presumably superior to the purely rural school, and it follows that the proportion of entrance candidates from the latter is extremely small. If these results are to be taken as a fair average, then the time has fully come when we may properly consider whether we are not justified in taking a forward step and placing the education of our rural school pupils on a higher plane than it has hitherto occupied. Our financial ability, our social status, our prominent examples of Canadian brain and energy all assist in teaching us that nothing is too good for the Canadian boy or girl. In treating of the efficiency of our rural schools I readily admit and note with pleasure that in some cases the work is as good as can be desired, where not only entrance candidates are successfully

prepared, but where fifth form work is done, and that not perfunctorily, but with such thoroughness as to enable candidates to pass creditably the public school leaving, our first great boon, and in rare cases even the primary examinations. But this desirable evidence of enterprise in public school work is, without doubt, exceptional. Should any of our high school friends object to the word "desirable" in this connection, and claim that we are on their side of the fence, the difficulty may be easily remedied by moving the fence over. We have no right to view this matter from the standpoint of advantage or of disadvantage to any class of either schools or teachers. We have but one question to consider. What do the interests of the masses of the rural children of this country demand? I say with no hesitation that these masses can not afford the expense of attending our high schools and collegiate institutes, and the standard I have mentioned must, therefore, be obtained in their own rural school or not at all. "Continuation classes," a most important forward step, lessen the difficulty to but a part—the great mass is still on the outside. But some of my public school associates may complain that to impose such a burden is to place the proverbial last straw. I know that it involves a world of arduous labor, and a rare economy of force, but I know equally well that it is not in the region of the unattainable, and that were such a standard of work at all general it would lift our public schools and our public school teachers out of the stupifying and miasmatic swamps in which many of us now exist, up into a far healthier and more invigorating atmosphere. I have said this higher rural school work is exceptional. It must and will necessarily continue to be so until certain existing conditions are radically changed. The efficiency of a school is but another name for the efficiency of the teacher, and there is no gauge by which we can more accurately measure the character of the work done than by the capacity of the worker. Now, what are the facts? Hundreds upon hundreds of ambitious young men, with whom I find no fault, and whose ambition I commend, have set their mark high, and in order to reach it have been forced to make use of every legitimate financial device. Here comes in the old and never-failing standby, "teaching." It is not the chosen profession of this prostitutor, and he possibly regards it with such hatred and disgust that nothing short of the exigency of his case will compel him to swallow the nauseating dose, the only redeeming feature of which is that it is not to last. Should he happen, by a fortunate accident, to possess ability as a

teacher, his attention will be drawn away toward what he intends shall be his life work, so that in but few cases can we regard him as a really valuable acquisition.

These transient operators, augmented by a vast host of comparatively uncultured, untrained tyros, which ere long, at our present rate of progress, will be such as no man can number, have come sweeping down upon our rural schools, and to this crowd is to-day committed the task of educating the great mass of our rural school children. We are the rankest of optimists if we expect real and satisfactory progress either in the lower or higher stages of public school work to be the resultant of the spasmodic, desultory and in some cases destructive efforts of these passing teachers. The right of the people to this higher public school education is acknowledged. It forms a part of the public school curriculum, but it is practically nullified by the enforced absence of the strong professional teacher. He would be a great public benefactor who could invent a machine, a sort of fanning mill, that would sift out the grains of natural teachers from the bushels of chaff; but in the absence of this device, the next available thing is to induce our government to so perform its paternal functions that we may have the establishment and permanent maintenance of a class of professional teachers of such an order of merit as is demanded by the nature of the duties they have to perform—a profession built up and maintained not for the purpose of subserving the interests of its members, but because the educational interests of the country imperatively demands its existence—a profession none of whose capable members are degraded by the assumption that its members are unequal to the task of doing their own work. The obstacles obstructing the entrance to this profession should be such as to deter those who have not made this their chosen calling, and should be of such a standard of difficulty as to exclude those whose culture, power of inspiration and abilities are not commensurate with the high character and importance of the work. No certificate should be granted to one whose non-professional education is less than the junior leaving standard. The Model School should disappear with this much talked about primary teacher, and its place should be taken by the normal training school, in which the course should not be less than one year in duration. It is here that the pruning knife should be first applied, and that rigidly and unsparingly.

A novitiate of one year should follow, and here, I apprehend, will be the crucial test. The newly-fledged teacher will be thrown on his own resources in an ungraded school to sink or to swim.

The born teacher will assuredly come to the surface; the other will as surely sink. The experienced and observant inspector will rightly average him up, and if he fails to show that he is the possessor of the qualifications that should characterize the true teacher, his sun should go down. Government having gone thus far in the way of securing the taxpayer against imposition, and of guaranteeing him dollar for dollar, should, in the exercise of this same paternalism still further encourage and stimu'ate him by classifying schools and granting government aid very largely on the basis of this classification.

Should the so-called objection be urged that the poor boy or girl would be shut out from this means of earning a living, I only reply that it is a question of brains and of energy and not one of poverty, and moreover the profession is not for the individual, but for the people.

Should it be objected that many of our rural schools are so backward that the engagement of such an expert as I have outlined would be superfluous, I reply that while the well taught, forward school creates a necessity for its own existence, the poorly taught, backward one never did and never will create anything higher than the necessity for its existence. Should it be claimed that the responsibility of making such eliminations and classifications is too great for one poor inspector (do not understand me to mean either inefficient or poverty stricken), I answer let him have help if he cannot do it alone. The truth is that the great objection to these proposals lies in their excessive radicalism. Were it not for this, these changes, or changes analogous to them, would have little difficulty in their adoption. It is difficult to realize an ideal, but a system fashioned more or less closely after the model thus roughly traced would, I believe, contain the elements of success, and go far to rescue our rural school pupils from present inertia and impending danger.

TRANSITION FROM HOME TO SCHOOL.

MISS A. E. MACKENZIE, LONDON.

We are too apt, I think, to regard education as a preparation for life, when in reality it is life. We look to the future more than to the present, and the future in school is summed up in one word, "examinations." In dealing lately with a class of young teachers just graduated from the model school, I found that the great drawback to free work, to individual teaching, was the great necessity for having the pupils ready for another grade in so many months. They were afraid to take time for anything except the bare portion of work allotted them. Now, when we know that these are usually the teachers to whom are entrusted the little ones fresh from the free life of home, we cannot but be sorry for the children and for them.

One of the most well-known educational maxims, "From the known to the unknown," is almost entirely disregarded. They do not consider the reason for things. For example, I asked several teachers what was the first word taken up in reading, and nearly all said "cat." When questioned further as to the reason of the choice, all but one said, because they were taught so. There seemed to be no effort to begin in a natural way with something in which the children were already interested.

The question before us is a hard one to solve, i.e., how shall the chasm between the known world of home and the unknown world of school be bridged over? In building a bridge, the first thing to look to is the foundation, so we must begin with the home life in order to lay a firm foundation for the first arch. Education is life, and it must go on in an unbroken, continuous line, if it is to be true free life. The beginning of life for the child in the country is altogether different from that of the city child, and I cannot but think that in almost every respect it is a much better beginning. Life is slower—there is not the rush and bustle, the quickly succeeding impressions, which are apt to result in confusion and surface thinking. One has time for quiet observation, and patient waiting is everywhere emphasized (seed time and harvest), and the free open air is full of sweet sounds and perfumes, and everywhere the eye is rested with beautiful colors. There is little to hinder steady, sure growth of body, mind and spirit. From the midst of surroundings such as these a child is suddenly placed in a small unlovely building—not always noted for fresh air. He is compelled to sit for so many hours a

day on a seat not at all adapted to his size, and with slate and pencil, which he finds great difficulty in holding, he is set to make curious marks called figures and letters, or to stand before a card and utter peculiar sounds; all of which is meaningless to him. Can we wonder that it takes a long time for him to get any idea of the meaning of all this, and why is it? Simply because there has been too great a leap from home to school life. It is as if he had been set down in a foreign country, without knowing the language or the customs of the inhabitants.

The first step necessary to bridge over this break in life is to bring what we can of his former life into the school. Nature has been teaching the little one for five or six years, and her lessons are given in an orderly, slow, but sure way; many repetitions of the same principle but great variety in expression. Cause and effect have been so plainly taught that the child reasons out many problems which have puzzled older heads. His power of observation is most acute, for has he not watched the birds building their nests, the squirrel gathering nuts, the bees seeking for honey, the spider spinning its web, the fish darting about in the clear water, the habits of butterflies, grasshoppers and other innumerable living things? He has watched the fruit and grain ripen, and has searched out the hiding places of the shy wild flowers. He knows the nature and uses of the trees growing all about him, and is a friend of all the animals. He can read the face of the sky, and can endure without flinching a great strain on body and mind. He has been so surrounded by the manifestations of God in nature that he cannot but feel all about him that *love* which is *our life*, and so we find him with body and mind and soul well poised. If we could only continue this teaching and turn his already awakened interest and intense activity into the channel of school work, it would be, as some one has said, like turning the steam into the locomotive; we would, like Toddy, "see the wheels go round."

Could we not take as a groundwork for all study reading, mathematics, geography, drawing, etc., the wonderful works of nature with which he is familiar, systematize his experiences and wisely guide him into larger fields? Such lessons would be full of meaning to him, and his progress would be a hundred times more rapid than it has been when taught in the old dead way.

Collections of stones, flowers, leaves, animals, etc., would furnish the subjects for many a delightful language and number lesson, and who knows how many scientists might go out from that school, because they have learned to investigate thoroughly?

The child's social life has been limited to annual gatherings at Christmas or Thanksgiving; a rare visit to friends and the

weekly assembly at church are about all. This side of his nature will be enlarged by contact with the many different people in school, and the obligations of man to man are realized. The larger life of humanity may be gradually conceived through the visits of trustees (representatives of the school section), and of the inspector (representative of the Government), and a feeling of patriotism is begun in loyalty to the school and to the community in which he dwells; in fact the years spent in school are really not years of finishings, but years of beginnings, and the only thing we as teachers can do is to lead the children into the right paths, and acquaint them with their surroundings, and give the incentive for further investigation.

In the primary rooms in London there has been introduced lately some of the material used in the kindergarten—cards for sewing, folding paper sticks, etc.—all of which could be used to advantage in rural schools. If the students who attend the normal and model schools could be given time and opportunity to watch and study the methods and practical working of a kindergarten the effect on their schools would be very great. Songs and games have so much educational value, and yet even these are not made use of to any great extent. But there is almost no use in urging teachers to try methods such as these unless they have seen them in practice, and until people are educated to the idea that the best is the cheapest in the long run in both equipment and teachers.

We all have higher ideals than we reach, but it is no easy task to try to fulfil these in the present condition of our schools, though it is easier to do it in a rural school, where the children may remain with one teacher all their school course, and where there are not the distractions so inherent in city life. There is where a teacher can wield a power for good impossible when the children remain with one only a year.

We must have teachers thoroughly consecrated to their work. There must be some more material provided in the equipment of the schools (the use of which is thoroughly understood by the teacher). There must be some means of continuing the activity of the body, some work for the hands that have hitherto rarely been still, and the beauty of the outer world must be made of educational value by being reproduced in form, color and sound. There must be no break between the experiences of home and the new life upon which he has entered, or the structure built upon such an insecure foundation will fall at the first strain.

But though the necessity for all this is recognized, the question yet remains unsolved, How shall it be done?

PARENT AND TRUSTEE.

J. H. BURRITT, B.A., PEMBROKE.

Every member of a Board of Education or of a Board of School Trustees assumes, either expressly or by necessary implication, the obligation to discharge the duties of his office faithfully, vigilantly and for the best interests of those concerned in the trust.

As a Trustee he stands in an immediate relation to the Parent, the Pupil, and the Teacher.

It devolves upon me to discuss only his relation to the Parent. Of this it may justly be said that, for the education of the child, he stands to a very great extent in *loco parentis*, and whatever a wise, well-disposed and generous parent would feel it to be his duty to do for the child's education, *that* the Trustee is bound, for and on behalf of the parent, to do. If he fails thus to act, he fails in his obligation to the parent. He owes it to the parent *not* merely to perform the statutory and routine duties of the office in a perfunctory and indifferent spirit, but to take such an active interest in the matter of the trust as will secure its being placed in the highest state of efficiency that circumstances will permit. He owes it to the parent that the parent's best interests and highest expectations from the institution, that is the object of his trust, should be realized to the highest possible extent. It is not a faithful discharge of his duty towards the parent, if the Trustee through excessive parsimony or negligence so administers his trust as virtually to show in what a low state of efficiency the institution can be kept alive.

The Trustee owes it to the parent to divest himself of all personal feeling, prejudice or predilection, and to maintain a sole regard for the public interest in dealing with any matter within the scope of his official duties.

The parents of this Province of Ontario have long since decided, through their legislative representatives, that the efficient education of the youth of the Province, was with them a matter of the first and greatest importance. Again and again have they shown, by act and utterance, that they firmly adhere to the principle, and I venture to say if every individual school district were polled on the question to-day, there is not a solitary one in which the vote would not be overwhelmingly in favor of the most efficient education that the circumstances would warrant. At the same time, the most advanced enlight-

enment and the highest intelligence of all civilized countries endorse the soundness of the principle. When, therefore, any man accepts the office of Trustee, he should feel that he is under a sacred, moral obligation to administer the duties of his office so as to effect the greatest benefit for those who have placed him in so responsible a position.

Whatever, then, a Trustee can do, whether in employing competent teachers, providing suitable and comfortable buildings and proper equipment and apparatus, taking such steps as are proper and necessary to secure regular attendance, or in any other lawful and proper way, he owes it as a duty to the parent to do.

In case of clashings between teacher and pupil, the Trustee's position is one of considerable importance. He is a sort of Amicus Curiæ so far as some troubles are concerned; a buffer, as it were, between contending forces, in others; whilst in some cases he is an arbitrator as well as an executive.

The Trustee as an executive, when called upon to dismiss a refractory pupil, for instance, as it is his duty to do, is almost sure to place himself in rather strained relations with that pupil's parent (from the parent's point of view), serving to illustrate that voluntary services are, as a rule, the most freely criticised and questioned. It is always somebody else's boy who is bad, and the criticism is one of the small perquisities which falls to the Trustee. In matters of differences between teacher and parent, or of complaint by a parent against a teacher, the Trustee's relationship to the parent partakes of the nature of an arbitrator; and whilst, happily, the necessity for such intervention nowadays is rare, when the occasion does arise, the Trustee's perfect impartiality is his highest duty to the parties concerned.

Then there is a humorous side to the Trustee's position under our Law. Notwithstanding the well-understood principle of our Common Law, that every promise to perform certain work must have some consideration to support it, else it is a *nudum pactum*, we see the parents, as ratepayers, saying if we are chosen as Trustees and refuse to act, we forfeit $5.00, and if we do accept, but fail to perform our duties, we forfeit $20.00, to be sued for before that Humanitarian (a Justice of the Peace); again, if we refuse to exercise all the powers vested in us for the fulfilment of any contract or agreement, we are held *personally* responsible for the fulfilment of such contract or agreement; yet no consideration of a pecuniary character comes to us for all these possible pleasantries. Still, we all seem anxious to serve. Why is it? Because all acknowledge the benefits of education, and consider it worthy of much voluntary effort. The clause compelling us to forfeit

$5.00 or serve, may or may not be wise, but the alternative of paying the $5.00 rather than serve I have never heard of its being taken advantage of. You may have observed, as I have, that as a rule, the School Boards contain more representative men than do our City or Town Councils. There is a charm about the work of a trustee that is not found in the grosser work of a Common Council; the ideal of the work is to be engaged in is a high one.

We have a knowledge that we are part of the machinery which is preparing the children of our country to take charge of the affairs of the country, in all of its branches and departments, when we are no longer here to form part of that machinery; and the thought is ever impelling us to do our duty to the parent with a single eye to the advancement of the parent's child, and for that parent to see that the child is as well equipped for his battle of life, in the matter of education, as our now excellent system can make him. Viewed from this standpoint, then, the consideration is ample to support the promise. The prohibition or penal clauses may then be looked upon as so much surplusage. The trust is eagerly sought after and faithfully performed; this is manifest in this assembly to-day, where amongst you the trustees from all parts of this large Province of Ontario are here as representatives of the parents and looking after their interests; all at a considerable sacrifice in time taken from their businesses, and I have no doubt, in some cases, by the payment of their own expenses. Seeing this, I may say with some force, that the interest of a trustee in his work on behalf of the parent never lags, and when a trustee resigns or otherwise ceases to act, a kind of regret seems to linger. I trust the office will never lose the charm it now has.

THE RELATION OF PRINCIPAL AND INSPECTOR.

(AN ABSTRACT.)

A. B. DAVIDSON, B.A., NEWMARKET.

The object of the inspector's visit to the school, as far as the teacher is concerned, is to assist him in the discharge of his duties, and to report to the trustees the character of his work.

In order that the inspector may efficiently discharge these duties it is necessary that the teacher, on the occasion of the visit, should seek to realize the value of his work in the judgment of the inspector, be ready to facilitate the aim of the latter, and to receive suggestions. It is necessary that the inspector, on his part, be deliberate in manner and thorough in collecting data, remembering that the subsequent work of the teacher will be largely determined by the character and results of the examination. To obtain sufficient material to furnish an accurate and intelligent report to the trustees he will require both to teach and to hear the teacher teach. He will then find himself in possession of a mass of data from which it will be necessary to select the most tangible, and to classify the same before arriving at a positive judgment on the value of the teacher's work.

As a mere suggestion let me add a thumb-nail outline. Classify the pupil's work with respect to (1) mechanical features, as writing, drawing and slate work; (2) intellectual, as knowledge, mental force and accuracy; (3) ethical, as manners, movements and habits; and with respect to the work of the teacher (1) skill in handling classes and the school; (2) methods of instruction; (3) manner, taste, formative force and unconscious influence.

In giving and receiving advice at the conclusion of the examination it is well for both teacher and inspector to remember that that consideration and indulgence which might in private life be a virtue may easily in professional life be a vice, and, therefore, only by the exercise of mutual confidence, absolute candour, sincerity and good-will on the part of both can their duties to each other and to the school be discharged.

THE IMPORTANCE OF KINDERGARTEN TRAINING TO THE YOUTH OF CANADA.

Miss Georgina Loveck, Ottawa.

Any system of education is beneficial to mankind only in so far as it fulfils the true conditions of education.

What then are the true conditions of education ? Let us get the thought of some leading men on this subject.

Herbert Spencer says, To prepare us for complete living is the function of education.

Commenius states, Education is a development of the whole man.

Pestalozzi's education conception was that of a natural, progressive and symmetrical development of all the powers and faculties of a human being.

But it remained for Frœbel to show in its entirety the great possibilities of child culture. Education to him meant complete life. From him we hear: Man is to know every power, use every power, and to govern every power; that is self-conquest, which is the only basis of true freedom; and this self-conquest is to be reached through self-activity, that is work.

Herbert Spencer again tells us, that the education of the child must accord both in mode and arrangement with the education of mankind, considered historically, or, the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race.

Let us look at the growth of national life, and see if our theory of self-activity holds good. In every nation we find that education begins with the nation's own activity. When a race begins to work, it begins to grow. Man in his infancy, that is, in a savage state, is utterly helpless; he is overpowered by all the forces about him. What does he do ? He invents some means of killing animals, in order to supply himself with food. He erects rude huts, to protect himself from the weather; he trains animals that they may be his servants. In short, he uses his own powers to gain his own freedom ; hence in their efforts to civilize heathen nations, we find the teachers introduced agriculture, carpentering and industries that would make the people work. What are our own Hudson Bay and East India Companies but industries to encourage partially civilized nations to carry out their own civilization through work? In the legends of Indian

Life we hear, "By struggle and by labor you shall gain what you have prayed for." If this need for self-activity be true of the race, it must also be true of the individual. The history of Eastern education has taught us that only in the recognition of the individual can the race advance. The first need then in the child's life is to arouse his self-activity, his power of doing work. This can only be done by giving him something to do, something to work on, something practical, something to overcome that will give his hands strength; that will give him power over his body, and in which he will have interest. Psychology tells us that interest is the first condition of attention. This is the basis of knowledge; knowledge comes through the senses, and is based on past experience, which again is the basis of interest. This interest must be retained, and in order to do this we must take note of the natural impulses of the child. Chief among these is the impulse of perception, which is the foundation of the play impulse; this is in reality work, or self-activity; hence to teach according to the laws of psychology we must, through activity, lead the child to self-expression. How can this be done? Look again at the progress of the race. Every nation in its early state lived, wrote, and worshipped in symbols. The sun, moon, trees, and all nature were to them symbols of a hidden power, and in lack of truer knowledge worshipped they these as gods. In all ages every human heart is human, and in even savage bosoms there are longings, yearnings, strivings for the good they comprehend not; and their feeble hands and helpless groping blindly in that darkness touch God's right hand in the darkness, and are lifted up and strengthened. Savage nature symbolizes everything. "Footsteps pointing towards a wigwam are a sign of invitation." "Life and death are drawn as circles; life is white and death is darkened," and so on.

