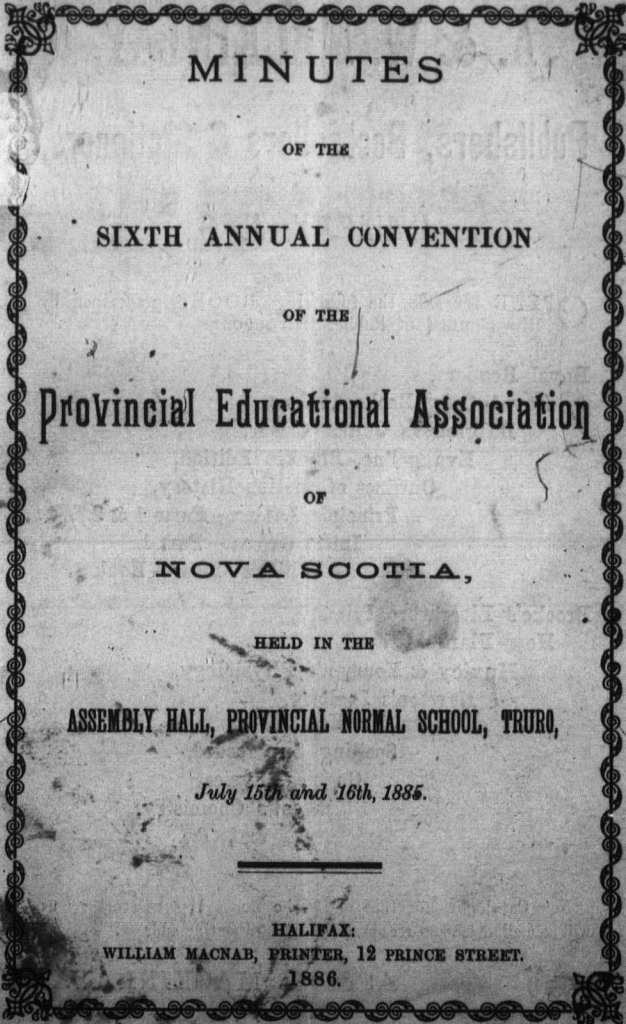


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Halifax



MINUTES

OF THE

SIXTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

Provincial Educational Association

OF

NOVA SCOTIA,

HELD IN THE

ASSEMBLY HALL, PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO,

July 15th and 16th, 1885.

HALIFAX:

WILLIAM MACNAB, PRINTER, 12 PRINCE STREET.

1886.

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OFFICERS, 1885-1886.

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Superintendent of Education.

Secretary:

A. MCKAY, HALIFAX.

Assistant Secretary:

A. J. G. McECHEN, HALIFAX.

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A. MCKAY.

Sub-Committee on Programme:

L. S. MORSE.

F. H. EATON, A. M.

A. MCKAY.

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Secretary:
HEN, HALIFAX.

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J. B. HALL, D. Ph., *Prof. of Eng., Normal School.*
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A. MCKAY, *Supervisor of Schools, Halifax.*
E. J. LAY, *Principal, Amherst Academy.*
MISS FORBES.
MISS JOHNSTON.

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MINUTES OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
PROVINCIAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF NOVA SCOTIA.

*Held in the Assembly Hall of the Normal School, Truro, on
the 15th and 16th days of July, 1885.*

WEDNESDAY, July 15th, 1885.

The Association met at 10, a. m.

The President, Dr. Allison, Superintendent of Education, took the chair.

On motion of Mr. Smith and Dr. Hall, A. McKay of Halifax was re-elected Secretary.

On motion of Inspector Roscoe and Mr. Smith, A. J. G. McEchen of Halifax, was re-elected Assistant Secretary.

Dr. Allison, Superintendent of Education, on taking the chair, expressed his gratification at being permitted to greet so large and influential a representation of the Educational staff of the Province. He had met with the criticism that organizations like theirs tended, under the guise of professional co-operation, to foster a narrow, clanish spirit; that they were, in short, simply contrivances to gain some artificial credit for the teacher and his office. For himself he must confess that in the past history of their own Association and in the character of its exercises and deliberations, he had seen but little to confirm the accuracy of that criticism. Their papers, discussions and recommendations had all manifestly lain in the direction of broad principles affecting the educational well-being of society generally. If they had sought to improve the instrumentalities of education within the Province, their labors had not been directed for the benefit of a particular professional class, but in the interest of the people as a whole. But after all, he was not sure that the charge to which he had referred was one that he need take particular pains to refute. Of course everything selfish and sectional was to be deprecated. Still it was right and beneficial that teachers should seek, within due limits, to

Secretary.
McECHEN.

magnify their office. That office devolved on its occupant responsibilities of a special character, and those responsibilities were as grave as they were special. No means were to be despised which would help society to accord to the teacher's position its legitimate appreciation and respect. Passing to other subjects, he referred to the legislation of the late session as affording another gratifying proof of the readiness of our public men to "bury the hatchet" of partisan strife, when matters affecting the interests of education were to be considered. In conclusion he ventured to urge on members of the Association generally the importance of the study of the history of educational development. Such study would serve as a corrective to much prejudice and misapprehension. A knowledge of the past is necessary to a right understanding of the duties of the present. Education has its yet unsettled problems, and those who are trying to solve them cannot do better than familiarize themselves with the history of men who have worked out similar problems to a successful issue in the past. He felt it unnecessary to bespeak for the valuable papers about to be presented, attentive and impartial consideration.

A lesson on "Heat" was given by Mr. Banks, a graduate of the Normal School, to a class of children from the Model School. It was shown by this lesson that the principal qualities of heat could be explained effectually by apparatus so simple as to be available in every school-room.

Chief Superintendent Crockett, of the New Brunswick Schools, was then introduced, and read a paper entitled "Do the Principles of the Kindergarten System differ from those of Modern Education?"

The Meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY,—AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association assembled at 2, p. m.

Dr. Allison, the President, in the chair.

Dr. Rand, of Acadia College, was introduced, and read a paper on "Questions in Educational Philosophy."

On motion of Principals Calkin and McKay, a vote of thanks was tendered to Chief Superintendent Crockett and to Dr. Rand for their valuable papers.

Some discussion followed, in which Inspector Condon and Mr. A. J. G. McEchen took part.

The High School Section of the Association at this point retired to another room to discuss the Course of Study for High Schools and Academies. Dr. Allison presided. A tentative course, prepared by the Educational Department, was presented and discussed. The part relating to the first year's studies was adopted after a few slight amendments.

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The Common School Section continued its session in the Assembly Hall, Inspector Condon presiding.

A lesson in "Botany" was given by Miss Rettie to a class of twelve pupils. This lesson illustrated the nature of object teaching.

A lesson on "Language" was given by Miss Cunningham.

Both Sections adjourned at 6, p. m.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association re-assembled in the Y. M. C. A. rooms at 8, p. m. Sir Adams G. Archibald, by request, occupying the chair.

Addresses were given by the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Allison; Superintendents Crockett, of New Brunswick, and Montgomery, of P. E. Island; Dr. Rand and Prof. Higgins.

The audience was favored by excellent music from Miss Calkin, Mrs. Whidden, the Misses Crowe and Mr. Archibald.

The meeting adjourned at 10.30, p. m.

THURSDAY, July 16th, 1885.

The Association assembled at 9.45, a. m.

The President in the chair.

A. H. McKay, B. A., B. Sc., read a paper on "Spelling Reform."

A short discussion followed, in which Prof. Eaton, Mr. McEchen, Inspector McDonald and Dr. Allison took part.

On motion of Mr. McEchen and Inspector McDonald a vote of thanks was presented to Principal McKay.

Superintendent Montgomery of Prince Edward Island was then introduced, and delivered an address, giving the history of educational progress in the Island and an outline of its present school system.

The thanks of the Association were tendered to Superintendent Montgomery for his valuable address.

The President received nominations for the election of an Executive Committee of seven for the ensuing year.

The following members of the Association were then nominated:

A. G. McDonald, Inspector of Schools for District No. 6.

A. McKay, Supervisor of Schools for Halifax.

F. H. Eaton, A. M., Prof. Math. Normal School, Truro.

A. H. McKay, B. A., B. Sc., Principal Academy, Pictou.
 J. L. Morse, B. A., Inspector Schools, District No. 4.
 E. J. Lay, Principal Academy, Amherst.
 Miss Kate Mackintosh, Halifax Academy.

There being but seven nominations, they were declared elected as members of the Executive Committee.

The Convention adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association assembled at 2, p. m.

The President in the chair.

The High School Section again retired to another room to further discuss the High School course. Dr. Allison presided. The parts relating to the 2nd and 3rd years' studies were adopted after a few slight alterations.

During the absence of the High School Section, Inspector Condon took the chair.

Inspector McKenzie read a paper on the "Course of Study for Common Schools."

This was followed by the discussion on the Text-books in use. Mr. McEchen, Dr. Hall, Mr. Cameron, Mr. Johnston, Principal Calkin and Mr. Burbidge took part.

The High School Section having returned to the Assembly room, the President took the chair.

Prof. Eaton then delivered an address on "Some Defects in our Educational System."

Some desultory discussion followed, in which Mr. Johnstone, Dr. Allison, Prof. Eaton, Mr. Andrews, Mr. McArthur, and Mr. Slade took part.

On motion of Inspector McKenzie and Mr. McEchen the following resolution was passed unanimously:—

Whereas, The general opinion of Inspectors and Teachers is that we should not break up the year into a winter term and a summer term;

And whereas, It has been repeatedly stated and shown, that much good would result from the adoption of one long term, which would be identical with the school year;

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of this Association be also constituted a special committee to confer with the Superintendent of Education as to the advisability, of having, at an early day, for the schools, a single school term of ten months.

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On motion of Principal Calkin and Inspector McKenzie, the following resolution passed unanimously:

Whereas, In many of our schools the evils of a lack of physical training are becoming apparent:

Resolved, That this Association, having learned with satisfaction that the Provincial Medical Society has moved in the matter of giving better physical education to our youth, and having read the essay on the subject by Dr. Stewart, of Pictou, shall hereby appoint Supervisor McKay, Principal Calkin, Inspector McKenzie, and H. S. Congdon, of Dartmouth, a committee to consult with and co-operate with the Medical Society, as to how and when to memorialize the legislature, to encourage physical education in this Province.

On motion of Principal Calkin and Inspector McKenzie, it was resolved, that the time has come when it is deemed advisable by this Association that the Superintendent ask the C. P. I. to prohibit wealthy sections from employing Grade D teachers.

Principal McKay made a suggestion that the register be so changed that all the children in the section be registered, and that for every day lost the head of the family have a cent added to his poll tax.

On motion of Principal Calkin and Inspector Roscoe, it was resolved, that the thanks of the Association be tendered to the railroad and steamboat lines for reduced fares to members, and to the Halifax papers for the reports of proceedings.

On motion of Mr. McEchen and Inspector McKenzie, the Convention adjourned *sine die*.

A. MCKAY,
Secretary.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT FOR 1884-85.

RECEIPTS.		DISBURSEMENTS.	
	\$ c.		\$ c.
Balance from last Statement.....	2 08	Ex. Committee, (Travelling Expenses).....	14 25
Members' Fees.....	209 20	Salary of Secretary.....	30 00
Interest.....	5 50	" " Assistant Secretary.....	5 00
		Advertising and Printing Railway Certificates..	66 00
		Y. M. C. A. Hall.....	6 00
		Piano.....	2 00
		Postage, Stationery, &c.....	3 75
		Balance on hand.....	89 73
Total.....	\$216 73	Total.....	\$216 73

Respectfully submitted,

A. MCKAY.

Sec.-Treasurer.

The foregoing account has been examined by us, and found correct,

TRURO, July 14th, 1885.

E. G. LAY,
C. W. ROSCOE. } Auditors.

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Sec.-Treasurer.

E. G. LAY,
C. W. ROSCOE. } Auditors.

The foregoing account has been examined by us, and found correct.

TRURO, July 14th, 1885.

PAPERS READ BEFORE

The Provincial Educational Association of Nova Scotia.

DO THE PRINCIPLES OF THE KINDERGARTEN SYSTEM DIFFER FROM THOSE OF MODERN EDUCATION ?

WILLIAM CROCKETT, A. M.,

Chief Superintendent for the Province of New Brunswick.

For some years past, many of our people throughout the different Provinces, have heard more or less about a system of education known as the Kindergarten System. The great names associated with it, and the class of persons who patronize it, have excited a desire on the part of many to know more about it. At one time they hear it spoken of as a new system destined to work marvellous changes in the training of the young; at another time its merits are questioned and its founder regarded as an impracticable theorist. From this newly awakened interest, and the unsettled opinion, or rather uninformed opinion, respecting its aims, it would seem that a discussion of its principles is in keeping with the aims and objects of an Educational Institute.