The child himself makes symbols of all things; his father's stick is a horse, a line is a man. Cats, chickens, dogs are all his friends. Let us then utilize this power and lead the child to self-expression, through activity by the use of symbols.

In the kindergarten this can be done. Through the interaction of hand and mind the child is led to gain power over himself, to gain self-control, which is freedom. It seems hardly necessary, at this stage of its progress, to give any explanation of the kindergarten. Yet if there be any who are not familiar with it, let me say the kindergarten is a process of development in which, through the union of body and mind, the child is led to express himself to give outward sign to the inward spiritual life, in which every

part of his nature is supplied with food. When the children assemble in the morning they tell what they have seen; they bring anything they have found which seems to have interest for them. Any unusual form of nature is spoken of and explained; the little interests of each child are brought into unity and relation, and the one Father of All is thanked for his loving care. The children are led gradually to see the one power working in and through all for the good of all. Again, at the tables in the different kinds of work, building, stick laying, tablets, P folding, weaving, etc., whatever it may be, some definite thought is being worked out, so that the child is gaining knowledge in number, form, etc., but the knowledge comes incidentally. The little ones are so delighted with the expression of their thought that the abstract part is acquired with very little effort; and in the gaining of it, their hands are being strengthened, their minds filled, and their wills controlled. They are ever learning, yet never conscious of having to learn.

The child's education is a life-long process, nay, even an eternal process, for we are building the eternal part—the character of the child. See to it, then, that we build on the right foundation. What now happens if we do otherwise? "Every truth given too early by words plants the seeds of vice in the childish soul." To try to teach little children abstract truths, in which they can have no interest, because they do not appeal to their past experience, is wrong; a wrong which can never be undone, for if the child does not give his interest, his attention to the work in hand, what does he do? He turns that interest, for it must have some outlet, in upon himself, and instead of developing through self-expression, you are helping the child to destroy his own powers. It matters not so much what we teach as how we teach it. Every teacher who tries to teach without first interesting every pupil in his or her class, whether it be in the kindergarten or in other classes, is doing a moral injury to those entrusted to his or her care. To waste the time and mar the character of little children is one of the greatest sins which can be committed.

Only through work can he overcome himself. Either we must have kindergartens or turn the primary classes into kindergartens, if the right development is to go on. Better still will it be to have kindergarten work and principles carried forward through the whole school.

If the theory of self-expression through work be true, it must be true for all classes. It is claimed that the chiefly literary character of school education does not meet the demands of the world's industrial interests, that labour is shunned as degrading

instead of being sought as ennobling. Yet the need of manual training as an educational factor lies deeper in the necessity for all-sided development of life in all the grades. And this is Frœbel's idea of education.

Ask the principals and assistant teachers which pupils are most easily taught and controlled, and you will invariably get an answer similar to this: "Oh, those trained in the kindergarten, because they know how to work." When we can produce a nation of working men and women, we may perhaps close our reformatories and prisons, for Californian statistics tell us that out of 14,000 who received kindergarten training, one only had been found guilty of crime. Think of the $311,314.47 spent in one year on reformatories, penitentiaries and prisons for Ontario alone.

If kindergartens were established in every city and town school in our province, perhaps in a few centuries this sum might be handed over to the Education Department for its uses. It is easier to form than to reform, and I know that work through the guidance of love can so raise the moral standard that even the Divine ideal of love may yet come within the reach of little children. Early work guided in accordance with its inner meaning, that is, as a means of self-expression, confirms and elevates religion. Religion without industry, without work, is apt to be lost in empty dreams. Similarly, work without religion degrades man into a beast of burden, a mere machine. Work and religion must be simultaneous, for God has been creating from all eternity. In the kindergaren the two are united. I have had children come to me with most savage instincts, and in a short time, through work and love, there has been a total transformation. Oh! I would beg of you men in whom power is invested to study this question from a national standpoint. Will you let the children start their race in the world handicapped? or will you supply them, as far as in your power lies, with the conditions of freedom. Shall it be

> Force rules the world still,
> Has ruled it, shall rule it.
> Meekness is weakness,
> Strength is triumphant
> O'er the whole earth. Still it is "Thor's" day.

Or shall it be

> Swifter than arrows the light of the Truth is;
> Stronger than steel is the Sword of the Spirit,
> Greater than Anger is Love, and subdueth.

IMPORTANCE OF KINDERGARTEN TRAINING.

W. H. BALLARD, M.A., HAMILTON.

In order to estimate fully the advantages which the school derives from the kindergarten, it would be necessary to institute a careful comparison between the condition of the school before it began to be affected by the kindergarten, and that exhibited after the kindergarten had been in operation long enough to make its influence distinctly felt as an educational force, and not as a novelty, and had become an integral part of the educational system on which it had been engrafted.

This requires that sufficient time shall have been given for the gloss of novelty to have worn away; for the gradual subsidence of unreasoning opposition, as well as the due discounting of the equally unreasonable claims or expectations of over-enthusiastic advocates and friends.

The system, too, must have had time to exhibit, after a fair trial, its effect upon all, or nearly all, the grades of the schools into which it has been introduced.

Furthermore, its results have to be observed as they affect any one system of schools, the comparison must be made at periods of time too far apart to lead to very accurate results.

Then again, all the observed improvements in a system of schools into which the kindergarten has been introduced may not be due to its adoption, but, like the introduction of the kindergarten itself, may be attributable to the liberality, intelligence, progressive spirit, or more advanced ideas on educational work which characterize the community adopting it.

Of this, however, I think there can be no doubt: On the introduction of the kindergarten the necessity at once arises to so adapt and arrange the work in the public school course that it shall not only begin where the kindergarten stops, but that it shall carry on a system of instruction quite as thorough in conception and execution, and exhibited with equal perfection of detail. This will inevitably show distinctive results in improved school programmes and higher ideals in methods of instruction.

Again, if children enter the primary grades with only such preparation as an education restricted to the experience of the family circle of each can give them, it must be evident that a great deal of work has to be done to reduce so heterogeneous a mass to one uniform consistency.

If this necessary preparation can be effected by mechanism, especially designed for this purpose, in charge of experts trained in this kind of work, it will, of course, be done more economically, in less time and with better results.

The primary grades will thus be supplied with pupils reduced nearly to a state of homogenity as to attainments and discipline, and prepared to enter upon a programme of work having a well-defined starting point. This conduces to facility of classification, does away with too minute a subdivision of classes, and introduces to the primary grades pupils already trained to obedience and orderly school habits.

The public attention attracted by the introduction of the kindergarten reflects a certain influence also on the school system as a whole. Fathers and mothers and friends, through frequent and often prolonged visits to the kindergarten, become more or less familiar with proper educational methods, and not a little critical in comparing the work done by various teachers.

This goes far towards producing a properly educated public opinion, the bright rays of which must accomplish very beneficial results in lighting up the dark corners and shady byways of educational effort. Everyone knows that the regular drillers of the old time-honored stamp, with not the slightest conception of the inner nature of the pupil, nor the faintest disposition to discover it, are all long since gathered to their fathers, but the ruins of the structures they builded still cumber the earth, and keep heaven's sunlight from waste places that would otherwise be gardens of flowers.

Experience goes to show that wherever and whenever increased attention and more critical observation are directed to the efforts of the educator, a much higher quality of instruction is the result; for the preparation for each lesson is made with the full consciousness on the part of the teacher that it may fall under public observation, and therefore earnest efforts are put forth to produce work of such a quality as will stand the keenest criticism.

This last advantage is not so necessary a result of the introduction of the kindergarten as the other two; but I think I can claim that all three will be present in a more or less marked degree wherever the kindergarten has been successfully introduced.

IMPORTANCE OF KINDERGARTEN TRAINING TO THE NATION.

REV. ALEX. JACKSON, M.A., Ph.D., GALT.

The importance of kindergarten training to the youth of Canada from the view-points of the child and the school has been dealt with in the able addresses to which this conference has just listened, and I shall therefore confine my short address to the phase of the theme allotted to me, namely, the importance of kindergarten training to the nation.

1. A thoroughgoing kindergarten training would tend to supply our country with intelligent, tactful and capable mothers. This is placed first because it is fundamentally important. Napoleon is said to have once been asked, "What does France most need?" and to have significantly answered, "Mothers." What the great soldier wanted, however, was only more soldiers to fight his battles. His answer did not have the high moral meaning with which it is usually credited. If I were answering such a question as a Christian minister, I would without hesitation say, that the greatest need of the nation is the Gospel. But we are met as an educational association, and I therefore answer the question in the line of our Provincial educational plans. The greatest need of our country is properly trained and capable mothers to have the charge of the coming generation.

In saying this I am not to be understood as reflecting unfavorably upon the homes of Ontario in comparison with those of other countries. I think the home training of Ontario will compare favorably with that of any other country.

But the world is yet young in the study and application of principles which make for the best results in education. No wise business man would employ an untrained and inexperienced person to manage an intricate and valuable machine. But the state allows ignorant, untaught, and undisciplined women to be put in charge of the most intricate, most delicately fragile, and most valuable machine within the scope of our knowledge. The Great Teacher said that a man is worth more than the whole world. He has the most composite of constitutions, allying him alike to the Creator and the creature, to the spiritual and the physical, to the moral and the natural. And this most composite and important nature is placed in the care of the young and inexperienced and untrained mother to mold and fashion for citizenship in the state,

not to speak of its eternal possibilities. The children of our homes are to be our future citizens. In a few years they will be the voters, the magistrates, the legislators, and the mothers of the nation.

All of the young women entering on the great responsibilities of the home are not ignorant or unprepared to assume them. But so far as the state is concerned, little is done outside of the kindergarten training to prepare the young mothers for their great and honorable and far-reaching responsibilities. It is only in the kindergarten that any adequate attempt is made to prepare, to train, to educate the composite nature of the young, and thus qualify them for the responsibilities related to the body politic. If all our young women were required to take a course of kindergarten training, they would be correspondingly prepared for the duties devolving upon the heads of our coming homes. Dr. Harris, the United States Commissioner of Education, gives it as his mature judgment, that the education of the hundreds of young women as kindergarten assistants in the St. Louis public schools, of which he was formerly the superintendent, is worth all it costs to the state, even if they do not pursue the kindergarten profession.

2. For the same reasons, a thorough-going kindergarten training would be of great value to the country in properly preparing the teachers of its children for their responsible duties. There is a growing belief among the best educators that a course in kindergarten work should be required of all candidates for the profession of teaching. I am sure that these inspectors have time and time again deplored the crude and bungling way in which delicate human natures in a formative state have been abused by teachers. Granted all that the most extreme theologian may say about total depravity and inherent evil, the work of a true educator is to implant and cultivate good in the child, and thus destroy the evil. No farmer ever succeeded in eradicating weeds from a field by a process, no matter how faithful, of directly eradicating them. The wise farmer plants some vigorous and healthy grain in the field, and in cultivating it he finds the weeds have been gradually smothered out of existence. With children the only successful method of eradicating evil is by the "expulsive power" of graces and virtues which a wise and loving teacher may and always should implant and cultivate in the young.

The wise man has said,

> "He that spareth his rod hateth his son:
> But he that loveth him chastiseth him diligently."

Doubtless chastisement is more or less necessary, and corporal punishment may be profitably used at times; but it is, as an educative agency, nearly always a radical mistake, and its frequent need a certain indication of a faulty education. The error may lie in the home training, or in the previous school experiences of the pupil, or in the educational method, or in the teacher, or perhaps in part may be from all of them. But it is confidently claimed that a true system of education in the hands of true educators will require very little punishment, and hardly ever will need to resort to artificial and arbitrary forms of chastisement. Especially does corporal punishment tend to brutalize the nature and destroy the self-respect, and crush back the manly and womanly qualities in the young life. It is doubtful if the order and obedience secured by the constant use of the rod are worth the having. Where the rod as an agency in securing them preponderates, the tendency is to develop a deceitful, mean, and morose nature; and when the fear of the rod has been outgrown or removed, the undisciplined and cowed disposition revolts, or tends to revolt, and the latter end of the pupil is perhaps worse than if he had been left in ignorance. If all teachers had a good course in kindergarten training it would enable them to exercise more tact and wisdom and patience in the maintenance of order and the disciplining of the pupils, as well as in helping them in a wide and wise and true education of the young and susceptible lives under their care.

3. The kindergarten, when thoroughly taught, would be of great value to the country in the quality of the citizens which it would turn out of the public schools. We are justly proud of the educational system of Ontario. It is pre-eminent as being the most completely and harmoniously articulated system of education of any country in the world. Nevertheless, it has the fault of all educational systems in being almost exclusively intellectual and bookish. The kindergarten is the only natural and reasonably adequate part of our system. It educates, or aims to educate, the entire nature, and it is educational pure and simple. The eye is trained, so is the hand, the body, the voice, and the moral and social nature, as well as the intellectual. And it aims throughout to educe the elements and qualities from their embryonic state in the virgin soil, while principles of life and conduct are revealed or discovered and applied in the conduct and life. And the natural and moral results have been far in advance of those from the old methods. It is claimed that children who have had a good grounding in kindergarten work, have graduated from the public schools,

on an average, from one to two years earlier and with better standing than those who have had none. As a result of extensive experiments in London, England, Sir Edwin Chadwick was assured that ninety per cent. of the children of the criminal classes could be reclaimed to honest living by kindergarten and industrial training.

4. A thoroughgoing kindergarten system would tend to save life. There are five thousand (5,000) deaths in Great Britain each year from accidents among machinery; and fifteen hundred (1,500) children are scalded or burned to death annually in the same country. Sir William Fairbairn is of opinion that most of these would not occur if the kindergarten system were in universal use. The mind would become more methodical, accurate, adaptable, and ready. It was formerly believed that the mind was exclusively located in the brain, and heat generated in the lungs. Now it is known that, whenever an atom is consumed in the body, whether at the extremities or in the heart, there heat is generated. In like manner, the mind is all over the body. It has a "central," as in the telephone system, but it operates throughout the entire nervous system. The expert mechanic or surgeon is aided in his thinking by the sensitive and trained hand. The mind is never so well developed without manual training as with it. A normally developed body and social nature is necessary to the best mental efficiency.

5. Then, the kindergarten training would tend to materially lessen the number of criminals and the cost of their care. On the one hand, note some results of our ordinary educational methods, and compare them with the results of education in kindergarten lines. Among the convicted criminals of the City of London, England, for one year, there were over a thousand clerks and half a hundred lawyers. In the Ohio jails in 1885 there were 854 illiterate prisoners, but 5,823 who had learned to read and write in the public schools, and over 500 who had received a higher education. In 1882 there were 697 persons sentenced to the Ohio penitentiary, of whom 74 were illiterate, while 511 had received a common school education, 22 had passed through the high school, and 11 were college graduates. This is the significant criminal record for one year in one American State. The governor of a London prison recently said:—"The greatest rascal I have in custody can write the Lord's Prayer in seven languages." Sir Edwin Chadwick suggests that the true explanation of all these unfortunate results lies in the faultiness of our educational methods. "In some of the middle class schools of the ordinary

type in London, twenty per cent. of the pupils were disqualified from obtaining situations by misconduct, while among pupils of low parentage, in good industrial or kindergarten schools, these dismal failures averaged only two or three per cent., and that, too, where, before the establishment of such schools, the average had been as high as 60 per cent." The kindergarten system would tend to save children for usefulness to the nation, to save from criminal courses, and correspondingly to save the cost of the prosecution and care of criminals. The cost of an education in the Elmira, N.Y., Reformatory is seven times greater per pupil than in the most costly kindergarten in New York. Mr. Gilder of that city says:—"Plant a free kindergarten in any quarter of this overcrowded metropolis, and you have begun then and there the work of making better lives, better homes, better citizens, and a better city."

I might have spoken much longer on the subject, but my time is more than up. The kindergarten is often spoken of as the playroom of the school. But, if all our educational work were carried on on natural methods and by true educators, that is, as I believe, along kindergarten lines and by rightly trained kindergarteners, the tendency would be to make it all become a joyous pursuit. The young mind and hand find pleasure in the pursuit of knowledge and in doing or undoing things. Why not educate in the line of that natural instinct, and have the child develop in the school as in a playground? This is what is now being attempted by the Board of Education of the City of Cleveland. The experiment may not be a complete success; but it is in the right direction, and will be watched with interest. The normal man would experience pleasure in any right pursuit, and, therefore, a right educational method ought to afford pleasure to the pupils in pursuing it.

OUR PUBLIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

JAMES GRANT, GUELPH.

It is a trite saying that the teacher makes the school. No matter what the material may be on which he has to operate, the end aimed at, or the tools with which to do the work, if the skilled artificer be lacking, all is lacking. No system, however complete, can run itself. Yet the matter of tools is no unimportant one, and other things being equal, the workman with the superior instruments will turn out the better work. This is an age of criticism; dogmatism counts for little, antiquity for less. The rule is "Prove all things." This is easier than holding fast what is good.

Our present public school course seems to be receiving a considerable amount of attention just now. At our last meeting I had the honor of moving a resolution which was carried unanimously—to the effect that the time had arrived for a thorough revision of our public school course. I did not imply by moving that resolution that I was the one competent to perform the work of revision or remodelling. Whoever sets about that task will soon discover that it is much easier to pull down than to build up. I understand a committee from the training department of this association is to report on some phase of this subject. Last year the report of the fifteen—a committee appointed by the National Educational Association of the United States—was published dealing in an able and exhaustive manner with the subject. The writer of the report was Dr. W. T. Harris, perhaps the leader in educational thought on the other side of the line. This report will well repay perusal by any interested—and who among us is not? —in that matter.

I claim little or no originality for my views. They have been arrived at after pretty full reflection and considerable reading. Our present course of studies is mainly one of exigencies and accidents. It is not an organic whole or a natural growth. The perhaps well-meant clamours of certain persons have led to the introduction of subject after subject, when the burden was already heavy enough in all conscience for ordinary shoulders. The advocates of the new subjects were apparently oblivious to the fact that room had to be made for them; but little attempt, even by the powers that be, was made to provide a place for the new-comer; and it was tacitly expected that as much time and attention should be given to the older subjects after the introduction of the new.

And teachers, in attempting to overtake all the work, have in many cases destroyed the pupils' interest in all subjects whatsoever. This is strong language, but is spoken advisedly, and for this state of affairs we teachers are not wholly innocent. I attribute the examination craze as in no small degree responsible for the public ideal of education. We have led the people to think that the passing of a certain number of pupils at an examination is a proof of our success as teachers, as failure in that regard proclaims our lack of the teaching qualities. We have led them to measure ourselves and our work by the percentage of marks obtained, so we need not wonder if they try to exact their pound of flesh. The constructors of school curricula incur tremendous responsibilities. The child's mental, moral and physical development may be wholly stunted and his career warped forever by the unsuitability, both as regards quantity and quality, of the mental or moral food administered. In noting the overloaded state of many a child's mind with undigested matter, I have been tempted to wish that nature, who apparently did not foresee the density of human ignorance, had kindly supplied for the mind such visible and repulsive means of relieving it as is provided for relieving an overloaded stomach. The best test of the fitness of material food is whether or not a craving for more ensues in due season, and a healthy growth is induced. We believe a similar test may be applied to the mind. So far as the Oliver Twist desire for *more* is concerned, our much belauded system of education signally fails. We get the child brim full of a curiosity concerning the world of wonders that surrounds him; we put him through our educational mill and grind him very fine, and he leaves us in four cases out of five nauseated and disgusted with the whole affair. We pour such quantities of arithmetic, geography, history and grammar into him as imply that he will have no further opportunity of pursuing the subjects. He takes us at our word. His education is finished.

The trouble is not so much the number of subjects on our programme, as the attempt to cover so much ground in each, that is at fault. Most of the subjects must remain, and even others be added, if anything like an ideal and up-to-date programme is to be used in our schools. The three R's must not be interfered with, only in the way of improved treatment, and this in the matter of more thorough teaching, especially in reading and writing in the lower classes. Why should oral reading need much attention after the third book is passed? Few new principles of elocution subsequently arise; and oral reading is not so much a necessity

as formerly, seeing that all may be cheaply supplied with reading matter, doing away with the need of one member of the family reading for the rest. The same may be said of writing. It should need little formal teaching after the third or fourth year at school if properly taught from the beginning. In regard to arithmetic, important as it is as a subject for mental discipline, we are sure one half of the time spent on it is worse than profitless. We too often in our unholy haste attempt work wholly unsuited to the immature mind, and which, if postponed for a time, could be grasped with ease and despatch. In our teaching of geography we must discontinue the inordinate memorizing of dry and useless details if we would get time for other subjects. A rational treatment of the subject will discard almost all sailor geography, i.e., the learning of each cape, gulf, bay, etc. Concerning history, so much is put upon us that it is the marvel of the uninitiated how we can cram so much into the small heads of the children. What masses of undigested and indigestible matter, falsely called history, is poured into our pupils, and chiefly, forsooth, that we may rear loyal subjects of our gracious Queen! and that we may properly glorify the old flag that has for so long braved the battle and the breeze! Now, I would advise my fellow-teachers to studiously conceal the avowed reason for this tremendous amount of history that has to be waded through. If it dawned upon the youthful learner that this severe affliction arose from a desire to keep aflow the "patriotic tide," and aglow the flame of loyalty, he would curse the existence of British connection, and hail with joy the speedy consummation of continental union. Seriously, our work in history is simply astounding. How few in after life ever take to its study? Many might if they were properly initiated into its inviting vistas. What gallant could be expected to fall in love with a fair dame by contemplating her shadow as revealed by the X rays? History proper should be approached in our public schools through civics, or a knowledge of how we are governed, our institutions, the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. If proceeding from the known to the unknown be a sound principle in pedagogy, we must begin with that part of the subject that touches the pupil's experience. The fourth class should be confined to Canadian history alone. British history should be reserved for the fifth class, and then most of the attention be given to modern times, with some knowledge of the constitution, supplemented perhaps by a brief account of the modes of government of the leading nations of the day. No formal history should be taken up in the third class. Stirring and picturesque episodes in Canadian and British history might find a place in the third and fourth

readers, as also biographical sketches of eminent men. This would create a liking for more; and it must not be forgotten that our aim in this subject, as in all others, should be stimulus rather than satiety. In grammar much time is worse than wasted at present, for it is not an elementary subject, and should not be introduced till the fourth class at least. Till then language lessons leading up to oral and written composition should be used. Literature should not receive less time or attention that it does in our present course, for it is in this study more than any other that a taste for reading should be established, and that should be the supreme end of the teacher. The pupil who leaves school with a hungering and thirsting after the best in literature, will surely be filled, for the field before him is ample and the pasturage rich. Of course we must still try to spell, and in this the readers had better be supplemented by a good spelling book for such common words as do not occur in the readers. Drawing must still be retained. It is valuable in many ways, and supplies relaxation from more severe studies, but more time should be spent on it in the lower than higher grades. Manual training for boys and domestic work for girls should be introduced in at least the graded schools. If music cannot be theoretically taught in ungraded schools, song-singing should be freely practiced. It is a wonderful relaxation from mental strain, and may be made a powerful means of cherishing national sentiments, as for example, in Scotland and Germany. We are not at all certain that formal bookkeeping should occupy a place in our public school course. It savors too much of a trade or calling, and although important in the counting house, does not merit, either from its training qualities or use in after life, but for the few, the place and time it at present occupies in our programme. In teaching commercial arithmetic, business forms and the making of accounts could be taken up. Euclid, as a basis for mensuration, but much more as a training in severely logical reasoning, should not be dispensed with. Abraham Lincoln stated that he never knew what it was to prove anything until he had studied Euclid.

I think, so far as our public schools are concerned, with the exception of a slight knowledge of simple equations, algebra had better be left off. It is a highly abstract subject, and the gist of the subject in its sweeping generalizations, and as an instrument in the investigation of the higher relations of quantities, is incomprehensible to the ordinary learner. It is not denied that the simple rules can be learned by rote by the average pupil; but if the subject is not to be pursued after the public school course,

that slight knowledge can be of little utility, and the time taken up with it better employed.

To physiology, hygiene and temperance I would give a less important place than they at present occupy. They, in my estimation, should hold a position in a more extensive subject, the teaching of which is one of the great disiderata of our present course. I mean elementary science or nature knowledge. In an age whose proudest boast is the progress of science in all domains, it is surely time that a carefully considered and well-defined course of study of that which touches us at all points and at all times should be taken up. This subject should run through our entire course, specializing in our rural schools strongly towards agriculture. Some earnest attempt in this line is the crying need of the day. We are above all an agricultural community. Two-thirds of our population live in rural districts and are engaged in that most necessary pursuit. The future growth and greatness of our country almost wholly depends on the skilful farmer; so from a utilitarian point of view it deserves a place in our schools. It has other and equally important claims. As a means of training the powers of observation it stands pre-eminent, and this very essential part of education is at present almost wholly neglected. It is needless to dilate on the importance of the subject; from Herbert Spencer downwards, a place has been claimed for it in elementary schools by all educationists.

In a carefully prepared, able and exhaustive paper read by Inspector Dearness before the Central Farmers' Institute in Toronto in February, 1895, and published in the Educational Journal, is to be found an outline of a course of study that might be taken up in our schools. It begins with observations upon and conversations about common objects, ascending through the more common phenomena of nature, touching upon meteorology, minerals, animals and vegetables, local geography, hygiene, experiments in chemistry and physics, etc., each subject in most cases leading up to the principles and practice of agriculture. Belgium and France, through such studies, have raised themselves above other countries in economic and scientific farming. Such studies are taken up in Nova Scotia and in the now famous schools of Manitoba, where the government provides a box of natural specimens for each school. A pupil in this banner province of the Dominion may take a complete course of study in our public schools without knowing that electricity—that subtle agent by means of which such wonders are done—has so much as an existence, and this in the last years of the nineteenth century—pre-eminently the century of science.

Where can room be found in our already congested course for all this, desirable though it may be, and where are teachers to be found to do justice to such work? I have already hinted at an answer to the former, and I hope that when the subject is placed upon our programme, as placed it will be, we shall not be found faint-hearted, and unwilling to exert ourselves, that our children may get the very best education that can be devised by the powers of man. The half is often greater than the whole; and half the time given to some subjects, while others are almost wholly omitted, will give ample time for such study as referred to. It may and will require a struggle to part with even our adversaries. It is reported that an old Scotchman who had pried rather curiously for his peace of mind into the vagaries and destructive tendencies of the "Higher Criticism," discovered among other things that belief in a personal devil was no longer tenable. This was too much for our canny Scot. He drew the line there. "Na, na, I winna' gie up ma diel! I canna' dae without ma diel!" We are all built a little that way, often very conservative, even the most pronounced grit among us. The younger pupils might with profit to all concerned (I speak of ungraded schools) be let home occasionally an hour or two earlier, when such simple experiments in chemistry and physics might be made. And what time could be better spent in school than an occasional hour in the field or the forest, or by the creek, river or lake side, communing under the teacher's guidance with Old Mother Nature? Then, indeed, would be realized the poet's words, that there could be found "Books in the running brooks, sermons in stones and good in everything."

Would not this help to solve the problem of keeping the boys on the farm, and lighten the drudgery of outdoor toil? And give subjects for much rational and enjoyable study after school years are over?

Another subject must get such recognition as it has not hitherto received, and that is ethical or moral training. Although at present it is not formally placed upon our programme, it is not, nor can it be, wholly neglected, for habits either good or bad are being constantly formed, and where the teacher's habits are correct, and where punctuality, promptness, and other good qualities are exacted from the pupils, exemplary conduct is being evolved and established. Morals are also directly and indirectly inculcated in many of our reading lessons; in fact, every well-taught lesson on any subject is a lesson in morals. But at the best it is but taught incidentally, and not systematically as it should be,

and on well-defined lines. It should be so taught, that ignorance could be no excuse for crime. It is admitted that this is a most difficult subject to deal with; but the difficulty should be no excuse for shirking the whole matter.

The formation of character in school training stands second to no other attainment. What we are is the final test, not what we can do or possess; and never more than in our own day are men and women of strong moral fibre needed. That mere intellectual culture raises the standard of conduct among a people is not denied, yet it is far from being a panacea for all crime. In this department example and precept must go hand in hand, line upon line, and precept upon precept, here a little and there a little; and surely in this professedly Christian country, a Scriptural basis can be found for our teaching without doing violence to any creed or dogma. Religious instruction, much as it is needed and called for, seems to be out of the question, especially when it appears to be taken for granted that the minority possesses all the conscience on the matter. But a serious attempt on the part of educators worthy of the name, to inculcate a love for the beautiful, the good and the true in the young, cannot be dispensed with only at the peril of the individual and the nation.

I shall here briefly summarize the course approved of in this paper:

I. Reading, including literature and spelling.
II. Oral and written composition, but no formal grammar till the fourth class.
III. Arithmetic, including mensuration, commercial work and business forms.
IV. Euclid for fifth class, with perhaps a knowledge of simple equations.
V. Writing and drawing, but time given to each lessened as classes advance. Manual training for boys and domestic work for girls, at least in graded schools.
VI. Geography, but greatly abridged in worthless minutiæ, work taking an industrial and commercial direction, with physical and mathematical geography for advanced classes.
VII. History—Canadian for fourth class, British for fifth—attention being principally directed to modern times, including form of government, etc., aiming chiefly at a preparation for an intelligent assumption of the duties of citizenship.

VIII. Elementary science, or nature-teaching, including hygiene, specializing towards agriculture.

IX. Moral training and music, at least song-singing.

It will be a long time before the last word has been said on our public school curriculum. The conflict between the culture and utilitarian views of education—whether the main aim in the matter should be mental development or the acquisition of such information and facilities as shall insure in after life a modicum of bread and butter—will still be waged, but with lessened acrimony. The golden mean in this, as in so many other things, must prevail, for the acquisition of useful knowledge may be made the means of exercising, and consequently strengthening, the mental faculties, and so both ends be attained conjunctly. No course that leaves out of the count either the nature of the child or his environment can be successful. Much is justly expected from the attention given to child study by leading educationists in our day.

The course that has been outlined and advocated has no particular reference to a subsequent high school course. The Minister of Education is reported to have said recently that a course of study in the public schools that best answers as a foundation for higher study, is the best possible for the public schools. Some of us hold that the converse of this proposition is equally true, i.e., the course of study best suited for the public school, is the best possible foundation for high school work.

WHAT TO EXPECT FROM SENIOR PUPILS.

J. R. BULMER, AILSA CRAIG.

When it was too late, I began to regret that I had consented to take this paper. I find that the subject involves so many topics worthy of lengthy discussion, so many points on which most of us differ, and is constituted of so much matter that cannot be set down or provided for in time tables, that I fear the subject can only be approached in the few minutes at my disposal to-day.

At the outset, let us enquire what is our ideal of the result of school life, remembering that what we get from our pupils will in a large measure depend on what we think we ought to get. Is the time a pupil spends in school time which is to fit him to pass examinations ? then expect plodding, often mechanical work. Is the knowledge gained useful by the way in which it adds to the value of its possessor in the market of the world ? to the future credit it may help him win ? a commercial school, directed to the means of getting a living ? or does it help him to perceive the beauty and worth of an intelligent life, a school where taste, power and thought are the ends sought after ?

In any case the teacher is responsible for the results, results which he must reach through his pupils. Let the teacher expect what he may, the results will be the pupil's interpretation of the teacher's presentation of the work.

I would say we should first expect scholars who can see, hear and are capable of understanding; however, a child may lack brightness or a good disposition and be taught by the teacher, that is, the teacher who has his attention. Then by all means expect, and gain, the child's attention; expect the sympathy and co-operation of the pupils. In regular school work expect the child's best effort, his best attempt to make that which the teacher proffers his own. Teach the pupil to live for something, to feel that school work is equipping him for the future, to have an end in view. Too many are, unfortunately, like Micawber, always "waiting for something to turn up." Pupils should make up their minds to accomplish some one end—to go ahead turning everything up until that end is accomplished. This will give a motive for work and effort, and will help the pupil to appreciate the value of time. He will be more earnest and enthusiastic, and will push forward more persistently; and if the pupil is thus

aroused there will be little trouble about his "not having had time," or "I can't do it," or "I didn't understand," and he will strive to perform his work intelligently. If he does not, in many cases it shows a lack of honest effort, and the teacher who resorts to the "pumping process of obtaining answers" will as time goes on be rewarded by having to materially increase the capacity of his "pump." We should expect our pupils not only to be prompt in their answers, but prompt in their work, to begin on time and not before the completion of the lesson, drawl in the minutes by watching the clock. King Solomon's proverb, "Show me a man diligent in his business, he shall stand before kings," is very applicable to school life.

We should expect neatness in work. Although the department and our inspectors have urged neatness, and at examinations put a premium on it, examiners complain much about badly written papers. These men cannot all be grumblers. One of the conclusions must be that many teachers accept poor exercises. This is a matter of great moment. Habits of neatness in work inculcated in youth are like a cable; we weave a thread of it each day until it becomes so strong we cannot break it.

However, there are two educations which we receive—one we get from others; another, and a more important one, which we get from ourselves. Then, not only should we expect from our senior pupils close attention, sharp application and diligent work in school, but we should also expect faithful work out of school. Under the standards of the present day a most beneficial and necessary supplement to class work is home work. In many cases private study is much more beneficial than class study. There are lessons which the pupil must master for himself, and there is no better place for this than in his own room, where he rises to a higher plane, a blessed independence, by conquering his own difficulties, because he must rest upon his own resources. "Self-help is best help." It favors the formation of habits of self-reliance and of independent effort, patient perseverance and courageous attack of difficulties. By using reference books, which are to be found in nearly every home in Ontario, he obtains knowledge outside of his text books. This will broaden his views. It may set him thinking. It may help him to learn that there is no high destiny without earnest perseverance, and no real greatness without self-denial. Much harm is done pupils by assigning "dry bone" lessons for home preparation, about which the pupil knows nothing and cares still less, and in which he can have no possible interest; or the amount is excessive, and

which must, unless the pupil is endowed with more than the ordinary surmounting ability, loom up before him like a mountain. Let all home work assigned be such as the pupil can master without too great difficulty, something that has been thoroughly explained beforehand, work in proportion to the powers and abilities of the pupil; then, having done your part, insist on the pupil doing his.

But in a few years we will have forgotten whether or no our pupil learned his lessons well, for then his place in the world and its esteem will to a large extent be measured by his manner of conducting himself; and if our methods and rules and regulations have not produced a man with a trained will, a man with common sense, of self-control and of gentlemanly deportment, we have failed. Hence the importance of decorum. Matthew Arnold says, "Conduct is three-fourths of life." "The child is father of the man," and habits formed in childhood are often our best friends, or our worst enemies in after life. We cannot set too high a standard on right-doing and right-acting; cannot strive too hard to build up a strong moral courage in our pupils, to do the right, for each act of right-doing makes it easier to perform the next, and the influence is never-ending,

> "For no stream from its source
> Flows seaward, how lonely soever its course,
> But what some land is gladdened.
>
> "No star ever rose and set, without influence somewhere.
> "Who knows what earth needs from Earth's lowliest creature?"
> "No life can be pure in its purpose and strong in its strife,
> And all life not be purer and stronger thereby."

Then expect the senior pupils to be worthy models for the younger ones, in appearance, in action. They should be neat and tidy in dress and person, and cheerful, respectful and attentive. A man with a good education, but a barbarian in manners, is poorly fitted for life; yet we find many "educated barbarians" in our midst. They are often the men who when boys were bullies in the schoolyard, who shouted, perhaps hooted, in their play or on the street and sometimes at passers-by; were generally boisterous, straggled into school with hats glued to their heads, stared boldly at the new-comer or visitor, and laughed loudly at the mistakes and mishaps of others. These are some of the beginnings, which, if not checked in the child, may in moments of thoughtlessness bring the man to disgrace; for, as Emerson says, "The world is full of judgment days, and into every assembly that a man enters, and in every action that he attempts, he is gauged and stamped."

We have the right to expect that our senior pupils will not forget the simplest elements of politeness; that they will not pass in front of others without a word of excuse, or speak when another is speaking, or worse yet, neglect to hear another out. Then there are the words "please" and "thank you," the use of which should be insisted on in the school-room. These are the small points, the oil which lubricates the machinery of life, and lessens the friction and modulates the waves of human passion, and the less our pupils are thus taught at home the more they need to be so taught at school. The simple couplet,

> "Politeness is to do and say
> The kindest thing in the kindest way."

should be indelibly impressed on the mind of every pupil.

We should expect moral support from our senior pupils, expect them to frown upon wrong and to vindicate right; if the senior pupils discountenance wrong, wrong will cease; if the senior pupils conduct themselves when out of the teacher's presence as they should do when in his presence, there will be small difficulty with the younger scholars.

We expect the senior pupil to care for and guard common property as if it was his own: To return every article to its proper place after using it; to keep his desk neat, his books in proper order and to throw nothing on the floor; to avoid wasting the time of others by whispering, writing or passing notes, by smiling, or by any of the many well-known hindrances to good school work.

In this hurried paper I have spoken briefly on pupils' study and deportment; just a word and I have done. In this day one of the most important and also most difficult tasks presented to the teacher is that of overcoming what have been termed our "provincialisms." The "Ain't it just lovely," "I seen it"; the "knowed" and "throwed," *and* the profanity of school life require constant watchfulness.

Finally, expect what we may, are we rewarded by such school virtues as obedience, truthfulness, regularity, punctuality, neatness, accuracy, industry and silence? Are we all these ourselves? Is our school a clock, great or small, in which each wheel has its place and does its proper work? Are we teachers in name or in fact, not only the pupil's philosopher, but also his guide and friend? Are we teaching the head, the heart, and the soul? If "yes," we may expect all that I have outlined; if "no," we must be content with much less.

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF DRAWING.

MISS JESSIE P. SEMPLE, TORONTO.

All true education has for its object the cultivation of the creative faculty in the child.

When we consider drawing as an educational factor, we must consider to what extent this creative faculty is developed and trained by it along art lines.

Though the development of the creative faculty is of first importance, there is still another aim, which should not be lost sight of—the cultivation of the æsthetic nature of the child.

Every child that comes into the world comes with a love for what he considers beautiful. What are we doing to raise his ideals? As Partridge says: "We must bring into children's lives every poetic influence to quicken their minds and develop the æsthetic nature. We speak much of the beauty of holiness, but not enough of the holiness of beauty."

Let us give our attention to that division of the subject which we call representative drawing, and see what the child gains from it.

We commence with the study of models of type forms, supplemented by familiar objects. In this work the child is trained, not only to observe closely, but also to express by drawing what he has observed. Drawing thus becomes to him not merely a training of the hand in harmony with the eye; but also a language in which he expresses what he sees. And this is not all. While the child has been observing and drawing objects, his mind has become stored with the images of the things he has studied. These images will become a part of what I once heard called "his drawing vocabulary." I say a part of his vocabulary, because the habit of observation cultivated by object drawing will enable him to add to this vocabulary by observation alone, and he should be trained to do this.

Our next step is the introduction of memory drawing. This cultivates the child's imaging power, but only to the extent of enabling him to imagine what has already been impressed on his mind by drawing or observation. As imaging power must come from knowledge and not from mere fancy, this is well. The point to be aimed at here being the memorizing of the vocabulary, which he has gained through object drawing and observation, and which he will need when he has taken the last step and

is being trained to exercise his creative faculty, by doing imaginative drawing, that is, when he is drawing to illustrate his own thoughts and feelings. This exercise of the imagination is really the developing of creative power. *The greatest creations of man had first to be imagined.*

We may say, then, that in representative drawing the creative faculty is trained by training the imagination; imagination is trained by training the memory and imaging power; and memory and imaging power must be founded on knowledge gained through model and object drawing.

This is the sequence in the work of *training* the child to express his thought by drawing; but he should be encouraged to express himself by pictures, even before this training has been commenced.

What though this expression be crude! Is not his oral expression crude, too? We do not keep him from speaking till he has mastered the grammar of his mother tongue. Let us follow a similar course with his drawing. He will gain in accuracy as a systematic course in the grammar of drawing is followed at the regular instruction periods.

Even this expression of the child's thought is not to the thoughtful teacher an end in itself. It only shows where the child stands to-day, not merely with regard to drawing, but also with regard to his knowledge of what he is illustrating, with regard to his emotions and to his sympathies; and gives the teacher a foundation on which to build for increased power.

Thoughts, emotions and sympathies must be externalized before they can be understood and directed.