Are its principles different from those of modern education? Is the child of the Kindergarten System to be afterwards given over to be worked upon by different or similar processes? Is the system a related or an unrelated part of the public school system? These are the questions which I shall briefly consider. In the consideration of this subject, we have, I think, to ascertain, (1) what the principles of the Kindergarten System are, and, (2) what the recognized principles of modern education are.

1. A brief description of the Kindergarten System will help us more readily to apprehend its principles and methods. A Kindergarten just means a child's garden—a garden or place where children can expand and grow as plants do in a garden. Froebel, the founder of the system, designed that children between the ages of three and seven years should be trained by providing them with occupations suitable to their individual powers and awakening minds. They gradually receive a knowledge of nature and of mankind, and are carefully trained in heart and mind by judicious guidance and not by constraint. The various occupations in which they engage are developed one from another in a natural order. Taken together they satisfy the demand of the child's nature, in respect both of physical and mental culture, and the methodical application develops his various powers in accordance with nature's own laws. The series of

objects technically called Gifts, because, instead of being used by the teacher, they are *given* to the pupil as playthings for interesting and instructive occupation, and are used as means to unfold faculty in accordance with the developing method—were devised by Fröbel with this end in view, and may be arranged under four heads in the following order, 1, solid; 2, surfaces; 3, lines; 4, points.

The child's course thus begins with wholes, then descends to the parts in planes or surfaces. From the planes it next descends to lines which are the edges or boundaries of the surfaces, and lastly, to points which are the smallest parts or ends of the lines. The process is then reversed. The child passes from the point to the line, in such occupation as in sewing and drawing; from the line to the surface in weaving and interlacing of threads and slats, and to the solid in the modeling in clay. Thus by a different road he reaches his original starting point, and surveys the same truths from a higher plane.

Let us now enter a Kindergarten, one pervaded by Fröbel's own spirit, to witness some of these occupations, with a view of ascertaining, if possible, the law underlying them.

First Gift.—Let us turn our attention to the youngest children. They are engaged in their first occupation with the *First Gift*, called the Balls, which consist of six soft balls of the colours of the rainbow, three of the primary colours, red, yellow, and blue; three of the secondary, green, orange, and violet. Out of the ball they are making endless amusement. They roll it, they toss it, they wheel it round and round. Holding it up by a string, they move it right and left or swing it in any direction. Now they make it spring up like a cat, now they make it fly like a bird. Now in its form and colour they see the fruit and the flowers which they are acquainted with.

Second Gift.—Here is another group of children with other playthings, consisting of a *hard ball*, a *cube*, and a *cylinder*. They first take the spheric or hard ball, to which a string is attached in a small indented eyelet, and similar exercises are performed as with the soft ball. Unlike the soft ball, however, it makes, as the children perceive, a noise when it falls. The cylinder and cube differ in form from the ball, the cube much more than the cylinder, which forms the connecting link between them. They roll the ball in every direction, they can only roll the cylinder when lying on its side, the cube does not roll at all. Here the law of contrast is forced upon the children, they begin to learn what a thing is by learning what it is not. As they compare the cube with the ball they become conscious of the flat faces of the former, its sharp edges and corners. The cylinder has no corners but it has flat ends and has edges.

Third Gift.—In the third occupation, we see the children placing little cubes into a variety of forms. They make chairs, tables, houses, &c. In this occupation or play the cube is divided in every direction into eight smaller cubes. The children are thus enabled to grasp the

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inner conditions as well as external appearances of things, and have their natural craving or instinct satisfied by finding out what is inside of things.

Fourth Gift.—Here we see the children's ingenuity exercised by devising various forms with longitudinal blocks. These are afterwards combined with the cubes of the preceding gift, and thus various orders of buildings arise. The fourth gift is a divided cube also, but its parts are not cubes, but parallelograms, thus emphasizing the three dimensions of space implied in the preceding gift.

Fifth Gift.—In the fifth occupation, the children are engaged in architectural forms of great beauty and variety. The large cube of this gift is divided into a great number of cubes, and some of the smaller cubes are diagonally divided so as to introduce the triangular form. The children now begin to see that the preceding gifts contained the new elements though they failed to perceive them.

Sixth Gift.—The series of solids is concluded in the sixth gift, which is also a cube, but differing in its sub-divisions. Each of the gifts named, it will be seen, is logically derived from the preceding. The various exercises with them are fitted to impress their mutual relations, and as we can only fully apprehend an object when its relation to universal law is apprehended, the children must have made great advances in clear definite conceptions.

Thus far we see one great law running through these occupations—each step being derived from and embodying the preceding—the principle of “From the simple to the complex.” Fröbel did not stop here, however. He arranged his subsequent gifts or occupations, so that the child should pass logically from the solid to the surface, line, and point, the last being the limit of analysis. Here, evidently, another law determined his procedure,—“From the concrete to the abstract.”

But the course did not terminate at the point. A contrary process was adopted. The solid was built up from the point. This process gave the child the best possible means of embodying in visible form the impressions received through the former process. Herein is the embodiment of another principle, “Analysis before Synthesis.”

We have not yet, however, reached Fröbel's root idea. Something more underlies his procedure than what I have announced. Had I minutely described the exercises in connection with the gift, it would have been seen that they retained the best characteristics of childish play. Left as much as possible to his own spontaneity, the child is found shaping the plaything or materials to his fancy, as Wordsworth so happily describes:—

“Behold the child among his new born blocks;
See at his feet some little plan or chart,
Some fragment of his dream of human life
Shaped by himself with newly learned art;
A wedding or a festival,
A mourning or a funeral.”

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Look at him making his blocks symbolical personages and objects of a story. Even with the eight cubes, five may be a flock of sheep, one the shepherd, one a wolf which is seen in the distance, and one the shepherd's dog which is to defend the sheep from the wolf; during all this time, what fun! what interest! what absorption!

How did Fröbel hit upon such attractive plans? With an intense sympathy for children he determined to study child nature in all its aspects, to try if it were possible to devise some scheme whereby the activities which they manifested in their play might be systematized and made the means of the harmonious development of their physical, mental, and moral nature.