There is a vast difference between what we train a child to do and what we allow him to do. The training should be in direct sequence and adapted to the capacity of the child. Its best results will be shown in the drawing the child is *allowed* to do. If he is interested in his work, and this is really the true test of successful teaching, he will spend much more time drawing than his teacher will spend in instructing him. Nothing will be too difficult for him to undertake. A little child would as soon, indeed sooner, draw a trolley car, a steam engine, or some familiar toy, than the simple things his teacher selects for him, and draw them better. At any rate, he should be allowed, as far as possible, to select objects for himself, even for the regular drawing lesson. For instance, suppose the apple to be the object decided upon for a lesson, the child should not pick out his apple haphazard, but *choose* it, and have some good reason for

his choice. Again, suppose that not a particular object resembling the sphere, but objects resembling it, to be assigned as a lesson, his range will be much wider and he must show greater discrimination in his selection.

Here, too, is an opportunity for the teacher to study the child through the manifestation of his interest, as shown in his choice.

Is there any educational value in copying? That depends entirely on the object for which the copying is done. If the picture thus obtained is the end in view, the child is trained merely in imitation, and no creative power is cultivated at all. If, on the other hand, a child draws entirely from objects, his work will be diagrammatic; and though giving an exact representation of what he sees, will be lacking in feeling. An artistic drawing is not merely a copy of what is seen, but an interpretation. Children should see what others have done, in order to lift themselves.

Copying of gems of art, for the sake of gaining power to express feeling, is of value just in the same way as the memorizing of gems of literature is of value in training the child's oral and written expression.

Then, too, we must never lose sight of the fact that we are to train the child in a knowledge and appreciation of the beautiful, even in the elementary stages of the work. In the commonest objects selected for study the element of beauty should be present, and the simplest drawing done by a child should give evidence that he has tried to create beauty, even though that beauty consist only in the drawing being well placed on the page.

The taste for the beautiful cannot be cultivated by itself; it should be developed simultaneously with the power to express it. We must remember, however, that the child's ideals of beauty will be embodied in the things that interest him or appeal to him spiritually. We should not attempt to force the ideals of our more mature minds on him, or his own growth will become stunted; and he will be a mere hypocrite, pretending to appreciate beauty, which he neither feels nor understands, and will become in after life like the many people we know who are never sure whether they admire a thing or not till they have heard someone else express an opinion on it. Let us see to it that we do not crowd out the individuality of the child in this respect.

Then, too, the child's environment does much to influence his appreciation of beauty. As his work in drawing from objects progresses, his power of observation is strengthened, and the images of the objects surrounding him are impressed on his mind

without conscious effort. He sees things that before he would have passed by unnoticed. The evil influence of discords in form and color will have effect, either in blunting his æsthetic sense, or irritating him by their incongruity. In school-room decoraton this should be kept in mind, and care taken that the child is not there fed on discords. A few good pictures and casts would do much to cultivate æsthetic sense. If high ideals are kept continually before the child he will express the best that is in him.

Now, taking up the departments of the work commonly called the industrial arts, that is, the departments of the work devoted to construction and decoration, we shall see what the child gains by these.

Let us trace the development of the creative faculty in the child through constructive drawing.

We commence by having the child draw views and working drawings of models and simple manufactured articles, then memory drawings of these. He now has his "vocabulary" and is ready to use it in the exercise of his creative faculty, which manifests itself in constructive design. We see here that we have exactly the same sequence in developing the creative faculty in constructive drawing as we had in representation. In construction, the observation must be exact and the execution clear and direct; this trains in definiteness.

Perhaps, in the past, we have done more in decorative drawing than in the other departments of the work to develop creative power, but with very meagre results, and why? Simply because we have allowed the child to draw from imagination, which had little foundation in knowledge; but was rather an exercise of his fancy. To understand the principles which underlie beauty in design, he must get a solid foundation by the careful study of historic ornament and good examples of modern design. Then, too, he must study nature and learn to adapt it to his purpose by conventionalization.

In industrial as well as pictorial art the idea of training in appreciation of beauty must be kept prominently in view. Decorative art exists to beautify, while constructive art deals more with the utility of the thing to be constructed. As far as possible the thought of producing a beautiful as well as useful article should be kept in mind, when a constructive design is being made; that is to say, when making a constructive design the designer should have the power to imagine the appearance of the object he is designing when completed, and aim at producing beauty.

In constructive and decorative drawing we may be accused of training our children for certain occupations, as in representative drawing we no doubt have been accused of trying to train artists. It *is* our aim that our pupils go forth into life well equipped for whatever callings they may engage in. They must be fitted to give to as well as take from the social body, but we are entirely innocent of training them for special callings. Our object rather is to give them greater interest and sympathy with their surroundings, and a greater reverence for God's handiwork and the handiwork of man as we lead them all along to see beauty in the commonest objects in nature, and to recognize man's hand and brain in the production of the simplest article that comes from the work shop.

I cannot leave this subject without reference to the great value of drawing in interesting the children in the other studies of the school course, whether done by the teacher in explanation or by the pupils in expressing or impressing their thoughts. Pictorial illustration will aid all studies; constructive drawing will be particularly valuable in mathematics; the study of historic ornament and architecture will intensify the interest in history; and as they study the qualities that made man's work endure from the ages, and realize that only the best is worthy to endure, they may be inspired to externalize something themselves that will live after them. We must be careful, though, that the subject we are illustrating is benefited by the drawing, and that the drawing does not deteriorate by being so used, in which case its value would be questionable, inculcating in the child habits of carelessness. Carelessness is not freedom. Drawing should not be considered as an accomplishment. It is a universal language, and should rank in education side by side with written and oral language as a means of self-expression.

SCHOOL OFFENCES AND PUNISHMENTS.

W. HICKSON, BOBCAYGEON.

I shall begin by asking, What is a school offence? And let me answer that it is anything that tends to set at naught the rules or laws by which you govern your school: for if there is no law, then there is no law to be broken, and, consequently, there could be no school offences. But since all institutions are governed by well defined laws, from the State down to the lowest organized society in our land, it then follows that one so important as the public school should be governed by a few fixed rules or laws. Now, since it is necessary to have a few fixed rules by which you must govern your school, and as it has always been found by the experienced teacher that these will be broken by pupils at some time or other, and in consequence of which the pupil who breaks them becomes an offender, hence we conclude that we have "school offences."

I shall mention some of them, beginning with what I consider the worst. First, I shall class the use of profane or obscene language in or about the school or that of telling falsehoods among the worst of school offences. Then the question arises, How shall we deal with such offences as the foregoing? I think the best way is, when a pupil has committed any of the above offences, providing it is the first time for him to commit such offence, is to keep him in after you close your school and talk quietly but firmly to him, and endeavor to show him that such acts about school or anywhere else are degrading, and also show him that by doing these acts he will be thought less of by you, by his schoolmates, and by everybody else, if not thoroughly degraded themselves. Ask any pupil if he would not like to be thought well of and be called a good, honest, truthful boy, and you will find in every case that you will be answered in the affirmative.

Having asked him such questions, and shown him, as far as possible, that it is not only wrong, but that it is lowering him in the eyes of everyone who knows him, then ask him if he mean to commit such an offence at school again, and you will find that in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred he will tell you that he will not. If the pupil promise to keep from the offence, then take him at his word, and treat him as if he were a gentleman, so that you may draw out his manly spirit, if there is any manliness

about him; but at the same time let him know if he should break his promise that you will lose confidence in him, and not only that, but you will punish him, stating at the same time what the punishment will be; then, if he should repeat the offence, be sure to give the punishment you promised, and, if possible, in doing so show him that he is receiving a just reward. If you can show a pupil that the punishment you have inflicted is justly merited, it is not likely you will have to punish that pupil for the same offence again.

Second, I shall mention truancy. In case of truancy always endeavor to find out why the pupil has played truant, and if the pupil can give a good reason, you should then try to remove whatever has been the cause of his truancy. The best general cure for truancy is to make your school and school work pleasant, and then pupils will like to come to school.

Third, quarrelling at school. The surest way to prevent this in your school is to try and create a kindly spirit among your pupils, every way you can. Never encourage or even allow pupils to tell tales on one another. Have plenty of games at school for your pupils, and take part in them yourself when you have time to do so. By doing this you will create a friendly spirit among your school children and cause them to like school.

Fourth, destroying school furniture. Pupils will often destroy or mar school furniture, without thinking what they are really doing. Hence the best method I know to prevent this is to show pupils that it is their own property they are destroying, and if a pupil, after having been shown that it is the money of his parents that supplied the school furniture, should still persist in marring or destroying the furniture, then make him replace it.

Fifth, I shall speak of whispering or any of the minor offences with which the teachers may have to deal, and this brings us in reality to "school government," on which volumes might be written, but I propose to make a very short paper answer the purpose. If the teacher teach well he will have but little governing to do. The foundation of a system of government in school is to furnish all with employment that is interesting to the pupils and at the same time conducive to their highest mental and moral development. Some person has said that "if you wish to keep the imps of mischief away you must put the angel of business on guard." The great mistake with too many of us as teachers is that we expect too much of children. We proceed too much on the assumption that a child has the mind of a man, and will be interested in abstract subjects. You must not only furnish him with

something to do, but it must be something he can do, and will like to do; then he will have business, and will have no time nor inclination for mischief. Nothing is more active than the mind of a child. It craves and seeks after knowledge, and if not properly directed it seeks after the bad as well as the good, and we are most of us inclined to think that it is more likely to seek after the bad.

Place a child in a church during a sermon and watch his actions, and by recalling our own experience when a child we can easily imagine his thoughts. He is not interested in the sermon, because he cannot understand it. He soon grows tired seeing the people, and he shifts his position a hundred times, counts the panes of glass in the windows, looks at the ceiling, and tries every possible way to interest himself, and does nearly everything except to get into downright mischief, which he longs to do, and would do were it not for parental restraint or the awe of the place and restraint of the people around him. A child goes to school and is placed on a seat with others of like dispositions and like restless minds. There is not the awe of church nor the dread of the parents' frown to check him. He is assigned a lesson which in a great part might as well be, for all he can understand of it, a portion from Homer in the original Greek. If this be the case, can we expect anything from the child but mischief, especially if he has an active mind ? Is it not from the child, who, if not furnished with employment would fall into mischief, that the world must expect the coming man ?

Then we must remember that here is where we must lay the foundation of school government. Provide all, if possible, with interesting as well as beneficial work. This is the solid rock on which we must build. If we succeed well in this, then our school government will be an easy matter. It may be that in a very large rural school we cannot succeed perfectly in keeping all employed, but we should do all in our power towards this end. We should try to teach pupils to govern themselves, and only when our best efforts to this end fail should we resort to coercive measures.

Were children properly trained up from their infancy, I think there would never be any need of force in governing them; but we have not had charge of these children from their infancy, and if we had them in charge, in nine cases out of ten we would have failed to train them properly; consequently, in considering the frailties of human nature, force sometimes becomes a necessity in managing the youth of our schools. I will not say whether I be-

lieve in provincial rights or not, but I certainly believe in the schoolboy's rights. However, at the same time, I would say, let the teacher reserve the "veto power" fully. The teacher should be to some extent the autocrat of his school-room; but with this he should also lay before his school a few necessary rules, and as far as possible secure the voice of the majority of his pupils in enacting and enforcing them. Of course there may be cases where it is necessary for the teacher to use his own mind, without the sanction of his pupils.

The teacher, while he does not make a show of watching his pupils, should ever be on the alert to detect departures from what is right, and at once check them. A firm stand at the beginning of a term in a new school is of great importance. One evil act permitted to pass will be followed by a score, hence a rather rigid discipline at first will prevent the necessity of close watching afterwards.

Do not attempt to keep a school as still as a church. The performance of the actual duties of the school, if carried on in an enthusiastic manner, cannot be without more or less noise, but of course all unnecessary noise must be stopped. Always remember that forty pupils will make more noise than twenty, and if anyone points you to a very quiet school, ask how many pupils there are.

I knew a teacher who used to keep his school almost as still as death, but I never saw any real progress made in studies under him. He was a success so far as keeping the school quiet was concerned, and that was all.

Shall whispering be suppressed in school ? I answer yes and no. If it is injurious in your school suppress it if possible. Some teachers claim that they can suppress it entirely, but I do not believe it. I think it is one of the impossibilities, especially if you do any teaching at the same time. If your school is large a great confusion will be caused if each pupil only whispers a little. Then the teacher should do all in his power to prevent it. He may find it necessary to write the names of those who persist in the practice on the board. This should not be done so much as a punishment, but as a reminder of the fact that they are disturbing the school. The teacher should explain to his pupils that it is necessary that they should refrain from whispering, as it is impossible to do the work of the school well while there is a confusion caused by it. There may be extreme cases which will require extreme remedies, and I leave it to each to devise his own method of punishment. Very little more need be

said here on school government. A long list of rules laid down is of more harm than good in a school. A few necessary rules and the general principle, Do right, is all that is necessary. Let the teacher be orderly and systematic in everything he undertakes, and he will thus unconsciously teach order and system to his pupils.

Before leaving this matter of school government, allow me to recapitulate a few of the leading ideas in the foregoing:—

1. Let the teacher teach well.

2. Let him provide means to keep all profitably and pleasantly employed.

3. Let him be calm, watchful and firm.

4. Let him set the example of order and system by being orderly and systematic himself.

5. Let him secure the aid of parents and school boards, and let him work with them.

Before closing let me revert to punishments. What is the best kind of punishment? My opinion of it is this, that after you have succeeded in cultivating a sentiment of honor and that principle, Do right, in your school, then it will come to pass that the most effective punishment—indeed, almost your only punishment—will consist in the loss of honor. The giving of bad marks or the withholding of office, responsibility, all signs of esteem and confidence, from him, will serve as the best punishments. Hence I think we should look in this direction for the punishments which we may wisely use, and be dissatisfied with ourselves and our plan of discipline so long as we find it needed to employ any others.

What shall we say about corporal punishment? Shall we begin by denouncing it altogether? No, I think not. When all other means fail, the puzzled and baffled teacher has to resort to it. The punishment of the body for certain offences is nature's way of discipline, and therefore it is not necessarily degrading to young children nor unsuited to the imperfect state of their mental and moral development.

Dr. Arnold was not wholly wrong on this subject when he vindicated flogging in certain extreme cases:—"The proud notion of independence and dignity which revolts at the idea of personal chastisement is not reasonable, and is certainly not Christian," he said.

It is sin that degrades pupils, and not the punishment of it; so if there be certain forms of vice which can be cured more readily by the infliction of such corporal punishment than by

any other means, the punishment will need no other vindication. But while we allow full weight to this view of the case, let our great aim be to do away with corporal punishment, for if our government is based on high principles; strict without being severe; having no element of caprice or fitfulness in it; if the public opinion of the school is so formed that a pupil is unpopular who causes trouble in the school, then I think you will find that not only all the more degrading forms of personal chastisement are unnecessary, but that need of punishment of any kind will steadily disappear in your school.

Now, since we have concluded that there is to be corporal punishment in schools for extreme offences, then it follows that an instrument for the infliction of such punishment should be clearly defined in the school law. We are told there to exercise the discipline of a "judicious parent," but the meaning of the phrase "judicious parent" varies a great deal with the different persons in sections, villages, towns or cities.

Some parents think this phrase means that the vicious offender in school is to be thoroughly "birched," so that the teacher may drive all vice out of him; while other parents, who are like some of the monarchs of old who did not wish to see any person exercise authority but themselves, take this phrase to mean that this "injudicious" person, who is licensed to govern the school, should not lay a finger on their dear boys, and if the teacher does attempt to administer a just reward to these precious boys, then he must go to the police court to answer to a charge of assault. One clause in the school law could make this as clear as the noonday beam, and set this matter at rest hereafter.

Now, Mr. President, I shall close with the following suggestions :—

1. Never strike a pupil with your hand.
2. Never inflict corporal punishment in the heat of passion.
3. Never inflict corporal punishment for intellectual faults, i.e., for stupidity or ignorance. Reserve it altogethtr for vices that are morally degrading to the tone of your school.
4. Do not let any instrument of punishment be included as a part of the school furniture. It should not be flourished about in school as a symbol of authority.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

TRUTHFULNESS.

MISS F. BOWDITCH, HAMILTON.

1. Do you find all children truthful; if not, what are some of the causes of this evil. Are there any distinctive physical marks by which this habit may be detected?

Answer yes, or no, and give reasons to the foregoing questions.

2. What may we as kindergarteners do to establish truthfulness? Why is it (truthfulness) a necessary trait in the character of those to whom little children are entrusted?

Answer and give reasons to above questions.

3. How shall we deal with children afflicted in this way? Answer under following heads:

When caused by (*a*) Fear.
(*b*) Heredity.
(*c*) Imagination.
(*d*) Vanity.

I. TRUTHFULNESS.

(*a*) No.

(*b*) Causes:—Fear of punishment—Vanity—Love of approbation of elders Love of boasting—Too much self-esteem—Covetousness—Lack of power—Lack of freedom—Lack of self-control—Selfishness—Greed—Heredity tendencies—Influence of evil example—Stubbornness—The over-development of the imagination—Suspicious parents and guardians—Too trusting parents and guardians—Placing children in positions unfitted for them. Imprudent promises and threats made without intention of fulfilling them.

(*c*) Physical Marks:—An unwillingness to meet the eye of kindergartner—A tendency to turn the attention away from himself—General nervousness—Change of color, restless behaviour—A shuffling of feet—Twisting of hands.

II. TRUTHFULNESS.

1. Give proper recognition of true merit—Avoid threatening—Promise but little, but always fulfil what you promise—Gain

confidence of child—Be accurate in everything—Hold up true ideals—Develop individuality—Be watchful of circumstances, so as to avoid leading him into temptation.

2. Truthfulness is a necessary trait in the part of those to whom children are entrusted, because they learn so much more readily from example than precept. Inaccuracy in those to whom children are entrusted helps to lower ideals.

III. TRUTHFULNESS.

Fear. Determine cause of fear and remove it—Seek to gain his confidence—If through weakness develop his power.

Heredity. Develop his individuality—Substitute environment for heredity—Counteract the influence of parents—Remove opportunities for untruthfulness—Since child has no motive for truthfulness supply one.

Vanity. Recognize efforts more than results. Tell stories embodying the beauty of truthfulness—Avoid undue praise—Show by story and song that it is deeds not words which give man his true reputation—That the boastful spirit has no place in the kindergarten.

Imagination. Reduce his illustration to actual experience. Encourage child to describe events exactly. Help him to see and hear correctly. Describe accurately the material in the kindergarten. Find the germ of truth in his imaginative narrative.

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS.

MISS L. P. MACKENZIE, BRANTFORD.

Children's Rights is such a wide subject I was almost too timid to attempt it, but have tried to say a little about the rights of the future citizens of the world. Miss Blow has said, "To become conscious of *self* is the first business of the child, and the whole business of man," and that statement seems to include all the rights to oneself and duties of others to us. The child, then, has a right to know himself in his totality—body, mind and spirit—and cannot do this without assistance; at least he must, to attain any degree of perfection, be helped by all else in the world. The next question arises, How is he to obtain that assistance? Has he any duty to himself that gives him the right to demand assistance from others? Assuredly. If he be endowed with powers capable of development, then he must exercise them. It is through activity or exercise that development is possible. A physical organism develops by converting appropriate material from its surroundings into vegetable cells or animal tissues—it assimilates foreign material and stamps it with its own type. Mind follows the same law. Each stage of development, whether physical or mental, has its own characteristic, and it always depends upon that which precedes it and foreshadows that which is to follow.

> "See matter next with various life endued
> Press to one centre still, the general good—
> See dying vegetables, life sustain,
> See life dissolving, vegetate again,
> All forms that perish, other forms supply."

Great mistakes in education are made in the failure to recognize the different stages of natural development. "We make knowledge our idol, and continue to fill the child's mind with foreign material under the gratuitous assumption that at a later age he will be able, through some magic transubstantiation, to make it a vital part of his own thought." (Miss Blow.)

To thus load the young mind is an offence, and we must be careful not to insist upon the exercise of faculties whose normal development belongs to a later period; hence it is the child's right to be dealt with according to reason. We must not neglect him, but we must not discourage or stultify by forcing upon him what his mind is not ready for—the bird that flies too soon cripples its wings—so exercise should be proportioned to strength, if we wish to increase strength.

Every child has a right to know what his duties are, and be given the knowledge as to how to conform to these duties. He has rights in the home. He has the right to be educated in the widest, broadest sense possible to that word, and if he be given the true training in these he will know himself in all his relationships, individually, socially, civilly, nationally and spiritually. I intend only to touch on a few points whereby we may help the child to know himself in some of his relationships at the beginning of life. Parents and first teachers have much to answer for, as they lay the first foundation, and how important and essential it is that the uncertain inclinations of a child should be guided into good, definite action. Implant right ideas and they produce right actions—right actions grow into right habits.

"Sow a thought—reap a deed,
Sow a deed—reap a habit,
Sow habit—reap character,
Sow character—reap destiny."

So, true education is made up of two elements: Development of all the powers possessed and the acquisition of knowledge. The conditions of these will be regulated by the periods into which the human life is divided. We have only to deal with infancy and childhood. Each period has a set of interests, and therefore corresponding duties peculiar to itself. It is the right of an infant to be cared for in regard to its bodily wants. No one will deny this—and therefore just as important that its mental and moral nature should receive food, for there are few people now who think only the physical nature of a child is to be looked after for the first six years of its life, and that the mental and moral faculties are some way magically superadded after that period; and obedience is the key-note therefore of all the duties of a child, and it is just on this one word that so much depends, and parents should see to it that they understand what obedience means, and therefore deal justly with the children. Many complain that children of this age are disobedient, too independent, and therefore the new education is not so good as the old, where implicit obedience in all things was the standard, and so there is a conflict between the old and the new ideals. The new education aims at building up self-control and individual insight; "substitutes the internal authority of conscience for the external authority of the master"; in fact, "the new ideal regards insight into the reasonableness of commands the chief ends."

Much of children's resistance to authority comes from their instinctive opposition to assaults upon their freedom, and these assaults come from those who should be the first to grant it.

The more parents and teachers can train themselves to look upon children as independent beings, and entitled as such to all we older ones claim for ourselves as our rights, the sooner will the relationship be adjusted upon that higher level which belongs to the present day. The fact that a child is born of certain parents does not give them the right to tyrannize over him.

Not till that great law which governs the universe, and so is God's law—the unchangeable sequence of cause and effect—is recognized and co-operated with, will either the child or the mass be truly educated and justly dealt with; have its higher nature appealed to, developed, made active; producing in consequence that self-control which is the aim of all endeavor. The consequence of a child's act should be its punishment. This will lead to obedience. Some one has said, "Let a child experience the consequence of its own mistakes, neither preventing these through weak indulgence, nor displacing them with others more in accordance with parents' angry feelings," is to act for the best good of the child; is to afford it the means for learning an inevitable lesson; is a preparation for the perception that comes to so many only in after life. "As a man soweth so shall he reap."

It is not meant for a moment that parental and school authority should not be given its proper place and receive its due recognition, but when it is *forced* instead of *won*, forced by the strength of might, it is a rebel, not a self-respecting subject, that is the result. Infinite patience is necessary, but the result aimed at is a great one, for to call up conscious, ready and willing action within the child is so much better than to endeavor to add from without.

The child owes it to himself, therefore, to be obedient to all reasonable law; this will enable him to receive his rights at the hands of his fellows, and to accord them theirs. There are fundamental truths he must learn, and the sooner he masters them the more power he will have.

Another of his rights is to acquire knowledge and be given the means to do so—knowledge of his own powers, knowledge of nature, books, people, etc., all that the intellectual life requires, and in doing this he is true to his own mental self. "He works his own mine," as some one has said. If it be a gold mine, he brings forth gold; if silver, silver. "To master one branch of knowledge may be compared to a strong fortress in an enemy's country, from which we may sally forth at will to conquer surrounding territory."

"Knowledge may be likened to a sphere; from every point of the circumference we can by persistent labor dig down to the centre. He who has reached the centre commands the sphere." (Adler.)

In the acquisition of knowledge there are some fundamental conditions of social life learned. Dr. T. W. Harris, commissioner of education, U.S.A., calls them cardinal moral habits. They are regularity, punctuality, silence and industry. Certainly they are necessary in school life, also in the home and kindergarten, if we wish success to crown our efforts. They are qualities one has to be possessed of in manhood to be successful in any undertaking, and therefore must be given to children. Industry takes a high rank as a citizen's virtue. We only acquire strength in any department by unremitting toil and industry. It is indeed true, "Man shall live by the sweat of his brow."

Children are, as a rule, industrious, and they have the right to be assisted, so their efforts may be in the right direction, and so all their powers become stronger. The trouble often occurs of giving them "something to do, just to keep them out of mischief." Something out of which they obtain no result and no feeling of satisfaction, and by so doing we discourage them and engender habits of sloth. Very little need be said regarding regularity and punctuality. We all know how important they are in every department of life. In all industrial life they seem to be the hinge upon which all else depends. The management of machines requires the alertness which has its being in these qualities. Anything requiring concerted action requires punctuality and rhythmic action, which is only another word for regularity.

Adler says, "Regularity is favorable to morality," and proves in this way: He says it acts as a check on impulse; it is not really moral in itself, but it is favorable to morality, as it curbs inclination. So if we are able to implant ideas of regularity and punctuality in the child we are doing a great deal for him.

Then Silence. The silence imposed for short periods, either in the home or kindergarten, means considerate regard for the rights of others, and out of this will grow rational self-restraint, because it rests upon the considerateness for work and feelings of others. It is a great lesson in co-operation—a lesson on the moral code "Do unto others as you would that they should do to you." We might speak of the child's right of property. He should have his own place in the home. His books and playthings should belong to himself, to do with as he wishes, and so be experinced in the duties pertaining to ownership, but time forbids.

We in the kindergarten, who take the child from the home and introduce him into the larger sphere, should be very careful to study him aright, and then, so far as within us lies, give him right conditions for the proper development of his physical, mental and moral nature; help him to a knowledge of himself; help him to understand his duties to his companions, and after he has learned this he will be able to take his place in civil and national life; for he cannot learn all his duties at once. Out of family life he broadens into school life, then civic, church and national, and when he has done this he will have a knowledge of himself in all his relationships, and should know the true measure of life.

" We live in deeds, not years, in thoughts, not breaths,
In feelings, not in figures on a dial :
We should count time by heart throbs when they beat
For God, for man, for duty. He most lives
Who thinks most, feels noblest, acts the best.
Life is but a means unto an end—that end
Beginning, mean and end of all things—God."

(P. J. Bailey.)

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

IMPROVEMENTS IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

T. A. CRAIG, KEMPTVILLE.

There is no class of men who have better opportunities to observe the workings of our public school system than our public school inspectors. And there is no class of men whose experience in public education is broader and more worthy of being recognized than that of inspectors. An inspector cannot be a theorist, for he sees theories knocked to pieces every day; neither can he be a pessimist if he is alive to his duty. Believing then, as I do, that inspectors are the most capable men in this province of suggesting improvements in our public school system, I have ventured to introduce a subject for discussion by the members of this section of our association, and to learn the opinions of my fellow-inspectors regarding it.

An educational system like ours, which is based on the experience of nations, and is in process of development, must, in order to keep pace with the progress of the times and the evolution of educational ideas, be continually undergoing change, and what we conceive to be change for the better. It is not my intention to criticize the basis of our system or to introduce a discussion on the connection of our schools with politics and religion, or to argue that the education of the people should be controlled by the church or by the state, or by a happy combination of both. The subject assigned to me is a broad one. I may attack the educational structure anywhere, from the foundation to the topmost stone. If I were to attempt a review of the entire system I would require days, perhaps weeks, to get through with it. I will, therefore, deal with only one important particular, viz., the teacher.

In Ontario we have three classes of public school teachers, viz., teachers holding first-class certificates, teachers holding second-class certificates, and teachers holding third-class certificates. In literary and professional qualification there is a vast difference between these classes of teachers. Every inspector knows that the educative work done by a first-class teacher is much superior to that done by a second-class teacher, and that the work done by a second-class teacher is superior to that done by a third-class teacher. If we are to improve our schools we can only

hope to do so by improving the teachers, and consequently the teaching. The three great problems which confront us to-day, so far as our teachers are concerned, are:

1. How to retain our best teachers in the work.

2. How to get longer service from those who enter the profession.

3. How best to secure a higher standard of qualification.

In order that we may more clearly understand the work that we are doing in training teachers, I have tabulated the following facts regarding our second and third-class teachers, from the last report of the Minister of Education:—

THIRD-CLASS TEACHERS.

Year.	Number of 3rd Class Certificates Issued.	Number of 3rd Class Teachers Employed.	Increase.	Decrease.
1892	1,225	4,299	.....	.....
1893	1,456	4,259	.....	40
1894	1,587	4,351	92	.....

SECOND-CLASS TEACHERS.

Year.	Number Trained at Normal Schools.	Number Employed.	Increase.	Decrease.
1892	442	2,999	30	.....
1893	428	3,047	48	.....
1894	379	3,074	27	.....
1895	442	3,184	110	.....

On examining these figures we learn that we license on an average about 1,500 third-class teachers every year. These are to take the places rendered vacant through teachers becoming disqualified or leaving the profession for other callings. We also learn that a very large percentage of our second-class teach-

ers are annually lost to the work. According to the figures which I have given, 394 second-class teachers were lost in 1893; 401 in 1894, and 269 in 1895.

Let us now examine what it costs to give professional training to one of these second-class teachers. The average cost of educating one pupil at our public schools in 1895 was $8.79.

The total number of pupils attending the model schools in connection with the normal schools in 1895 was 801.

The cost of educating 801 pupils at $8.79 each was, therefore, $7,040.79.

The cost of maintaining the two normal schools for the same year was $46,490.

Therefore the cost of training 442 teachers was $39,450, which is nearly $90 each.

In these figures I am sure I am within the actual cost, as I have not taken into account the fees paid by pupils who attend the model schools in connection with the normal schools, and some other items of necessary expenditure.

Again, the increase in the number of second-class teachers employed in 1895, over the number employed in 1894, was 110, or only about one-fourth of the whole number trained. We, therefore, lost three-fourths of the number trained, which represents an actual cash loss of $28,587.

These figures, of course, are based on the assumption that there should be no loss of second-class teachers to the profession. This is an impossibility, but I think the results given will convince us that the drainage should be reduced to a minimum, and that every second-class teacher retained in the work is a direct gain to the public treasury.

Again:

The legislative grant to County Model Schools in 1895 was	$10,300
The municipal " " "	9,000
The fees paid by teachers in training in 1895 was	8,207
The salary of Model School Inspector "	1,850
The amount paid County Inspectors for visits to schools	610
Total cost (neglecting examination expenses)	$29,967

The number of third-class teachers trained was 1,644; therefore it cost about $18.25 to train each third-class teacher. It is here also apparent that every third-class teacher who abandons the profession is a direct loss to the public.

Every teacher of experience who leaves the profession is not only a financial loss to the country, but there is the greater loss

of professional perfection. It will be admitted that skill and teaching ability depend very much upon experience. Teachers during the first two or three years in the school are mere apprentices and experimenters. Our model schools certainly do much in the way of fitting the teacher for his work, but model school experience differs very materially from actual practice and the responsibility of a school. The teacher who does not improve his management, discipline and methods as his experience increases, should be disqualified, and thus removed from the work. Granted, then, that a teacher of experience is superior to a teacher without experience in professional skill, why do we disqualify teachers of three years' experience? We deal with this matter as if teachers of experience were inferior to teachers without experience. The disqualifying of third-class teachers when they have completed their three years' apprenticeship has always appeared to me an anomalous proceeding, and a proceeding which could not be justified. The regulation regarding the extension of third-class certificates does not meet the case, because extensions are "granted only where it is shown that the trustees have used reasonable diligence to obtain a regularly qualified teacher," which means that if granted the teacher in nine cases out of ten must take a smaller school and a lower salary, in other words, step downward—a course which no teacher with the true progressive spirit will enjoy.

Again, according to our present regulations a third-class teacher is qualified to take charge of any public school except a model school, and thus compete with our first and second-class teachers for positions. The appointments to these positions are entirely in the hands of representatives of the public, and properly so; but, owing to the peculiar character of education, a large percentage of the officials empowered to make appointments are not competent to form a proper estimate of the value of the work to be done, and consequently qualification and experience are too often neglected factors in the selection of a teacher. If the number of vacancies in an inspectorate is not equal to the number of teachers from the same inspectorate granted certificates during the year, the beginners will in most cases secure places, while the teachers of one or two years' experience will be compelled to take a reduced salary, remove to another county, or quit teaching.

Another reason why so many teachers annually drop out of the profession is because so many make use of teaching as what is called a "stepping-stone" to other and more lucrative professions. A young man can obtain a third-class certificate at very

little personal expense and thus be in a position to earn a little money to help him in his college course. Such teachers soon lose interest in teaching and fail to do justice to the children committed to their care. If we could afford it, I believe the smallest public school should be placed beyond the reach of the mercenary teacher.

Perhaps the greatest reason why the most ambitious and most successful teachers give up teaching at the end of two or three years is because the prospect of rising in the profession is not at all bright. When a teacher discovers that he is face to face with strong competition, that the remuneration for his services is not governed by the efficiency of his work, and that the position which he holds is subject to the whims and notions of officials who are as good as irresponsible for their actions, it is little wonder that he begins to look for a calling in which there is more independence and freedom.

Another matter that I wish to mention in order that we may more fully understand the question I am dealing with is, that according to the last report of the Minister of Education, there were 8,824 teachers employed in the public schools of the province in 1895, and that during the same year there were 47 first-class, 518 second-class, and 1,644 third-class certificates issued. This is a little over twenty-five per cent. of the number of teachers employed. We, therefore, are compelled to train an entire staff of teachers for our schools every four years, and if we are to have efficiency this cannot be done at a trifling expense.

Let me now sum up the points which I have raised in connection with this question:—

1. We have three grades of teachers, differing very materially in academic standing and professional ability.

2. The highest grade of teachers have not professional protection equivalent to their professional attainments.

3. We are compelled to train annually about one-fourth of the number of teachers employed in order to fill the vacancies occurring each year. If we could reduce the number of vacancies we need not be at the expense and trouble of training so many teachers.

4. The professional training of our teachers is entirely at the public expense.

5. The return, by way of service, which we get for the outlay in training is not a satisfactory equivalent for that outlay, or at least might be greater.

6. The annual increase in the number of first and second-class teachers employed is too low in comparison with the number trained.

7. There is annually an immense loss of that teaching power which results from experience.

8. Teachers abandon the profession because:

(a) Third-class teachers are disqualified at the end of three years.

(b) First and second-class teachers are compelled to compete with third-class teachers for positions.

(c) Teaching is made use of as a "stepping-stone" by young men entering other professions.

(d) The talent and brain power necessary to make a successful teacher will command better remuneration in other callings.

(e) Their positions are not free from the favoritism and whims of the public.

What, then, is to be done in regard to these evident weak points in the teaching department of our public school system? So far as I can see, I am of the opinion that we should offer some special inducement to teachers to remain in the work and to trustee boards to employ teachers of high standing. The committee appointed last year to report on "How to Retain our Experienced Teachers," recommended that a small fixed grant of $5 or $10 be given for each teacher who holds a second or a first-class certificate. I think we acted wisely in adopting the principle suggested by the report, but the amount mentioned ($5 or $10) is not great enough. I would say not less than $15 or $20.

Third-class teachers, unless they have had at least three years' experience, should not be eligible to take charge of a school having an average attendance of over 25, unless on the special recommendation of the inspector and in sections raising at least three mills on the dollar for school purposes.

Third-class certificates should be renewed at the end of three years on the teacher passing a satisfactory examination, based on teaching experience. The present plan requires a teacher to again attend a high school and review the work to which he has already given a number of years' time. If the renewal were based on professional work the teacher would be required to devote more time and give better attention to the study of methods, management, etc. Besides this, the inspector, who would, no doubt, be a member of the examining board, would be in a position to interfere with the further qualifying of unsuccessful teach-

ers. Inspectors might be required to keep a record of each teacher's work and to report to the board granting the renewal.

Teachers' salaries should be commensurate with the amount they can command in other callings, otherwise they will abandon the work. Schools employing two or more assistants should be offered special inducements to pay the head teacher at least $600 per annum.

It is the duty of the government to get the best possible service for the least possible cost, and to obtain this, I believe, we should put a greater premium on efficiency than we have at present.

Now that we have compulsory attendance at school, and a wholesome public estimate of the advantages to be derived from education, I think the government grants should be apportioned on other basis than average attendance, and might be used to encourage efficiency in the teaching and improvement in the maintenance and sanitary condition of the schools.

I have now occupied enough of your time in introducing this important subject, and hope that it will receive that consideration which I am sure every inspector feels that it merits. My short experience as an inspector has confirmed me in my opinion that there is much room for improvement in the status of our teachers, and that we, as undoubtedly the best acquainted with the weaknesses of teachers and with their relation to the public and to one another, should give this department of our work special consideration and make whatever recommendations we feel should be made touching this matter to the Minister of Education.

THE NECESSITY FOR INCREASED INSPECTION OF MODEL SCHOOLS BY PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

F. L. MICHELL, PERTH.

In the treatment of this subject I must necessarily be guided largely by my own experience, and if I happen to find fault where no fault exists, I must claim your indulgence. My paper shall have at least one merit of a very high order—it shall be brief.

Some model school principals maintain that the school while in session should not be visited by the inspector, because visits of this kind interfere more or less with the work of the session, and thus take time from a term already far too short for the work to be overtaken. Again, the methods elaborated by the inspector may not always fully agree with those propounded by the model school master, and hence may lead to confusion. To the former objection I would answer that the model school exists for the good of the teachers-in-training, and anything of most good to them can be no real interference with the school. More weight may be attached to the second objection, but with regard to this I have only to say that the inspector has no right to "discuss methods." It is his sphere to examine methods according to their educational value, and if they are antiquated or inadequate, discuss the matter with the principal, not with the students. Having established the necessity of visits of this kind, let us next inquire into the real duties the inspector ought to aim to perform in the model school. These are of two kinds—(a) for the benefit of the teachers-in-training, and (b) for the advantage of the inspector himself.

In justice to the teachers, the inspector should visit the model school for the following reasons:—At the close of the session there will be held a more or less rigid practical examination before the county board of examiners, whose principal member is the inspector. It is, therefore, but right and proper that the students should be informed as to the conditions, etc., on which marks will be awarded. Then he has opportunities of cheering those who are diffident, checking those who are over-confident by timely counsel. These visits also prepare the teachers for work before strangers. Hitherto these young people have been pupils in our high schools, dependent for guidance upon their regular teachers. Now it becomes necessary for them to assume an entirely different relation. The young

teacher must be taught to accustom himself to the presence of strangers, and to perform his allotted task as well before visitors as if no one were present. In order to break down their nervousness, the inspector should visit the model school as often as possible. Again, marks are assigned for governing power at the final examination. Either such marks must be a bonus or a mere guess unless the inspector has had opportunity during the term to find out at least approximately the power of each teacher in this regard.

Important as these duties are, of infinitely more importance are the results of careful visitation to the model room. Here it is the duty of the inspector to criticize, correct and cheer—duties apparently contradictory, yet quite possible. As pupils in the public schools, as candidates at the departmental examinations, the teachers-in-training have acquired a feeling towards the inspector not akin to friendship. They must now be accustomed to consider the inspector as a friend and helper, and themselves as co-partners with him in the important work in which they are to engage. They must learn that the best results cannot follow their efforts unless full understanding and full confidence exist between them and the inspector. These important objects can not be fully overtaken at all, much less in the minimum time assigned by the department. Then there are difficulties peculiar to each school section—local difficulties, if you will—that are known to the inspector, and to him alone. These may be pointed out and suitable action suggested to meet them. Again, there are matters of school management, etc., concerning which every inspector has special methods. It saves an immense amount of labor to exemplify these matters to the class while in session, rather than to each individual teacher after the school work is begun.

I would not advise any changes in the regulations, but would urge frequent visitation for the reasons already advanced. Advice, however, according to the G. O. M., simply chills, example inspires. To set an example, therefore, I may say that I visit our school always seven or eight times, sometimes more, and I have never yet felt that I have exhausted my usefulness in this direction. I do not wish to be understood as encouraging a system of martinetism, disagreeable alike to inspector, principal and teachers. If the inspector does his work in a generous spirit, with the evident desire for the general good, no misunderstandings can arise. All parties interested will come to fully understand and trust one another, and this is the main end to be accomplished by these visits—a consummation impossible in two visits.

As to remuneration, which is a point of the utmost importance, I can find no fault with present arrangements. The true remu neration here lies in the good results which must necessarily fol low work of this nature. It is a case of "casting bread upon the waters."

The department does not limit the inspector to two visits, for the model school principal in his report is required to mention the number of visits made by the inspector. We are urged "to visit the school during the term, and to encourage by our presence (interest, I suppose), and counsel the teachers-in-training in the pursuit of their studies." Thus we may visit as often as we like.