He brought to his task a theoretical knowledge of Education, a knowledge of human nature as studied in books, and among men. He now seeks to penetrate the secret springs of child action. He takes his place among children. He observes them as they disport themselves in shout, and frolic, and song. Left to themselves, he sees those of similar ages mingling together. One group he finds here, another, there; one group, at this game, another, at that game, but all bent on happiness, all in ceaseless activity, intense earnestness, complete absorption. What, we may imagine him to say to himself, is working all these forces? Play. Play is the motive power, play is the activity ending in happiness. Play is the birthright of the true child. Where it is denied him—where the forces within him are denied expression through play, you have in the man the stunted limbs, the pigmy intellect, and the moral coward or something worse. The story of Robert Falconer, as told by George McDonald, is the case of too many. Robert's grandmother denied him every kind of play or amusement, and compelled him to read instead, Baxter's Saints' Rest, Boston's Fourfold State, Alarm to the Unconverted—too little read now—which awoke in him a keen sense of misery and hopeless cold, and led him to feel and to say, "What a terrible thing righteousness is." Had his life been kept parallel with God's thought in his creation, or the natural impulses of his childhood not been crushed, he would have been more likely to gather sweetly by the way "the peaceable fruits of righteousness."

Play is not busy idleness, but is the effort of souls girding themselves for the realities of life. Children in their weakness are not fitted to do our work, but they prepare themselves for it by doing their own, bringing into it all the energy of which they are capable. It is but the childhood of earnest life work. Through play in association with his comrades, the child begins to recognize moral relations, to feel that he cannot live for himself alone, that he is a member of a community whose rights he must acknowledge.

Fröbel then, looking at the deep significance of play, thought it worth while to guide and direct it, to fill it with mighty influence, to transform it into work, but work which shall look like play, work which shall originate in the same impulses, and exercise the same

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energies as they employ in their amusements or occupations. He therefore proceeded to organize their play, but so organized it that the same time was strictly related and conformed to the original foundation, play.

The Kindergarten system, therefore, regards children simply as beings endowed with faculties of many kinds, that must be developed according to their nature, that must not be urged in this direction or cramped in another, but be placed in the most favorable circumstances to attain their full growth according to the laws, impressed upon them by their Creator, as do the plants in the soil and climate that suit them. In short, Fröbel's grand principle was:—A child's powers must be exercised and developed according to their natural order of unfolding, and that the process must be based upon all those activities that go by the name of play.

No books are to be seen in the true Kindergarten. This is in a line with Fröbel's root idea; no ideas or facts are to be presented that the child cannot understand or verify. Before coming to books a child's curiosity must be satisfied about outer objects, and thus be gradually transformed into intelligent interest and desire for knowledge. In his lessons with blocks the object was not to teach him number or geometry, though he learns both, but to lead him to discover facts and truths concerning number, lines, and angles for himself. No half apprehensions, no dim conceptions, no mere formulas of knowledge are allowed; the child is to be disciplined to accuracy in visible things and the use of concrete terms, so that he will not deceive himself with the semblance of knowledge when the time comes for dealing with abstract things. He learns no long nomenclature of any science, but he learns the exact name of every object that is presented to him. His powers of observation, comparison and reason are exercised by finding out the relations of the object that he sees and knows. Though in his games he is not allowed to do anything mechanically or at random, he is free to create, to follow his own fancy within the bounds of laws he has himself been led to recognize.

In Fröbel's day, as in our own, there was such haste to get knowledge, that little time was given for culture; instruction overlaid education. Pupils came out of school probably well informed, but ill educated. Schools were designed exclusively for imparting instruction, and children were not prepared for entering them. It was a sudden transition from their playful, joyous sports, where everything was invested with an interest and a meaning, where the physical and mental activities had full play, to a world entirely unrelated to their past condition, where no opportunity was given for the outflow of an inner life, where nothing was to be seen but a strange symbolism, and little else to be heard than an unknown tongue. There must be, said Fröbel, a reformation in the schools that give instruction, and there must be a preparation for such schools.

II. What are the principles of Modern Education? Let us first glance briefly at some of the theories of past times.

Among the ancient Greeks there was, as you are aware, the Socratic theory, so-called after its founder, Socrates. Socrates held that no distinction should be made between mind and body in education. He considered gymnastics as a part of the training of the whole man. With respect to mental training his great aim was to educe truth by questionings and analogies. Truth cannot be seen, however, through distorted media, and Socrates first found it necessary to uproot the simulacra—false conceptions or semblance of knowledge. There were in Socrates' day, as in our own, professional crammers, men who defended cram on principle. These were the Sophists—teachers who undertook to furnish their pupils with ready-made talk—which could be produced on any occasion. They could write a leader on any side of any question without knowing anything about it. Through the teachings of Socrates, the power of the Sophists, whose delusive theories had so long enchained the Greek mind, was broken, and the foundations laid for the reception of truth. He questioned to expose ignorance and expel error. He questioned to discover facts or draw out truth. From his practice it is clear that the Socratic theory was "the development of man."

After the revival of learning till Froebel's time, the prominent educationists were Roger Ascham, Montaigne, Ratich, Commenius, Basedow, and Pestalozzi. *Roger Ascham*, in his treatise, *The School-master*, in giving directions how to teach Latin, says: "Teach the pupil cheerfully and plainly the cause and matter of his lesson, then let him construe into English as oft as he may very easily carry away the understanding of it, then parse it over properly." He afterwards adds: "Grammar taught by itself is tedious for the master, hard for the scholar, cold and uncomfortable for both. Grammatica itself is sooner and surer learned by examples of good authors, than by the naked rules for grammarians." Queen Elizabeth, he goes on to say, never took a Latin or Greek grammar in her hand after the first declining of a noun and a verb, and that she had such a perfect understanding of both tongues that there were few in either of the two universities of England or elsewhere whose knowledge of the tongues was at all comparable to Her Majesty's. This is probably an exaggerated estimate of the Queen's attainments, as Ascham was her teacher. One other quotation from Ascham: "Let your plan be such that your pupil shall always take to his lesson with pleasure. 'And pleasure allureth love, love hath lust to labour, labour always obtaineth his purpose.'"

Montaigne, the contemporary of Ascham, but thirty years younger, may be said to have founded a school of thinkers on the subject of education, of which Locke and Rousseau were afterwards the great exponents. As far as regards the method of teaching languages, he discarded grammatical teaching altogether; and wished that all would

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be taught Latin, as he had been, by conversation. In ordinary teaching, he says, "we suffer ourselves to lean and rely so very strongly upon the arm of another, that by so doing we prejudice our own strength and vigour." He also insists upon the importance of physical education. We have not, he says, to train up a soul, nor yet a body, but a man, and we cannot divide him.