In conclusion, I have found that when I have visited often, I have been better able to mark the pupils intelligently, and have had better results from the teachers when employed in the schools than when my visits were few. I found that frequent visitation pays; that it is easier to correct a defect or establish a principle before a class of 40 than to perform the same work in 40 individual schools. But the best, and possibly the most lasting, result is the formation of that bond of sympathy and friendliness between teachers and inspector so necessary to success. Our visits are, or should be, for the benefit of the teachers, not for that of the trustees. If we can encourage the teachers and inspire them with a high ideal of their work, and a fixed determination to study and make the most out of it for the benefit of the class, we are really doing the maximum of good to the parents and pupils. It is to secure these objects that we should try to send out every teacher as fully equipped as possible for the work he is engaged to do. In the broadest and best sense of the term, we are the guardians of the people, and we shall best perform our duties by placing over the men and women of the immediate future teachers not only well informed, but filled with a high ideal, and determined under all circumstances to be honest in the discharge of their duties.

SOME OF THE DUTIES OF A PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

G. D. PLATT, B.A., PICTON.

I have no intention of rehearsing the long category of duties prescribed for fulfilment by inspectors, for are they not all set down seriatim in the book of the law and subject to quinquennial revision by the Legislature? But there are duties to some extent incidental which are not the less important on that account, and it is to a few of these that I would respectfully ask your attention for a few moments.

First, what is an inspector's duty in reference to the popular view of the end and aim of education?

Do not most parents send their children to school as a commercial investment, and a means of promoting their material welfare? Do they not first fix their eyes upon some position of ease or emolument, and make the education of the child subsidiary to its attainment? Somebody says, this is making the school a grindstone and the child a thing to be sharpened, and he might have added, it is making the teacher a grind rather than an instrument of true education. This is the fundamental error to which may be attributed many of our educational grievances. It is the influence which largely controls the teacher's work, compelling him against his better judgment to work for present results rather than to lay broad and deep foundations for the future. It is directly responsible for the popular rage for passing examinations with its concomitant evils, and leads to the teaching which is calculated to make the pupils dislike physical labor and become discontented with the lower planes of life. Hence the general tendency on the part of senior pupils to desert the farm and workshop and enter the already overcrowded professions—a mistake for which teachers and inspectors are to a considerable degree responsible. The over-anxiety for immediate results leads the teacher to skim over the mental soil without reference to the latent wealth of the unstirred subsoil—to store the mind with finished bales of information rather than awaken thought and thus develop mental power. It is directly opposed to the true principles of instruction as laid down by Sir John Lubbock, who says:—"If we had to choose between attainments and the vigor of mind which has the power to attain what it wills, we should

choose the latter. The important thing is not so much that every child should be taught, as that every child should wish to learn. Better leave school with only a thirst for knowledge, than with a mass of information without the thirst." And Herbert Spencer's fifth guiding principle is "that the process of self-development should be encouraged to the fullest extent." Now, I submit that the pressure in the school-room is too high under present circumstances for the attainment of these desirable objects. There is too much rush and thoughtlessness. The maxim that "Silence is golden" is especially true of the recitation room, where distracting influences should be reduced to a minimum, whatever becomes of the overcrowded programme.

Is it not true that this very mistake of "Small profits and quick returns"—in other words, of superficiality—is very common also in our High Schools, and even in the Universities? No doubt in the latter case it is partly due to the want of sufficient leisure to produce that ripe scholarship to be found in the old world, but we as educators should strive at least to lay in our public schools proper foundations for a thorough education. If our teachers bear a great responsibility in this connection, I think that for obvious reasons inspectors bear a still greater responsibility.

Secondly, has not the inspector some responsibility in connection with the moral training of the pupils in our public schools?

I do not take a pessimistic view of the type of moral character that is being produced in the rising generation of this province, because I appreciate very highly what is being done by the various institutions of the churches, and especially by an army of conscientious teachers, who are, I believe, easily the peers of any similar body in the world. Yet from the very nature of the situation this very important part of the teacher's work is apt to be neglected. There is a long list of secular subjects to be taught for which the teacher must account, and there is no test provided in this department. But this is really a most important duty and one which, neglected, may render the rest of his work a curse rather than a blessing.

It will not do to relegate this duty to the home and church. The children spend such a large portion of their waking hours in the school-room that the moral influences they meet with there are of vital importance and produce lasting impressions. But the public schools are institutions of the state for the training of

its citizens, and if the state is to be prosperous and enduring its foundations must be laid in the morality of its citizens. Any other foundation is sand rather than rock. A recent writer says:—"All history emphasizes the fact that in times of great depression, severe calamity, or high partisan feeling, the moral character of the people is the only reliance and hope. The staying and sustaining power of sterling morality exceeds a thousand fold all the brute force the disciplined intellect can summon or control." There is, therefore, a necessity for rigid, thorough and continuous moral training in our public schools. Dr. Parkhurst says:—"Every school maintained by the state should inculcate the principle of dependence upon God and obligation to Him. These things are essential to sound learning and safe citizenship. This is psychology, not propagandism—patriotism, not piety. Such teaching is not so much for the purpose of keeping the children out of hell by and bye, as for the sake of keeping hell out of the children now. Moral teaching by example and precept is within the reach of every teacher. Let us emphasize realities rather than names." And Emerson says, "It matters not what you study; the question is with whom."

The moral character of the teacher is doubtless the first consideration, and that matter is to a considerable extent under the control of the inspector. Immorality in a teacher should be dealt with in a decided manner, as a protection of the school and the community. A lack of moral teaching in school should be detected and pointed out in the same way that the neglect of other instruction is dealt with. Appeal should occasionally be made to the pupils' sense of right and honor. If it is the duty of the inspector to measure as accurately as possible the intellectual growth of the pupils, and to give some attention to their physical welfare, certainly it is equally his duty to give some attention to their moral development. He should take care that the usual safeguards are employed to prevent the spread of immorality—that no incorrigible pupil is allowed to remain in the school, and that due regard is had to the influence of companionships arising from sitting at the same desk. I fear too little attention is paid this very important matter. No doubt many a youth might date his first lessons in immorality from the influence of a seat-mate at the public school. Many children attend school from homes where there is a low state of morals, and it would be most improper to make them the companions of those who have had careful home training. The objection of some parents, that at the public

school all children meet on a common level has, therefore, much force, and places on the teacher a corresponding responsibility to prevent its becoming a means of moral injury.

Again, the reading lessons which appeal to the sympathies of the children should be emphasized by the teacher as a means of heart-culture. Dr. Stanley Hall pleads for the stories of the Old Testament for this purpose. He says, "The supernatural is the only possible regime and treatment of the heart, by which it can be kept, as it always should be, larger than the intellect. If the supernatural did not exist we should have to invent it for the education of the deeper elements of the soul. Self-sacrifice is the moral of all morals."

After the teacher, the school-room and its accessories should min'ster to the moral instruction and elevation of the pupils. Both the exterior and interior should be as attractive and tasteful as the circumstances will admit, and in addition suitable mottoes should be displayed upon the walls. Besides these the thoughtful teacher might devote a conspicuous corner of his blackboard to some brief but expressive selection of prose or poetry, changing the same weekly or more frequently as the pupils may prefer. It is not easy to estimate the effect of these simple devices upon the mental and moral growth of the children.

Thirdly, what is an inspector's duty in relation to the present tendency of teaching to run in grooves ?

The groove may be a brand new one with the fresh patent of the Normal or Model School upon it; but it is a groove, however orthodox. Do we not set up uniformity as a golden calf, and insist that everyone shall bow down to it or be counted an old fogy ? Do we not make machines of our teachers ? Instead of changing our appliances to fit the individual boy, do we not compel the boy to fit the method ? Are not the heads of Canadian children cramped into moulds as rigid and ridiculous as those which deform Chinese feet ? Would it not be about as sensible for a physician to prescribe the same treatment for each of his half hundred patients as for the teacher to adopt the same course with a like number of pupils ? No matter what the natural inclinations of the rising generation may be, after a few years of school drill the dead level of uniformity is reached. There is no premium on originality, because it is made impossible in any branch for which we have a method. Simultaneous teaching is nominally a great time-saver, but in many instances it proves a genius-killer. Who is satisfied with the results of our school

training? We may be able to boast that a high percentage of the population is able to read and write, but how many brilliant graduates has Canada produced as the result of forty years' experience of her educational system? The trouble is that we as educators have worshipped the machinery of our system. It has monopolized our attention to such an extent that the heaven-born light just breaking into the life of some child-pupil has not been cherished, because unperceived.

It is our duty as inspectors to encourage individual teaching to the fullest extent, and to give the right hand of sympathy to those teachers who realize that the end of their calling is not so much to drill their pupils upon nice points in grammar and arithmetic, as to develope whatever may be their mental tendencies and help them to become worthy men and women.

Of course a reasonable attention to method is necessary, but teachers should not become slaves to it. Boys and girls do not exist for the method, but method is made for the benefit of the pupils, and is therefore to be sacrificed to their welfare if need be. A teacher impressed with the responsibilities of his vocation, and with even a comparatively brief experience, will find a method that will produce better results than the most thoroughly trained teacher who is wanting in appreciation of the serious character of his work. It behoves an inspector to be wary in making suggestions and proposing changes in the methods pursued by the thoughtful teacher. To aim at uniformity in processes is to degrade the grandest profession of humanity to the level of a mechanical trade.

A LESSON FROM THE MODEL SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

H. REAZIN, LINDSAY.

The object of this paper is to call attention to the large amount of *illiteracy* exhibited by candidates at the model school examinations, to account for its existence, to suggest a remedy, and to consider the duty, the responsibility and the accountability of public school inspectors in the matter.

That a great deal of illiteracy does exist amongst those who write at the model school examinations, *with their primary certificates in their pockets*, and sometimes even a junior leaving certificate; that many write for third class certificates who are bad spellers and who cannot write a letter in decent English; that many of these use wretched grammar in their conversation, and in teaching before the examiners, are facts that are beyond question. Every public school inspector, every member of our county boards of examiners, every model school master, can bear testimony to their existence.

As proof of this illiteracy, if proof be required, I give below a few specimens from a large number of selections made from the answer papers on Physiology and School Law at the last model school examination in our county.

MISSPELLED WORDS.

Antispeptic, *beaf* tea, carbonacious, impares, difusion, gase, corporal seal, calander, maintanence, injureous, requisits, expell, accross, artifical, poisoness, supplys, ulsers, musles, *bear* hands, secrets (for secretes, four times), regullarly, sickiness, there and thare for their, corporal seal, luck (for look), theretoo, improved (for approved), inspecter (three times), corporal seal, calender, obsene, refracturing (for refractory), obsene, maring, expell, beleive, judgement, occuring, Hollidays, exhillaration, quarreling, culender, expells (the last three from a senior leaving pupil), to much, mastification, eppiglotis, effected (for affected), dyptheria, sourse, cloths (for clothes), possiable, laborous, to much, carbineous (carbonaceous), inspecter, corporal seal, calender, willful, expell, effected (affected), premal (penal), capilliary, hurted (hurt), savern (saffron), trys, irrates (irritates), liquir, clorde, loose (lose), cloths (clothes), elbo, throught (throat), stomache, acquired (required), yeo (you), practice (practise), religeous, recieve, contageous. Here follow some of the funny things said and written by some of the

candidates: "The blood is loaded with impurities when it should be loaded with purities." "Chemical foods." "The alimentary canal is the throat." "The alimentary canal is a large vein leading from the heart to the lungs." "The pharynx or windpipe is the passage from the larynx to the lungs." "The teacher shall not be allowed to teach in a public school no other language except the English, abiding he lives in Ontario." "She told the story to who." "I didn't get along very good." "Subject by the revice." "Expelling out." "Alcohol is an irritant because it soothes." "Antiseptic meals antidote." "The organs of respiration are the lungs, liver and stomach." "Carbonaceous foods build up bone." "The gall and pancreatic juice are stored up in the gall bladder until needed." "Organs becomes." "The bile and pancreatic juice changes."

Seventeen of our candidates were the authors of the above literature and much more of the same kind. They all hold primary certificates, a few hold junior leaving, and one at least senior leaving. But what I chiefly regret and what I would call your particular attention to is the fact that 13 out of the 17 carried off third class certificates. One of the 13, who writes cloths for clothes and possiable for possible, applied for a school taught by an excellent second class teacher, and by taking $50 less salary carried the citadel victoriously, and the former occupant was compelled to beat an ignominious retreat.

Now, the lamentable thing, the mysterious thing, the thing that we as examiners must consider, or the public will soon be considering the question for us, is how so many of these illiterate candidates manage to slip first through the primary examination and then through the model school examination. Whether it is through "a streak of good luck," or whether through the carelessness, or indifference, or incompetency, or personal interest of the examiners, is a question that is already engaging public attention. It is a question the public have a right to ask, and I think they have a right to ask it of their public school inspectors, because a primary certificate hurts no one, no matter how illiterate its owner may be. No board of school trustees is deceived by a primary certificate. It is the third class certificate in the hands of an illiterate person that practices all the deception, and the responsible party on every county board of examiners, viz., the public school inspector, is the party that is chiefly answerable for this deception. These certificates go forth to the public with our names attached to them, and are received by trustees with confidence as a proof of the scholarship, the training and the com-

petency of the happy possessors to teach a public school. It is humiliating to know that in many cases they are no proof at all. If trustees who have engaged such teachers; paid their money, and have not got their money's worth, were to accuse their inspectors of being parties to something like a swindle, what answer could we make? And if the second class and other experienced teachers who have been underbidden and elbowed out of their situations and perhaps out of the profession by such as these were to lay the charge of their misfortunes against the county boards of examiners, how many of us could plead innocence?

But why do such illiterate candidates ever reach the model school examination? How are we to account for this illiteracy in our own county? It will not do to say that Victoria county is in the back country, because we have one of the best collegiate institutes in the province, with a staff of eight teachers, and our unlucky 17 were all prepared in that institution. Not one of them was prepared in any of the public schools of the county in which primary candidates are still prepared. Candidates prepared in the public schools for the primary examination do not write this kind of nonsense! How, then, are we to account for the prevalence of this illiteracy amongst those preparing for the teaching profession, which I am informed is pretty general throughout the province? The high schools must take a large share of the blame. High school men prepare the primary candidates; high school men prepare the examination questions; high school men read the answer papers; high school men grant the primary certificates. The entrance examination is their standard of admission. They draft pupils from the public schools who only half know public school work, and *they neglect to teach them the other half.* To the high schools and to the entrance examination I attribute all the blame. The entrance examination has been the curse of the public schools, and more especially of those pupils who are preparing to become teachers, and it has been the curse of the high schools. Placed at the middle of the public school course it depleted those schools of the larger pupils, drove out the fifth class and reduced them to such a primary condition, more especially the rural schools, that they could be taught by young girls holding third class certificates, and who were willing to teach for $225 to $250 a year. And it filled the high schools with some very crude material. A good public school education is a necessary foundation for all successful after study, and especially is it a necessary foundation for the education of that class of students who are to become public school teachers.

But why should illiterate individuals, even if they hold primary certificates, ever receive third class certificates? High school men, unless they are members of county boards of examiners, are not responsible; and I hold that no high school master should ever be a member of a county board of examiners to examine and grant certificates to his own pupils, because he can hardly help sympathizing with them. The county boards are solely responsible. The sin lies at their door, and for the action of any county board the school inspector is chiefly responsible. Regulation 51 of the Education Department says the board shall have power to reject any candidates who may show themselves deficient in scholarship. The country is overrun annually with nearly 2,000 additional third class teachers, the output of our model schools, mostly young ladies of tender age, licensed to apply for any experienced teacher's position in the province, ready to underbid any such teacher, if necessary, in order to secure a situation. Surely under these circumstances we can do without the illiterate ones!

THE REMEDY

lies in the public school leaving examination and with the county boards. The county boards must reject all those who are "deficient in scholarship" at the model school examinations, and the public school leaving must do the rest. Already it has done much good. It is rapidly bringing back the fifth class to the rural schools. In 1895 fifty-four schools in my inspectorate had fifth classes, with an attendance of about 300 pupils, and we passed 37 pupils. Huron county passed 141, standing first in the province. Middlesex stands second, having passed 120. All praise to the inspectors of Huron and Middlesex. The province passed 1,358 public school leaving candidates in 1895, being an increase of 81 per cent. over the previous year, which shows the growing popularity of this examination. I do not know of any pupil, and I have not heard of any pupil, who remained in the public school until he had passed the public school leaving examination that has failed either at the primary examination or at the model school examination. There is only one place in which a thorough public school education can be secured, and that is in the public school. If the pupil does not get it there he is not likely ever to get it. And will anybody have the hardihood to say that a model school graduate who has never received a good public school education is a fit person to teach a public school, and especially a public school with a fifth class in it? Any pupil who goes to

the high school as soon as he is able to pass the entrance examination—that is, as soon as he half knows public school work—is not likely ever to know it. He cannot teach what he does not know, and should never be allowed to attempt to teach a public school. Our hope, then, is in the public school leaving examination. Admit no one to any county model school who does not hold both a primary certificate and a public school leaving certificate. Let us all unite in securing a regulation to this effect. It is not better trained teachers the country requires, but better *educated* teachers. Not better educated in the higher subjects, but better educated in the lower subjects. Not better educated in high school work, but better educated in public school work. When we as inspectors have brought about these things, an unwholesome fog will have lifted from the public school atmosphere and from the teaching profession; and although future generations may not rise up and call us blessed, those who know will say that we have done a good thing for the present generation, and we shall be conscious of having done our duty.

DIFFICULTIES OF THE TRUANCY ACT.

D. McCaig, Collingwood.

I have been induced to introduce this subject to the notice of the Inspectors' Department, under the conviction that the present operation of the Compulsory and Truancy Act fails, in a measure at least, to secure the object for which this portion of our school legislation was intended. For some reason or other, in our towns and cities the requirements of the Act are evaded in many different ways, and boys to-day run idly and lawlessly about our streets as freely and unrestrainedly as before its enactment. In our town of Collingwood, at least, this is true, and I think it must be partially or wholly so in other places.

Last fall, when a consignment of English waifs were being brought over to one of the Barnardo Homes in this Province, the statement was made in one of the Hamilton papers that there were 400 boys living on the streets of that city, for whom nobody cared, but that it did not pay to save Canadian boys. This, perhaps, may be a somewhat exaggerated example of the freedom of the press; but in this case I fear it possesses a very substantial substratum of truth. It is, however, unnecessary to go very far afield for facts. It is but a very short time since the inspectors of this city waited upon the Minister of Education as a delegation, asking for his assistance in dealing with some particular phase of this troublesome question.

One of the chief difficulties, I think, in the administration of the Act, arises from the great number of ways in which the law in the case can be evaded. Poverty, pressure of work at home; sickness, real or feigned; distance from school; home-teaching, are a few among the many excuses which may be put forth as reasons why the law should not be enforced in nearly all the cases which come up for judgment. The question of age is also taken advantage of to evade the Truancy, as well as the Compulsory Act.

There is a great deal of truancy under 8 and over 14 which escapes being dealt with, on the plea that the truancy officer has no jurisdiction except between these ages. It is plain, that if this be the correct interpretation of the Act, that nearly half the pupils who attend school may do as they please in the matter of truancy; yet Regulation 5 requires that every pupil whose name is entered on the register of a public school shall attend punctually and regularly every day of the school term in which his name is entered.

But I think the chief cause why the law with regard to truancy is largely inoperative, is the hesitation which school boards, and other officers on whom the successful carrying out of this law principally depends, have in coming between parents and their children. As the law now is the whole punishment falls upon the parents, even when they are neither morally nor practically guilty. Truancy in most cases exists in spite of them and their strongest anxiety to overcome it. I know personally that in the case of many parents having the utmost anxiety, and making the most strenuous efforts to keep their boys at school, they fail to do so. In our town of Collingwood, and I suppose in most towns, many of the fathers of families are from home a great part of the year, as travellers, as railroad men, as fishermen and seamen. They get home for a short time, perhaps once a week or once a month, and the boys during the intervening time are left with their mothers, and *they* simply lose control of them, and the boys live on the street. Officers become tired working up cases against poor widows and mothers, who, with prayer, tears and entreaty, have done their utmost to send and keep their boys at school, but have utterly failed in their efforts to do so. The boys themselves are, meantime, simply allowed to drift, and their resorts and haunts become the nurseries of our criminal population. Many know this to be true, but no one will take the trouble, the responsibility or odium of asking or showing whether or not these boys are fit subjects for the reformatory, though it is plain to everyone they are very unfit to be at large on the streets. Yet we all hesitate to drag them by force from the control of parents who may still have some hope of their betterment, and cling to this hope long after all the world beside has abandoned it.

Another reason why the law fails to secure the intended result is, that this element is not really wanted in our public schools, as at present constituted. First, because of the influence on other pupils, and secondly, because of its troublesome character. In fact, if teachers and school boards can get rid of it with any reasonable justification, they are quite willing to let this element take its chances on the street, and leave it in the hands of the policeman, where it now virtually is, as a street colony of amateur thieves and highwaymen.

The causes which have led up to this condition of things are of a very complex character. First, these boys, the habitual truants, are generally big, overgrown fellows; cunning in many things, but away back behind their years in educational attainments; rarely fit for the second book, when they ought to be in

the third, and not fit for the junior third when they ought to be in the senior fourth. But, secondly, the requirements of our graded school system in cities and towns makes it imperative that pupils take the whole curriculum. These boys, therefore, because they are behind in a number of subjects, if they come to school at all, must be placed in the same classes and departments with children not nearly their age, and little more than half their size. And as this kind of boy always measures greatness by bulk, he feels himself degraded by his surroundings. Things are slow and monotonous compared with the freedom and excitement of the street, or the intrigues of his amateur robbers' cave; he therefore finds himself in a position of rebellion and antagonism from the very first. But, worse than all, such a boy has to be placed in the hands of a young and inexperienced girl teacher, such as school boards find it necessary to place in charge of our lower rooms, because they can be got at a low salary. Such teachers have not the physical energy nor experience to deal with these cases. They simply endure. Afraid of a scene in the school-room, they put off, and find their authority gradually but surely slipping away from them. It is not this boy alone, but the whole school that suffers, and is being demoralized and contaminated. The crisis comes at last; endurance is no longer possible. After many delays the boy forces the fighting, and the scene is brought on, and generally ends in the teacher's being dismissed, as unfit to govern and lacking in disciplinary powers, or the boy's being turned on to the street to pick his way through life as best he may amid the devious and uncertain conditions of his unfortunate environments.

I have so far, and only very partially, attempted to set forth the difficulties of the case. The attempt to furnish a remedy is more problematical. I think, however, we have not yet exhausted all our resources, and that there is a possibility of greatly improved methods of dealing with this troublesome phase of the educational problem. In the first place, it is utter folly to place such boys, as I have been attempting to describe, under such conditions and teachers as are found in the lower rooms of our graded schools. The teachers found in these rooms cannot control these characters, and the surroundings are wholly unsuited to their conditions.

These boys are to-day, as a matter of fact, found a few here and a few there, scattered over the lower rooms of all the graded schools in our towns and cities; sometimes in the first, often in the second, but rarely in an advanced third book class. They never reach the fourth. They are thus thinly spread over a wide area,

and made as difficult as possible to be got at, in the way of information or discovery, by the truant officer; and if one or two of them be absent here and there they are rarely missed. In fact the teacher is rather pleased than otherwise to be rid of them. If is for her a holiday and release from an overhanging dread. Now, instead of having this impossible element of trouble and constant danger spread over our schools in the way I have attempted to describe, why not have it all gathered into one or two rooms where you can keep track of it, and see at once how much of it is where it ought to be and not on the streets? And, not only that, but know also where to find it at once, and where are, at least, its haunts or the place known as its home. This, instead of going round all the wards and schools of the town, would surely be one great advantage in favor of this first step in the scheme. Now let this troublesome element so collected in one place be given into the hands of a good, strong, healthy male teacher, of large experience, known governing power, a good man, physically and morally strong, and a lover of his work and his kind. In this ungraded room let there be more personal contact and individual teaching. Let the course of instruction be more in consonance with the possibilities, and probabilities, that are before the boys of this truants' room. Leave off ornament, for a time at least. The three R's are the first educational prerequisites for the rough-and-tumble struggle of life. After these teach whatever it is possible to overtake of the whole school curriculum. It is the most consummate folly to put a boy such as I have attempted to describe, and there are dozens of them in every town, in with children half his own age to drag along the snail pace of a second book room; and know nothing more at the end of six months than he did at the beginning. We recognize the wisdom of this course in the work undertaken in our town and city night schools, established to assist intelligent clerks and mechanics. Why not with this element, which is more hopelessly out of the run of the full public school course than the clerk or mechanic just alluded to? You do not place these in the second book because they are ignorant of grammar, geography or history, but you take hold of them where you find them, and make the best of the conditions forced upon you. There is nothing so discouraging to a big boy with only weak moral convictions, as to place him away down with children half his own age and size, where, as he returns to school from time to time, he finds himself in the same place, term after term, often year after year, simply because he has forgotten, or never learned, some details of grammar, history, geography or drawing.

I do not think this is putting it too strongly, nor do I think that the boy is much to be blamed if he finds even truancy preferable to this treatment.

There is in all our towns and cities an element which the mere exigencies of existence force very closely upon the precarious conditions of the street Arab—conditions which keep many of the youth of our cities hanging forever on the borders of the slums; driven there by their own moral obliquity, or perhaps by the equally potent force of hereditary tendencies, but equally so by the pressure of circumstances, which forces so many of the race to that condition which makes up one of the dark extremes of civilization. The sheer struggle for existence drives the newsboy and bootblack into the street; few take to these occupations of simple choice; and truancy sometimes is an outgrowth of one or other of these untoward conditions. If, therefore, we could handle this element without trying to force it into the impossible conditions of the graded school, and feeble authority of the young lady teacher, it appears to me that something might be done to save it.

From my present views and convictions with regard to truancy, I would establish in connection with all our town and city schools at least one ungraded room, if you object to the designation truancy room. In it these unfortunates or delinquents should be cared for, and taught with a view to their probable condition and occupation in life, and not for the purpose of rounding out some ideal educational system. Though I am not sure, after all, but this would be a more complete rounding out of what we are prone to regard as a nearly perfect system.

It may be objected that this would be establishing a kind of reformatory, as a department of our public school system. Much better establish one reformatory than give to very many of our school-rooms the very opposite tendency from the too effective influence of this aggressive element.

The plan, then, which I consider worth a trial, at least, would be to place in a single room all truants and incorrigibles who have not placed themselves outside the pale of public school advantages; and under such a teacher as I have already described, I would leave him and them the full latitude of common sense, to make the very best of the conditions in which they found themselves, keeping in view in its full acceptation the probable condition and requirements of the pupil, and the time and mental capabilities for its attainment. The fear of being assigned to this room would, it appears to me, be a very wholesome deterrent, not only against truancy, but against many other forms of insubordination.

I am absolutely certain that the relief of the young and inexperienced teacher from this very troublesome element, which generally finishes its erratic school course with the third book, and the moral advantages consequent upon this relief would amply justify an experiment in this line being made. Besides, the fact that this class of pupils were being taught and held together under the eye of one teacher, with the history of their daily conduct and whereabouts easily got at, and dealt with by the teacher or truancy officer, as the case might require, would, it appears to me, be very effective in stamping out the evil. From a mere economic point of view it would certainly be an advantage for the truancy officer to learn at one point the probable truancy cases for the day, rather than be forced to visit and inspect every school-room in town to obtain the same result.

But, apart from the insubordination and truancy phases of the case, it would appear to me that, in connection with our large graded schools, an ungraded room is almost a necessity. Everywhere inspectors are met by the difficulty, presented usually in this way by the teacher: Here is a big boy; he has been away from school all summer; he knows nothing of history, geography or grammar; what shall I do with him? Where shall I place him? He is too big to go into the second class. Most teachers, and perhaps most inspectors, would simply say: Well, he has not got up the work for the third class; he must be placed in the second till he does so. The truth, however, is, that if such a boy is so placed you destroy his chances in nine cases out of ten of ever accomplishing anything educationally. If he remains a while in the school he becomes idle and troublesome, perhaps disobedient; and if he is not dismissed from the school he leaves in disgust. And this class of pupils, which is met everywhere, is never up in all the subjects of any grade in the school.

If, therefore, it is understood that there is a room where such pupils can be attended to, and their particular case dealt with, their self-respect does not suffer by placing them there.

I think I have now sufficiently outlined the scheme, which I believe it would be an advantage to adopt in all our town and city schools, and shall simply leave it with you for discussion, if you think it worth any more attention than it has already received. Suppose any such method of dealing with truancy and the other difficulties alluded to were adopted, there would, of course, require to be legislation in the case, or, at least, some regulations setting forth the course to be pursued and the work to be done. The regulation might perhaps take this form:

The Board of Education of any town or city may set apart one or more rooms in connection with the public schools under its jurisdiction to be known or designated an ungraded room, to be used in the training and assistance of such pupils as from truancy, neglected education, or other causes, are unprepared to enter any of the regularly graded rooms. Such rooms shall be placed under a male teacher of known teaching and disciplinary ability, holding not less than a second class professional certificate.

I may just say in closing, that this system of dealing with truancy and its consequent evils has been with me a matter of conviction for some time, and I was much surprised and strengthened in my conviction on visiting last fall the schools on the American side, across from the Canadian Soo, to find the system in actual operation, much as I have attempted to describe the proposed scheme.

There I found the ungraded room to be one of the most important in the whole school. In it I found boys 14 and 16 years of age being taught and individually helped over defects and difficulties that prevented their being placed in a graded room suited to their age. Here results were secured in a few months that would have taken two years in our ordinary way of placing these pupils in a room on the level of their lowest attainments. But who, by this judicious and common sense method, were in a short time lifted over these difficulties and placed on an educational standing that by the present method many of them never would have attained.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

REV. ALEX. JACKSON, M.A., PH.D., GALT.

(*a*) "The status and influence of the Trustees' Association in relation to Public Education in Ontario."

(*b*) "The relation and responsibility of the Department of Education to societies, such as the College of Physicians and Surgeons, the Law Society, the School of Pharmacy, and others, which enjoy public franchises and Provincial protection, and have power to frame restrictions affecting the curricula of our schools, the educational interests and the public welfare of the Province."

GENTLEMEN:—There is an old proverb which credits some undeveloped beings with "rushing in where angels fear to tread." While not claiming to belong to the latter class, it is to be devoutly hoped that no one will rank me with the former, because I am called upon to speak on two subjects of such delicacy and importance. I am only paying the penalty of a generous desire to advance the usefulness of the Trustees' Department in the better education of the youth of the Province. When asked to suggest topics which might be profitably discussed by the Association, I gave the two now associated with my name, and in return was asked to introduce them. Considering them of very great importance, I was desirous to hear what the members of the Trustees' Association might think of them. But as the Department has honored me with the office of its President, I shall open the discussion as requested, and leave all further debate to your wisdom.

The two topics have much in common. The natural relation of the Trustees' Association to the public on the one hand, and to the Educational Association, of which it is now only a department, on the other, is somewhat analagous to that which subsists between the Department of Education and the public on the one hand, and the various learned societies, which enjoy liberal franchises from the Government, on the other. In the professional service of the community, the various learned societies pursue their respective professional courses, avowedly for the good of the community, and in that pursuit are protected by the franchises given by the Government, of which the Education Department is the general executive in their direction. Similarly the educational service rendered by the teaching profession is under the

control and direction of the various Boards of School Trustees in their respective districts and departments. Of course, Boards of Trustees of all sections of our educational system are also under the Government. But there is a very important difference in their public status and that of the teaching professions. Ultimately the Government, and its executive in educational matters, is the voice of the people. And as the Public and High School Trustees represent the people, they also in a material sense may be said to have a superior bearing even on the Education Department itself. The Government and the Educational Department represent the people in administering educational interests, subject to constitutional safeguards; and when they cease to represent the people, or appear to, the appeal is always to the latter. Even so, Boards of Trustees administer their trusts for the people, subject to Governmental or constitutional safeguards; and they, too, are ultimately subject to the people. And as the Trustees' Association is a representative body, in which every Trustee Board in city, town, or rural district is, or may be, represented, the Association really represents the people of the Province who are directly interested in educational affairs. This claim is not made in any pretentious spirit; but only as the statement of a fact, and as carrying with it serious responsibilities. It should be realized, not only by the members of this Association, but by every school trustee in the Province. The Education Department ultimately represents the people in its relation to the self-governing learned bodies within the Province; and the Public and High School Trustees' Department also ultimately represents the people in its relation to the educating bodies. Both the Education Department and the Trustees' Association ultimately derive their authority from the people, and both have an important trust committed to them. Both are responsible to the people for the manner in which the trusts committed to them and by them delegated to others, are administered in the interests of the public.

And it will not be out of place here to notice the spirit of the head of the Education Department in relation to the Trustees' Association. The Honorable Dr. Ross has shown his large statesmanship, as well as his uniform courtesy, by the attention and care he has shown in the consideration of all matters brought before him by the trustees as the representatives of the people who bear the public burdens, and in whose interests our Educational system was established and is maintained. The trustees are usually business or professional men who have no personal "axes to grind," who give their valuable time and services with no hope of fee or reward, other than the conscious-

ness that they have been of some material service to their fellows and to the commonwealth in a department, than which none of a public character has a more important bearing on the best prosperity and the truest well-being of the country. To raise up an intelligent, capable, and virtuous people is the great true aim of a national educational system worthy of the name and of this age; and this is the aim of the educational trustees of all grades in our Province. They receive no profit or personal reward, other than the consciousness that they have tried to serve their respective communities in particular, and the country in general.

It is, on the other hand, no reflection upon the integrity and public spirit of the great body of teachers and educators, to say that they are professional, that it is the business of their lives to serve the public, in return for which they are to receive an adequate support and an honorable recognition. As, however, human nature is human nature, or as Tom Hood would say, "There's a great deal of human nature in man," a wise arrangement will always seek to balance professionalism with interested lay authority. Experience in religious government has shown the wisdom, even the necessity, of this. A church governed by professional religious leaders alone, tends towards religious despotism and priestliness; while a church governed by laity alone, tends towards religious anarchy and the subordination of religion to worldliness. In a similar way we are always more likely to secure the best interests of the community and the country when professionalism is properly balanced by lay authority.

The need of this was illustrated no later than during the past year. One of the learned professions, to which in its corporate capacity had been delegated power and authority to regulate admission to the ranks of its members, without any warning set up an arbitrary barrier because of which a multitude of candidates who had attained the requisite literary standard as far as had previously been required, and many of whom had even exceeded it, were shut out. It is to the very great credit of the Ontario Government that, having exhausted all ordinary means of securing a rectification of the wrong, a bill was introduced into the late legislature to secure that end. The leaders of the professional body referred to were roused to consider the matter, and on consideration voluntarily offered the Government to fully and handsomely rectify the wrong which had been done by a small committee, whereupon the bill was withdrawn. The incident no doubt has taught its own lesson. The body referred to is one of the most honored in the Province, and among its members are many of the most

honorable and useful of our public servants and citizens, yet it was brought into disrepute by the arbitrary and selfish action of a very few of its members. There is no doubt that its watchful leaders will be careful to not allow a similar blunder to be made. In all professionalism there is the same danger; and it is the duty of the Government to promptly rectify any wrong done, or attempted to be done, under the authority of a public franchise granted by it to any corporation. In the present case the Government and the head of the Education Department deserve credit for the firmness, tact and courtesy with which they managed a most delicate and embarrassing affair. As a result of the course of Dr. Ross, both the Government and the professional body referred to have a more honorable standing with the public than they previously enjoyed.

The Public and High School Trustees' Association, while an independent organization, acted as a balancing element in our Provincial educational system. Dealing with vital questions of education from the standpoint of the people, its discussions and decisions tended both to liberalize and broaden the teaching profession, and to materially aid the Minister of Education and his Department in administering the educational trusts of the Province.

The question, however, has been raised whether the Trustees' Association has not materially impaired its usefulness by amalgamating with the Educational Association. As a department the Trustees' Association is anomalous with the other departments of the General Association. They are properly mass meetings of those interested, while the Trustees' Department is a delegated body. There are five departments of the professional side of the Association, each of which sends three members to the Executive Board of the General Association (one sends six members), but the one department of Trustees sends only three members to that Central Executive. There are upwards of 10,000 teachers of all grades in the Province, but nearly 20,000 trustees. The 10,000 teachers have now five departments and may have fifty; and they are represented by eighteen members of the General Executive. The nearly 20,000 trustees have only one department and are represented on the General Executive by three members. Professionalism is to the front in the Educational Association Executive, while the great body of trustees, who give their valuable time to support and direct education in their respective communities, appear as a sixth wheel. Then the Association meets at a time to suit the teaching professions, but most inconvenient for many of the most able, interested and useful of the Public and High School Trustees. It is a wise provision that the

teachers should be considered, as the benefits of such an Association must be very great to a live teacher; but a number of the leading members of the Trustees' Association have not been able to attend since it was amalgamated with the General Association, and its weight and influence have been correspondingly impaired. Still further, the representatives of the Trustees' Department on the General Executive have been embarrassed by a sense of incongruity in their presence there. It is but natural that, in such a body, the leading themes should be professional, and that the leading exponents of professionalism should be put forward, and it would be ungracious and ungenerous to complain of it. The feeling is, therefore, also natural for those whose interests are wide apart from the great majority to remain passive. Where the trustees are recognized in such circumstances, it is from a sense of obligation to a body affiliated with them, or from courtesy to gentlemen whom they respect and wish to honor. At a recent meeting of the Executive a request was made to the Minister of Education for a larger appropriation for the uses of the Association. A committee had been appointed to interview him, but he preferred to meet the entire Executive. After hearing the appointed spokesmen of the Committee, the Minister turned to the representatives of the Trustees' Department, and asked their opinion as representing the taxpaying interests of the Province. The President of this Department had not been named on the Committee, nor one of his colleagues. The professional members of the Executive doubtless did not think that there was any necessity of specially recognizing them, and they in personal self-respect did not feel like obtruding themselves in the matter. But the Honorable the Minister of Education evinced his good sense in recognizing an element on the Executive, wholly different in character and in its financial relation, from the majority. I have no delicacy now in discussing this matter, as according to the practice of this Department my successor in this Chair will sit on the Executive Committee, and this discussion is in his interest and that of his successors as representing the Trustees' Department and the taxpaying people.

There was even a more significant misunderstanding ventilated in the Executive Committee, which was exceedingly embarrassing to the representatives of this Department, at least it was to your President. When the amalgamation of the Trustees' Association with the Educational Association was in contemplation, the committee representing the latter body assured this Trustees' Association that it would be to their interests to unite. It was pointed out that, this Association being a representative body, it was necessary to send out to the Boards

of Trustees throughout the Province the necessary reports and programmes. It was promised that this would be provided for, and so long as one of the members of the delegation remained on the Executive, the agreement was recognized. Nevertheless, in connection with one annual meeting no programmes or notices were sent out to Trustee Boards, and as a result the meeting of this Department was that year nearly a failure. Next year, on the representation of the Trustees' representatives, provision was made to supply Trustee Boards with programmes and reports. But, at the Executive meeting last November, a motion was made to rescind this resolution. This provoked an acrimonious and unkind discussion, to which your President declines again to be exposed. In the discussion, the Secretary of the Executive denied that any such arrangement had been come to with the Executive. That body, however, accepted the statements of the Trustees' representatives, and induced the mover and seconder of the resolution to withdraw it. As, however, the Executive is constantly changing its personnel, it was agreed, on the request of your President, at the meeting of the Executive on Monday, to have a memorandum inserted in the minutes which would remove the question from the contingency of future debate. Thus, what was both a right and a necessity was granted as a courtesy. In all of this, it was exceedingly humiliating for your representatives to appear as "boring" the Executive with what some looked upon as sectional matters.

Per contra, it is pleasant to notice the uniform courtesy shown to this Department by the Honorable the Minister of Education and his deputy. With the Minister our relations have been from the first most cordial. There has not been the shadow of a single misunderstanding. Where he has given us a good reason against any action, our body has cordially acquiesced. And on the other hand, where the Trustees have given the Minister a good reason for any action, he has either acquiesced, and at once inaugurated such steps towards the attainment of the end sought as might appear advisable, or assured us of the adoption of such steps at the earliest practicable moment. In regard to any necessary expense which might be called for, in properly advertising the proceedings of this body to all the Trustee Boards of the Province, the Minister assured our Committee that if necessary he would try and secure a special appropriation for the purpose. And it was partly in the line of implementing this pledge that an additional grant was last year made to the General Association. The Honorable Dr. Ross has also more than once courteously given credit to this Department for material assistance rendered to him in Departmental affairs.