Ratich was a Dane, who flourished during the struggle of the thirty years war. He propounded many profound principles, among which are the following: "Everything after the order and course of nature. One thing at a time. One thing again and again repeated. Nothing should be learned by heart." "In learning by heart," he says, "the attention is fixed on the words, not on the ideas. Knowledge of the thing itself must be given before that which refers to the thing. Everything by experiment and analysis. Everything without coercion. The human understanding is so formed that it best retains what it finds pleasure in receiving. The use of rules is to confirm and preserve knowledge, not to acquire knowledge. The rod should be used to correct offences against morals only." There is a good deal here, as you will perceive, which has a Fræbelian ring about it.

Comenius, of Moravia, during a chequered life, did much to diffuse sound principles. He lived also during the thirty years' war, and was acquainted with *Ratich*. Before his time no one had brought the mind of a philosopher to bear practically on the subject of Education. *Ascham* and *Ratich* had investigated new methods, but had made success in teaching the test to which they appealed, rather than abstract principle. *Comenius* was at once a philosopher and a schoolmaster who had earned his livelihood by teaching an elementary school. Dissatisfied with the state of Education as he found it, he sought for a better system by an examination of the laws of nature. His larger work, the *Didactica Magna*, contains the chief principles which he endeavored to work out. In a chapter which he devoted to the principles of easy teaching, he lays down, among other rules, that children will learn if they are taught only what they have a desire to learn, with due regard to their age and method of instruction, and especially when everything is taught by means of the senses. On the education of the senses he laid great stress, and was the first, I believe, to do so. "Education should proceed," he said "in the following order: First the senses, then the memory, then the intellect, last of all the critical faculty." This method is according to the order of nature; the child first perceives through the senses, these perceptions are stored up in the memory, and recalled by the imagination. By comparing one with another, the understanding forms general ideas, and at length the judgment decides between the false and the true. By keeping to this order *Comenius* believed that it would be possible to make learning entirely pleasant. From the selection thus made of his principles, it would seem as if *Comenius* were solidly preparing the way for *Fræbel*.

Locke has had considerable influence on the theory of Education.

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He was no enthusiast, but as a man of calm, good sense, who found himself charged with the bringing up of a young nobleman, he examined the ordinary education of the day, and where it proved unsatisfactory, set about such alterations as seemed expedient. As Locke had studied medicine, he naturally attached great importance to physical education, and begins his work with it. Many of his directions on this subject are properly condemned, but still there are some that deserve special attention. He says that all clothes should be loose, and speaks as emphatically as any doctor has done since against the madness of straitlacing. Give the young plenty of open air exercise, plain diet, no wine or strong drink, and little or no physic. No corporal punishment, he says, is useful where the shame of suffering for having done amiss does not work more than the pain. With respect to teaching he says, the chief art of teaching is to make the pupils feel that their work is sport and play. In his own quaint way he says that children can be made to dance and fence without whipping, which makes him suspect that there is something strange, unnatural, and disagreeable in the things required in Grammar Schools or in the method used there, that children cannot be brought to without the serving of the lash. He recommends the reading of Latin by means of interlinear translations before the pupil should begin the grammar of it, and dryly adds, if grammar ought to be taught at any time, it must be to one that can speak the language already, how else can he be taught the grammar of it? In short, Locke's aim was to give a boy a sound mind in a sound body. The result was to be brought about by leading, not driving. He was to be trained, not for the university, but for the world. Good principles, good manners and discretion were to be cared for first of all, intelligence and intellectual activity next. With regard to the subjects of instruction, those branches of knowledge which concern things were to take precedence of those which treat of abstract ideas.

Rousseau, though he wrote much that is fanciful, says much that is profound, tells us plainly that we err in our practice, because we do not understand childhood. We are sacrificing childhood to the acquirement of knowledge, or rather the semblance of knowledge. We are constantly seeking the man in the child. Childhood has its manner of seeing, perceiving and thinking, peculiar to itself; nothing is more absurd than our being anxious to substitute our own in its stead. "Begin," he says, "by studying your pupils better, and if you read any book with that view, it will not be useless to you."

Basedow, a native of Hamburg, had read *Rousseau's* *Emile*, which directed the attention of his powerful and original mind to the subject of Education. He believed, as did *Goethe*, his contemporary, that what was wanted in Education was not a reform but a revolution. His principal ideas were these:—we should attend to nature in children far more than to art. Children should be treated like children, that they may remain the longer uncorrupted. A child must be first

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made acquainted with the world as it presents itself to his senses. The keynote upon which his system rests was, educate according to nature; the natural desires and inclinations of children were to be directed aright, not suppressed.

Pestalozzi, the father of popular education, at whose great heart Fröbel had drawn much of his inspiration, was the first great reformer who made his influence widely felt. The theory of development lay at the root of his views, which led him to regard the imparting of knowledge and the training for special pursuits as subordinate aims. "Education," he said, "instead of merely considering what is to be imparted to the children, ought to consider what faculties they possess as capable of development, and should consist in a benevolent superintendence, with the object of calling forth the faculties which Providence has implanted, and not in an incoherent mass of exercises, arranged without unity of principle, and gone through without interest. He regarded instruction only as a means of developing the faculties, and constantly aimed at method to secure this end. He took great pains with the cultivation of the senses, and was the first to systematize object lessons. Music and drawing played a great part in his system, and he recommended, though he did not practice, modelling,—a hint which was, as we have seen, afterwards worked out by Fröbel.

Among this long list of reformers there is a remarkable consensus of opinions as to the principles upon which youth should be trained and there is, as you will perceive, one fundamental principle underlying all their directions and canons, and that is, that the law, order, and method of education depends upon the law and order of nature, that the threefold nature of the being upon whom education is to operate, must be considered, the nature of the faculties with which he is endowed, and their order of unfolding must be studied; that this principle is the only solid basis upon which to rest the methods of instruction.

What are the principles of the present day? As enumerated by Herbert Spencer, shared in by the most distinguished educationists, and endorsed, if not carried out by the most enlightened teachers, they may be summed up in one statement. There is a certain sequence in which the faculties unfold, and a certain kind of exercise which each requires during development. To regulate this exercise we must proceed from the simple to the complex, from the concrete to the abstract, from the empirical to the rational, i. e., there must be practice and accruing experience, before there can be science. The pupil must be led to make his own investigations and draw his own conclusions. The acquisition of knowledge must be made pleasant.

Spencer very vigorously propounds his principle, and very lucidly exemplifies his maxims in plans for exercising the different faculties in early childhood, such as in his object lessons, lessons in

drawing, number and geometry. But there is nothing essentially different from the principles I have previously quoted. Spencer's are now generally known to intelligent teachers and recognized by them; the views of the other writers were not generally known, they were pretty much confined to the philosophers of the day, but they go to show that what are now recognized principles, were separately thought out at different periods, by different minds, who had studied human nature and human needs most.

These are the principles which I have no doubt this Institute recognizes, and which each member is presumably endeavoring to carry out. I presume your course of instruction is based upon these principles. You have made provision for the exercise of the faculties in the order of their unfolding. The exercises in form and colour are only means to the training of the perceptive powers, and the order in which they are arranged accords with the growing strength of these powers. The order of your exercises in number and arithmetic leads from the concrete to the abstract, and so on with other subjects.

The fundamental principles of the Kindergarten are substantially the same. The faculties are drawn out and exercised in the order of their development. Taking the child earlier, Frœbel had necessarily to adopt specific devices to meet child instinct. In the common school we take the child at five or six years of age and make the burden of the exercises bear on the training of the senses, adapting the methods to his mental development. Though the methods accord in their character and arrangement with many of Frœbel's at the same age, there is not the same rigid, logical sequence in the exercises, nor the same amount of variety, but the grand aim and the pervading principle are the same.

If, then, the principles of the Kindergarten and of modern education both emanate from the same philosophy, if the faculties whose drawing power we watch and draw out in childhood and youth are the same faculties which in their ripe vigor, the philosopher, the poet, the statesman, use for the benefit of mankind; if the will and character which we seek to discipline in childhood are the germ of the same powers that make useful citizens, social benefactors, the leaders and heroes of our race, these school years, which are only one stage of that unbroken process of effort and discipline, which we call life, cannot stand isolated, but must be one in purpose and one in spirit throughout all its phases.

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QUESTIONS IN EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY.

BY THEODORE H. RAND, M. A., D. C. L.

Professor of Education and History in Acadia College.

(The committee regret that in consequence of this paper having been mislaid by Dr. Rand, they are unable to publish it in full. The following is the *Morning Chronicle's* report, revised and considerably enlarged):—

Dr. Rand, who opened the afternoon session, directed the attention of the Association, 1st, to some of the aspects of the so-called old and new educational teachings; 2nd, to the important doctrine of the education of the Will, which is now commanding a growing attention; and 3rd, to the truth that education embraces not only the associated development of all faculties essentially human, but the co-education of the functions as well, a phase of education which has as yet received little or no careful attention at the hands of educationists.

Herbert Spencer says that the suppression of every error is commonly followed by a temporary ascendancy of the contrary one. Attention was called to facts in the history of educational philosophy as illustrative of this mode in the fluctuation of opinions, whereby advancement has been made and solid educational progress gradually secured. As to this law, that the "suppression of every error is commonly followed by a temporary ascendancy of the contrary one," it is a matter of common observation that one extreme follows another; that when one phase of a complex truth has so engrossed attention as to obscure a complementary phase, and thus to introduce obvious errors into practice, there is a recoil towards the neglected truth and so towards errors of an opposite character. The error manifestly consists in exaggeration, or in disproportion, of two co-ordinate factors of a complex truth; each in turn is allowed to overshadow the other. But truth in some degree is always embodied in these oscillations of opinion, and we may expect the movement to end in the conception of a larger truth, that will embrace two smaller but co-ordinate truths. Illustrations were adduced and the resultant progress noted in the wider truth gained. The old education assumed that man is to be brought to his most complete state by artificial means. The new education assumes that man has within himself all the resources needed to attain his most perfect state. The old doctrine is right in assuming that education is a work of art, requiring for its greatest perfection all the resources of human ingenuity and skill; but the new doctrine that education is a natural process is also right. The

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reconciliation lies in the fact that education is a natural process directed by human art. So far as the process of mental culture invokes the organic functions of the mind, it is natural; but so far as it depends on the selection and presentation of knowledge, it is artificial. Mere nature is as powerless to produce a man fit for the complicated duties of modern life as to produce a Gravenstein apple or a telegraph. The old, regards education as a process of manufacture. The new, regards education as a process of natural growth. As human beings, we are born with a pre-determination to grow, and will continue to pass through successive stages, because we are powerless to resist this dominant law of our nature; yet this growth is in the power of man to be controlled, modified, molded, enlarged or contracted by him. The old magnifies the office of the teacher and the text book. The new regards the teacher as rather negatively useful and the text book as somewhat of an obstacle. Books are good only as the depositories of past experience and discovery. It is now generally admitted that when teachers and books become more than helps they are hindrances; they are valuable only in proportion as they minister to self-help. The old, confines itself to accumulated knowledge; the new, sets the pupil to the task of re-discovery. We are inclined to think, however, that the type of school work is the acquisition of accumulated knowledge, aided by observation and experiment needful to give interest in the subject studied. "Object teaching" is chiefly valuable as it recalls the attention from symbols to the things symbolized, rather than as a means of conveying new knowledge. Under the old education the office of memory was exalted, but the culture of the observing faculties was sadly neglected. To make the memory a mere storehouse, especially of unused material, was an error, but modern practice has veered to the other extreme and has too much overlooked this very important factor in our education. A due cultivation both of the powers of observation and of memory is necessary to sound and adequate results.

The education of the Will is one of the more important questions^s connected with educational philosophy, and it is now forcing its importance upon all who have to do with the practical phases of education. The new psychology regards the Will as even more central in the character than has been the wont, and that the practical difference between it and the intellect is very great. Indeed, the intellect may be so trained as to enfeeble and dissipate the Will. It is due to the recognition of this truth that all earnest educational thinkers are coming to believe that we must "moralize" as well as "mentalize" children,—must develop Will as a chief factor of personal character. The Will is as dependent on the culture it receives as the intellect.