While, therefore, we recognize the somewhat anomalous position of the Trustees' Department in the Educational Association, we need have no fear but that we shall enjoy the most satisfactory relations with the present head of the Education Department. At the same time, all necessary measures should be adopted and persistently prosecuted to bring all the Trustee Boards of the Province into interested co-operation in Provincial educational affairs, and to enable this Department to exert a beneficent influence on the educational system of the Province. The Public and High Schools Acts passed by the Legislature, which adjourned yesterday, show in many of the most important changes in the law, the influence of the Trustees' Department; and the Honorable the Minister has, as already mentioned, courteously recognized that assistance. There is an important place and work for the Trustees' Association. It has been of material assistance in the past. There is no reason why it should not exert a healthy influence hereafter. This is not necessarily to be advanced by constant tinkering with the educational machine, but by the awakening of public interest in educational problems, the dissemination among trustees of a wider knowledge of education, and by carefully studying the law in its practical application and suggesting to the Department of Education such modifications as may be shown by experience to be necessary and prudent.

Gentlemen, I thank you for the honor which you have conferred upon me in electing me, by a unanimous and standing vote, as your President for the present year. I congratulate you on the past history and important services of the Public and High School Trustees' Association and Department, and I welcome you to these sessions, and respectfully and confidently look to you for that courtesy and assistance which you have always given my predecessors, and upon which I depend for the successful and pleasant prosecution of the business of this Department. Our sessions are now open for business.

APPENDIX.

LIST OF MEMBERS

OF THE

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1896-97.

Addison, Miss M. E. T.....Stratford
Albarus, Miss H. S.....Morrisburg
Alexander, R.....Galt
Alexander, W. J .....Toronto
Allan, Thos.....Durham
Allen, John.....Paris
Allen, T.....Durham
Anderson, G. K.....Windsor
Anderson, John.....Arthur
Ardagh, J. A.....Barrie
Armour, S.....Lindsay
Armstrong, M. N.....Orangeville
Atkin, Wilbur ..... St. Thomas
Aylesworth, G. A..... Newburgh

Baker, Alfred .....Toronto
Balmer, Miss Eliza.....Toronto
Ballard, W. H.....Hamilton
Barber, A..... .....Brampton
Barnes, Chas. A.....London
Baskerville, Miss N.....Brampton
Beeton, Hugh.....Petrolea
Bell, J. J.....Petrolea
Bell, W. N.....Simcoe
Bellamy, W. ..... Colborne
Bingeman, Miss S. M.. .....Harriston
Birchard, A. F.....Elora
Black, Miss .....London
Blakeston, M. J. .....Priceville
Blanford, Miss ....Ingersoll
Bolton, Miss E .....Ottawa
Bonner, R. J. ... .Collingwood
Bonis, H.....Vienna
Bowditch, Miss F.....Hamilton
Boyd, Miss .....London
Brebner, John .....Sarnia
Brick, Wm.....Ottawa
Briden, W..... .....Ingersoll
Brightley, Miss M.....Peterboro
Broderick, Geo. E.....Lindsay
Brook, B. F.....Listowel
Brough, T. A.....Owen Sound
Brown, A.....Morrisburg
Brown, Geo. L. ....Morrisburg
Brown, J. A.....Whitby
Brown, J. Coyle.....Peterboro
Brown, Jno. R.....Madoc
Brown, S. W. ....Dunnville
Brown, W. H..... .....Gravenhurst
Brown, W. R..... .....Picton
Brunton, T. H..... Newmarket
Bulmer, J. R .....Ailsa Craig
Bunnell, Miss E. M.....Brantford
Burns, W. J.....Caledonia
Burritt, Jas. H.....Pembroke
Burt, A. W. .....Brantford
Burwash, Chancellor .....Toronto
Butterworth, Miss .....Toronto

Cameron, J. H. .....Brussels
Cameron, J. H.....Toronto
Cameron, Mrs.....Toronto
Campbell, James .....Forest
Campbell, Jno.....Toronto
Campbell, N. M.....St. Thomas
Campbell, N. W.....Durham
Carmichael, J. H.....Woodville
Carnochan, Miss J.....Niagara
Carroll, Mrs.....St. Catharines
Carscadden, T.....Galt
Carter, Miss J. W. .....Elora
Chadwick, C. W.....Toronto
Chambers, Miss R.....Preston
Chapman, W. F.....Toronto
Charles, Miss H. .....Goderich
Chase, Geo. A.....Toronto
Cheswright, R. C. .....Seaforth
Chown, Geo. Y.....Kingston
Christie, J. D. .....Simcoe
Clark, Miss A. E.....Toronto
Clark, M. S. .....Toronto
Clendenning, W. S.....Walkerton
Cole, G. A. .....Owen Sound
Cole, J. M.....Aylmer
Collver, Miss M.....Simcoe
Conklin, J. D. ..... Ottawa

Connell, Charlotte A .....London
Connolly, J.....Cornwall
Cook, Miss M. .....Strathroy
Copland, J. S. ....Brockville
Corbett, L. C .....Sarnia
Cormack, J. .....Guelph
Coutts, Jas. ....Arthur
Cowley, R. H.....Ottawa
Craig, T. A.....Kemptville
Crawford, H. J. .....Toronto
Crawford, J. T.....Hamilton
Crosley, A. C.....Forest
Cubitt, F..... .....Bowmanville
Currie, Miss..... .....Toronto
Currie, P. W.....Niagara Falls

Dales, John N. ..... Kingston
Davidson, A. B.....Newmarket
Davidson, Miss.....Peterboro
Davidson, Miss A.....Toronto
Davidson, Miss J.....Elora
Davidson, Mrs. M C. ....Hamilton
Davidson, R. D.....Bowmanville
Davison, J.....Guelph
Day, Isaac .....Orillia
Deacon, George .....Toronto
Deacon, Jas .....Lindsay
Deacon, J. S.....Milton
Dearness, John. .....London
Deike, A. H.....Guelph
Delamere, Miss L. .....Minden
Dent, Miss .....Toronto
Delgaty, James.....Centralia
Dickenson, J. A. .....London
Dickson, J. D.....Niagara Falls
Dickson, J. E. .....Newmarket
Dingman, W. E.....Listowel
Doan, Robt. W. .....Toronto
Docker, W. A.....Glencoe
Dow, John B. .....Whitby
Downs, Miss.....Harriston
Duff, Miss ....Toronto
Dupuis, —.....Kingston

Eldon, R. H.....Toronto
Elliot, Wm.....Mitchell
Elliott, J. G.....Kingston
Elliott, T. E .....Weston
Elliott, W. H .....Hamilton
Ellis, W. S.....Kingston
Embree, L. E.....Toronto
Errett, C. F.....St. Mary's
Evans, W. E.....Galt

Fallis, L. K.....Elora
Farewell, J. E.....Whitby
Fenton, W. J.....Brampton
Fenwick, M. M.....Bowmanville
Ferguson, W. C..... .....London
Fletcher, Professor.....Toronto
Fletcher, W. H.....Kingston
Foreman, J. H.....Hagersville
Forfar, Chas. .....Toronto
Fotheringham, D..... .....Toronto
Fox, Miss M.....Owen Sound
Fraser, G. J.....Woodstock
Fraser, W. A.....Woodstock
Fraser, W. H.....Toronto
Freeman, J. A.....Waterdown
Frith, F. W.....Port Hope
Frost, F. H.....Bowmanville
Fry, F. D..... .....Mitchell
Furnival, Miss .....Hamilton

Galbraith, W. J.....Brampton
Gardiner, Miss E. .....Belleville
Gavin, F. P.....Windsor
Geeson, Miss F.....London
Gibbard, A. H.....Georgetown
Gill, James..... .....Hamilton
Glashan, J. C.....Ottawa
Glashan, Mrs. A. J..... .....Ottawa
Glassey, D. A. .....St. Mary's
Godfrey, E. Y.....Meaford
Gordon, Nathaniel .....Orangeville
Gowenlock —.....Seaforth
Grant, C. L.....Durham
Grant, James.....Guelph
Grant, W..... .....Toronto
Gray, H.....Toronto
Gray, R. A. .....London
Green, Miss.....Chatham
Greenlees, R. F..... .....Picton
Groves, W. E..... .....Toronto
Gundry, A. P ....Ingersoll

Hallet, W. J. ....Barrie
Hamilton, J. R. .....Brantford
Hamilton, W. J. .....Cobourg
Hardie, Wm. .....Perth
Hare, J. J.....Whitby
Harlton, W. H.....Toronto
Harper, J. A.....Elmira
Harstone, J. C.....Lindsay
Hatton, Professor .....Toronto
Haviland, H. J .....Listowel
Hay, J.....Cobourg
Heakes, Miss ..... Toronto
Helm, J. H. .....Port Hope
Henderson, A. G.....Whitby
Henderson, J.....St. Catharines
Hendry, Miss A. S.....Hamilton
Hendry, W. J.....Toronto
Henwood, Miss M. E. .....Port Hope
Heustridge, J. W.....Portsmouth
Hicks, Miss ..... London
Hicks, R. W. .....Toronto
Hickson, William.....Bobcaygeon
Hill, E. L.....Guelph
Hill, J. A..... .....Toronto

Hill, R .....Dundas
Hillock, Miss Julia S.....Lindsay
Hind, E. W.....Toronto
Hindson, Wm.....Dunnville
Hogarth, E. S.....Hamilton
Hogarth, G. H.....Whitby
Hogarth, J. W.....Wingham
Hogg, John .....Collingwood
Houston, Wm.....Toronto
Huff, S.....Meaford
Hughes, Miss A.....Kerwood
Hughes, T. J.....Toronto
Hume, J. G.....Toronto
Husband, A. J.....Brockville

Ingall, E. E .....Trenton
Irvine, Miss.....Stratford
Irwin, John.....Flesherton
Irwin, J. W.....Clinton
Irving, Martha.....Chatham

Jackson, A.....Galt
Jackson, J. A.....Iroquois
Jamieson, J. S.....Morrisburg
Jenkins, R. S.....Orangeville
Jenkins, W. H.....Owen Sound
Jevons, Miss G.....Stratford
Johnson, G. W. .....Toronto
Johnston, John.....Belleville
Jolliffe, O. J .....Ottawa
Jones, Miss L. L.....Kingston
Jones, Miss M. H.....Marmora
Jordan, A. A.. .....Meaford

Keddie, Miss H. M.....Oshawa
Keith, Charles.....Bowmanville
Kelly, M. J.....Brantford
Kennedy, G. E.....Stirling
Kerr, Miss C.....Ottawa
Kerr, C. S.....Woodstock
Keys, D. R.....Toronto
Killins, Miss A.....Wiarton
Kinver, Miss M.....Oshawa
Kirk, Geo .....London
Kirkland, Thomas .....Toronto
Kirkman, Mrs. B.....Seaforth
Klotz, Carl E.....St. Catharines
Knight, J. H.....Lindsay
Knowles, R. H.....Hespeler

Laidlaw, Miss .....London
Lane, J. S.....Toronto
Lanigan, G. H.....Hamilton
Latter, J. .....Doncaster
Lawler, Miss G. .....Toronto
Lawson, Miss.....Toronto
Leibner, M. E .....Harriston
Leitch, —.....Brantford
Lemaire, L. R.....Weston
Lennox, Miss M.. .....St. Mary's

Lennox, Thos. A. .....Woodstock
Levan, I. M.....Toronto
Lewis, L.....Norwood
Libby, M. F.....Toronto
Liddy, W. R.....Shelburne
Linton, William.....New Hamburg
Linklater, J. C.....Gananoque
Little, J. G.....Ridgetown
Living, Miss M. E.....Ottawa
Livingston, Miss M.....Forest
Livingstone, Miss M.....Harriston
Longman, E.....Trenton
Lough, W. R.....Clinton
Loveck, Miss.....Ottawa
Luke, Miss M. E.....Oshawa
Lynch, Miss B.....London

Martin, S.....St. Mary's
Marty, Miss A. E.....St. Thomas
Mason, J. J.....Hamilton
Massey, A. W. .....Morrisburg
May, Geo. S.....Ottawa
Merchant, F. W.....London
Michell, F. L.....Perth
Michell, W. C.....St. Catharines
Milden, A. W.....Barrie
Mill, W. J.....North Bay
Millar, Miss.....Toronto
Milloy, C. W.....Lucan
Mills, D.....Bay View
Mills, G. K.....Stratford
Mitchell, Miss J. A. .....Watford
Mordon, G. W.....Picton
Morgan, J. C.....Barrie
Morgan, J. J.....Omemee
Morgan, S. A.....Hamilton
Morris, Ida .....Listowel
Morton, W. C.....Hamilton
Moses, Clark.....Caledonia
Muldrew, A. H. .....Gravenhurst
Mulvaney, Miss M .....London
Munro, John.....Ottawa
Murray, R. W.....Toronto
Murray, T.....Brampton
Murton, L. K. .....Oshawa
Musgrove, A. H. .....Wingham
Myer, A. N.....Dunnville

Macabe, J. A.....Ottawa
Macintyre, Miss M.....Toronto
Mackenzie, A.....London
Mackenzie, Miss.....Brantford
MacMurchy, A. .....Toronto
Macmurchy, N.....Elora
Macpherson, F. F.....Hamilton
Macpherson, J. G.....Bothwell
McAllister, S.....Toronto
McBean, Miss Mary .....Forest
McBride, D.....Port Perry
McBrien, Jas.....Prince Albert

McCaig, D.....Collingwood
McCarthy, Mary .....Madoc
McCaughey, Miss M.....Cobourg
McCool, J.....Meaford
McCutchion, Miss C..... Strathroy
McEachren, N..... .....Toronto
McEachren, P.....Toronto
McEwan, John.....Toronto
McGibbon, W.....St. Catharines
McGillivray, C. F.....Whitby
McGregor, M.....Tilsonburg
McGregor, Miss E. J. G.....Maxville
McIntosh, A.....Toronto
McIntosh, Wm.....Madoc
McIntyre, E. J.....St. Catharines
McIntyre, Miss M.....Alvinston
McKay, J D.....Newmarket
McKay, J. W.....Wardsville
McKee, George.....Orillia
McKee, Thos.....Barrie
McKenzie, Miss M. A.....Bowmanville
McKenzie, W. L.....Toronto
McKirdy, Miss.....London
McLeay, J. A .....Watford
McLellan, Miss K.....Goderich
McLeod, A. K. .....Brighton
McMillan, Alex.....Toronto
McNamara, M.....Walkerton
McNaughton, A. .....Cornwall
McNeillie, J. R.....Lindsay
McNicol, Jas.....Hagersville
McPhail, A. C.....Almonte
McQueen, Robt.....Kirkwall
McVicar, John.....Strathroy

Narraway, J. W..... .....Toronto
Needler, G. H .....Toronto
Nethercott, S.....Woodstock
Newman, Geo. E. .....Barrie
Nicol, Miss M. A.....Napanee
Norris, I. T.....Dutton

O'Brien, Michael.....Peterboro
O'Dell, A..... .....Cobourg
Ormiston, D.....Whitby

Pakenham, W.....Brockville
Palmer, J.....Norway
Panton, Miss J..... .....Oshawa
Parkinson, M..... .....Toronto
Parry, John..... .....Dunnville
Parsons, D. W.....Delhi
Passmore, S. T.....Brantford
Paterson, D. S.....Chatham
Pattee, Mrs. A.....Trenton
Peene, Miss .....Galt
Perney, Frank E.....Norwood
Phillips, W. A.....Listowel
Platt, G. D.....Picton
Platt, Miss C.....Chatham

Poe, Miss A.....Cobourg
Potter, Miss Clara.....Ottawa
Pottinger, Miss S. V.....Sarnia
Powell, G. K .....Toronto
Prendergast, John.....Toronto
Preston, Thomas .....Forest
Pugsley, E.....Simcoe
Putnam, J. H.....Ottawa

Radcliffe, Miss S. J.....Stratford
Radcliffe, S. J.....London
Ramsay, Walter.....Foxboro
Rannie, William .....Newmarket
Readman, Miss.....Toronto
Reazin, H..... .....Lindsay
Reazin, Miss M. G..... .....Lindsay
Reid, J..... .....Dundas
Ritchie, Geo. M.....Toronto
Robb, D.....Clinton
Robertson, Miss Annie .....London
Robertson, H. S..... ....Seaforth
Robertson, J. C.....Toronto
Robertson, W. J .....St. Catharines
Robinson, W. J.....Florence
Rogers, J. C.....Picton
Rogers, J. W..... .....Toronto
Rogerson, John.....Barrie
Rose, Miss A..... .....Guelph
Ross, Miss C.....Port Hope
Rowat, I. S. .....Simcoe
Rowe, Miss A..... .... Trenton
Rowlands, E. J... .....Walkerton
Rowsome, Miss A. R.....Brockville
Russell, Miss .....Toronto
Rutherford, J. R.....Aurora
Rutherford, W. R.....Arnprior
Ryerson, J .....Orillia

Scholey, Miss Lizzie.....Stratford
Scott, Miss .....Toronto
Scott, Miss Bessie M.....Ottawa
Scott, R. H.....Brantford
Scott, William.....Toronto
Scott, Wm... .....Guelph
Scriver, Miss E. M.....Maple Lake
Seath, John.....Toronto
Selby, Wm .....Toronto
Seymour, W. F. .....Niagara
Shantz, M .....Caledonia
Shaw, A.....Walkerton
Shaw, Geo. E.....Toronto
Shaw, J. W.....Clinton
Sheinck, Miss A.....Ottawa
Shepherd, Geo. K.....Woodstock
Shepherd. Mrs.....Guelph
Shortill, R. N. .....Norval
Shultis, Adam .....Guelph
Sidey, T. K.....Whitby
Sidley, H. R.....Brockville
Silcox, S.....Collingwood

Simpson, H.....Orono
Sinclair, S. B.....Ottawa
Sing, J. G. .....Meaford
Skinner, Mrs. K. C.....Guelph
Slemon, E. T.....Oshawa
Smith, I. J.....Morrisburg
Smith, Jos. H.....Hamilton
Smith, L. C.....Oshawa
Smith, Wm.....Peterboro
Smith, W. E. .....Toronto
Spence, Miss Nellie.....Toronto
Spotton, H. B..... .....Toronto
Squair, J.....Toronto
Stafford, Jos.....Morrisburg
Standing, T. W. .....Pembroke
Steele, Alex.....Orangeville
Steinberger, F. G.....Toronto
Stephens, Miss A.....Athens
Stevens, W. H.....Lindsay
Stevenson, A.....Arthur
Stone, S. G... ....Meaford
Strang, H. I.....Goderich
Stuart, F. A..... .....Brampton
Stuart, Jas. G.....London
Suddaby, J.....Berlin
Summerby, W. J.....Russell
Sykes, F. H .....London
Sykes, W. J. .....Ottawa
Symonds, H..... .....Ashburnham

Tamblyn, W. W.....Whitby
Taylor, S. Y.....Paris
Taylor, W.....Chatham
Teskey, Miss E.....Morrisburg
Thomas, Miss Janie.....Toronto
Thomas, Miss M..... ...Port Perry
Thompson, Mrs..... .....Forest
Thompson, R. A. .....Hamilton
Tilley, J. J.....Toronto
Tilley, W. E. .....Bowmanville
Tom, J. E.....Goderich
Tracy, F..... .....Toronto
Tripp
Tucker,
Turner, J

Underhill, J.

Van der Smissen

Walker, D.....
Walker, Miss ...
Ward, E. .....
Ward, Henry .....
Wardlaw, H. J. T.....
Wark, A.....
Watt, William.....
Watson, Miss K.....
Watson, R. .....Wa.
Waugh, John.....B.
Weidenhammer, —.....Wa
Werner, A.....El
Wherry, Alex.....Peterbo
Westland, Miss L. S.....London
Westman, Miss H.....Toronto
Wetherell, J. E .....Strathroy
White, Mrs. A. G. H.....Toronto
Wilkins, W. T..... .....Trenton
Wilkinson, Wm.....Brantford
Wilson, E. H .....Markham
Wilson, W. .....Toronto Junction
Wismer, J. A. .....Toronto
Woods, Miss E. O..... .....Perth
Woodworth, S. C. .....Welland
Wright, A. W.....Galt
Wrong, G. M.....Toronto
Wylie, Mrs.....Buffalo, N.Y.

Yellowlees, Miss.....Toronto
Young, A. H..... .....Toronto
Young, D.....Guelph
Young, E. M.....Picton
Young, E. T.....Hamilton
Young, S. S.....Trenton

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Professor of Principles and Practice of Medicine.

J. ALGERNON TEMPLE, M.D., C.M., M.R.C.S., Eng.; Gynæcologist, Toronto General Hospital; Physician to the Burnside Lying-in Hospital.—205 Simcoe St.

Professor of Obstetrics and Gynæcology.

THOMAS KIRKLAND, M.A., Principal of the Normal School, Toronto.—432 Jarvis St.

Professor of General Chemistry, and Botany.

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