As to method, philosophic morality is not the desideratum. The young child instinctively leans upon the Will of the teacher. The teacher's Will becomes his law. Through habit there must be woven

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a plexus which serves as the very web of character. Conduct must be mechanized, so to speak. Thus great force is left free for creative and determinative effort. It has been said that our purposing volitions are very few compared with the long series of desires, acts, and reactions, often contradictory, many of which were never conscious, and many once willed but now lapsed to reflexes, the traces of which, crowding the unknown margins of the soul, constitute the organ of the conscious will. Obedience is the basis of all ethical culture. The teacher, however, as the child develops must recognize the necessity of developing self-guidance. The child rises from a state of dependence on the Will of another to that of dependence on his own Will,—he becomes a law unto himself. Education has been defined as working against the chance influences of life, and precepts and principles are necessary to incite the Will to exertion, and to steady it. The danger to be had in view is that the child will give assent, but will not do. The molding of conduct intelligently and of choice in accordance with sound maxims and principles guarantees the compact organization of mind and will. This result gives power. To be able to secure it in a large degree is one of the lawful demands now being made, even of elementary education. The training of the Will through mental work is one of the great opportunities ever before the teacher. Will and character are educated by effort, not by acquisition. Always to wind along the lines of least resistance into the child's mind, is enervating. The consciousness of effort, of the outputting of overcoming energy, develops the Will and counts for character. Doing is essential. Smattering is dissipation of the will-quality of mind. Only steady and concentrated efforts in a given direction are of real help. It is never to be forgotten that all short cuts to an education, all teaching of results apart from the processes by which the results are reached, are not helpful in the training of the will of maturing minds.

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In conclusion, the culture of our emotional natures was discussed. This is a problem which, it seemed to the speaker, is worthy of the deepest philosophical thought, and most painstaking experiment. The object of education is the development of man, the making the educated as perfect a man as possible. To be duly qualified and equipped for life's duties, man should not only have abundant stores, but abundant power and facility for using these most variously. The great secret of mental education is not the forming of the mind, but the making of it. It is the evolving of power or faculty, and a true culture is the evolving not of one faculty but of all faculties,—faculty of intellect, science; faculty of emotion, feeling; and rational faculty for adjudicating upon the evidence of both, wisdom. The wise man is beneficent and reverent, because he reasons, not alone from intel-lect and science, but likewise from the feeling of beauty and the emotions of love and faith. If both intellectual and emotional faculties are developed in him, he cannot do otherwise—both wit-

nesses plead and he must listen to them; they have been bred in him, they are bone of his bone. But let one be suppressed and the most rational adjudication is most partial. Let intellect be suppressed and the result is superstition and idolatry. Emotion cannot prosper without knowledge, else it will have brute gods and human victims. But without emotion religion is extinct, and even science would presently become a moral pest, going to war for a theory, vivisectioning human subjects or destroying deformed infants, as the emotion-suppressing Lacedemonians did, in fact. Education, whatever its amount, should recognize all faculties that are essentially human, developing them by exercise, co-ordinating them in exercise, and finding them fit and wholesome work.

All hideously grotesque and wild varieties of crime utter, in horrible dumb motion, accusation against our neglect of human faculties. They are, in fact, perverted human faculties once tractable, now telling in savage act, unmistakable, what once they had heart and will to do. They say, we would have gone to the south pole and the north, have battled with hurricanes and icebergs; have helped our curious brains to more knowledge of your planet; we would have marched, sailed, delved, burrowed and dived; but you found us no work, and we have found it ourselves. This much for brute crime, the ugliest result of neglected faculties, or one-sided culture. But look at the unbrotherly discord, and jar, and jealousy amongst leaders of education, each disparaging the other's work, from a sheer inability to apprehend it. "Classicists" and "naturalists," ignore one another's claims to educational priority, because each is barren on that side where the other is cultivated, and cultivated where the other is barren. Would we have each person a master of all subjects? By no means; yet we agree with Vitruvius in demanding a knowledge of the principles of all, and affirm with him that an adequate mastery of one subject presupposes this elementary knowledge of all others. It is not so much the variety of facts and experiences thus attained, as the variety of thinking power and feeling power that confers this transcendent mastery which results from many sided development. Just here we are wont to rest contented. Cultivate, we say, every human faculty, intellectual and emotional, none missed; find studies and occupations that work and exercise these, and our catholic education is accomplished. But it is not so. Take any familiar example, say that of architectural construction, if the architect's knowledge of beauty and construction be separately acquired, such knowledge will not aid him in combining beauty and structure in one design. These will ever be two alien categories of conception with him, and what he modifies to satisfy his sense of the beautiful, he will presently find has damaged his construction.

The associated development of the faculties and coördination of their functions is then the full statement of the theory of integral education. Although the practical and obvious relation and inter-dependence of all

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the sciences facilitate coördination of the intellectual faculties, a practical fusion and, consequently, coördination of these with the *emotional* faculties is by no means so easy an achievement.

The solution is to be sought in the direction of a sufficiently attractive educational agent capable of evoking *into simultaneous exercise* both intellect and emotion. It is not our purpose to do more than direct attention to this matter. Right reason, that is wisdom, takes account of both intellect and emotion—of the whole man; and instead of suppressing any human faculty, duly and consistently develops each, and represses the exuberant in both; for intellect also, as we have said, may run riot. If our practice fails to recognize the importance of the culture here insisted on, we shall find even more than at present an insurgency on the part of the passions imperatively calling for an arbitrary exertion of intellect to suppress them,—of the brain to suppress the heart!—and then a grievous groaning under this intellectual despotism till nature rises in revolt, and the head and the heart are at perpetual war. The uncultivated emotions, undisciplined to take delight in truth, run riot and feed on monstrous fiction. There is a morbid desire for the unnatural and pseudo-miraculous, science seeing nature from one side, the intellectual, finds her a circle of inexorable and self-sufficient causes, or, succumbing to insurgent emotions, previously disregarded or disowned, turns credulous, making gasses or electric forces into gods; while literature purveys to the appetites of insatiate emotions, keen upon bloodshed and the savor of crime. Do we ask what these results have to do with the emotions? Will cultivated emotions, chastened, coördinated and reconciled with reason, evince these appetites or admit of these results? Are the emotions fundamentally evil and unworthy and incapable of culture? Are they unholy and unchristian? To all these questions we must answer “nay.” And is there not danger lest our modes of thought become antichrist?—the emotions dead, where Christ assumes them living, demands this, in fact, as a basis of his teaching!

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ENGLISH SPELLING REFORM.

BY A. H. MCKAY, B.A., B.SC.

*Principal of Pictou Academy.**Mr. President,—*

I would not venture to introduce a discussion on so important a subject were I not requested by you. It is my duty to obey; and I must therefore attack a system which befriended me in the rivalry of my younger school days. Befriended me in rivalry—I cannot say in any other respect. It gave me a monopoly for a long time of the big spelling class reaching around the three sides of an old-fashioned country school house, and when I attempted to seize the laurels of the Nova Scotian grade B diploma, it gave me three clear points above my real average percentage. Many of my competitors had not been so favored by the capricious goddess of English Orthography.

I remember companions who started with the notion that the letters of the alphabet represented certain sounds. As soon as this idea was established by a few examples, it was followed by facts bearing the conviction that these letters represented rather uncertain sounds. *Could* was *could*; but *fould* was not food. *Enough* was enough; but *dough* was not duff. And he who could not readily cram such facts at six years of age, was, of course, a duffer. To the praise of my noble young chums be it said, such rapid changes of base, and such contradictory affirmations were revolting to the innocent consciousness of their youth. But the rod was over them, and the spelling book under them, day after day, for years. One cut the school and bands of bondage by running off to sea. Others less bold pined for the day of freedom, in sulky conformity to the rules of the schoolroom. But I could cram. The spirit of game was in it. The winner always feels rewarded by his victory, and is stimulated to further exertion. Like the others, I had at first my faith in the teacher's word, that letters represented certain sounds. My faith required to be modified directly, and its formula might read "Letters represent very uncertain sounds." Eventually I rose to the highest generalization of the underlying principles, and said in my haste—"All men are liars." Unlike my more independent companions, I did not struggle against the constitution of things. I adjusted myself to my environment, and hence my survival, I pre-

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same. Is the innuendo against the moral effect of the system put too strongly in this representation? Listen to the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, a scholar as well as a statesman: "I often think that if I were a foreigner, and had set about learning English, I would go mad. I honestly could say I cannot conceive how it is that he learns to pronounce English, when I take into account the total absence of rule, method and system, and all the auxiliaries that people usually get when they have to acquire something difficult of attainment." Max Müller adds, "that a child who believes what he is taught in learning to spell the English language, will hereafter be able to believe anything." While Lord Lytton, the novelist, dramatist and poet, with no lack of vim, uses these words: "A more lying, round-about, puzzle-headed delusion than that by which we confuse the clear instincts of truth in our spelling was never concocted by the father of falsehood. How can a system of education flourish that begins with so monstrous a falsehood which the sense of hearing suffices to contradict?"

Two things we had to study at home in those old days,—spelling and the multiplication table. The latter was nothing. We could discover the mystery of the whole table ourselves by the use of strokes upon our slates, pebbles on the roadside, or by the counting of our fingers. And then we had only 50 or 60 numbers to memorize. But words were innumerable to us; and the arrangement of letters beyond any general law which we could then discover. Our time at home and in school was principally absorbed in memorizing, by ear and eye, the collocations of letters which stood for words. The stars formed interesting clusters in the heavens; but our eyes were always directed to clusters of letters. The sepals and petals of the sweet wild flowers decking the roadside, were grouped in fascinating circles of living colours; but our eyes were doomed to grow dim on the black and white groups of letters. The bird's notes smote the ear with rapturous sensations; but the only hallowed pleasure for us was the successful sounding of grotesque arrangements of letters. Letters, letters everywhere! We were becoming as literary as the Chinese.

"Spell Pthitic," (said our amiable and most conventional teacher, whom we all liked.) Jim, a little cunning rebel, as he was, answers,

"T-i-s-i-c."

"No, P-h-t-h-i-s-i-c," said the teacher, and the dialogue went on.

"Why do you spell it with a *pth*?"

"To show that it is from the Greek and means consumption."

"Couldn't we know it to be from the Greek and meant consumption without the *pth*?"

"Perhaps you could; but you would have to turn up the dictionary for it."

"And if you spell it with a *pth* you needn't turn up the dictionary need you?"

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"No, you blockhead, that is to say, if you know Greek, the form of spelling would tell you that it was Greek."

"Do English people generally know Greek before they learn to spell English?"

"Of course not. What a foolish question!"

"Well, why did they make the word so that we have to learn Greek spelling before we learn English spelling?"

"Why, because that is the right way to spell, who ever heard of it being spelled any other way? And when you learn Greek it will strike you with great pleasure to see how simple the spelling and meaning of *Phthisic* would have been had you only known Greek before you learned to spell."

"Do all English people, then, learn Greek after they learn to spell so as to be struck with this great pleasure?"

"Of course not. But why do you ask?"

"Well,—I was only thinking. But how many do learn Greek?"

"Perhaps 20,000, according to the Encyclopædia."

"And how many learn English?"

"About 100,000,000."

"And how many 20,000 are there in 100,000,000?"

"About 5,000, of course. But what of that?"

"Is not that the same as if every one in a town larger than Pictou should be compelled to spend his time in learning English words with Greek spelling, so that *one* boy should have the pleasure of seeing, when he comes to study Greek, that some of the English words he learned were spelled pretty much, although not exactly, like Greek?"

"You had better hold your tongue, Jim, you are a dangerous boy—to dare to question the proper way of spelling words, which I have by dint of careful labour for years become almost perfect in, in which I have attained more excellence than in any other subject. You conceited, radical little scamp!—keep mum, and spell *Phthisic*."

Had Jim been able to quote in retort, what a few years afterwards was stated by one of the most accurate scholars in the English world, A. H. Sayce, Professor of Philology in the University of Oxford, and author of the international text-book, "The Science of Languages," which of the two would have wilted? Here it is, "English spelling has become a mere series of arbitrary combinations, an embodiment of the wild guesses and etymologies of a pre-scientific age, and the hap-hazard caprice of ignorant printers. It is good for little else but to disguise our language, to hinder education and to suggest false analogies."

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Who that has thought upon this matter has not had some such thoughts as Jim's running through his head. From our teacher we understood that the irregularities of our spelling was because of its derivation from various languages,—Anglo-Saxon, Latin, French and others, as well as Greek; and although the spelling was seldom that of the word in the original, "still it was thought the right sort of thing to do, just to mix sufficient of the foreign element in the words to show that the learned author knew the language from which it came, and designed to give a hint to posterity of its origin,—sometimes very misleading hints too." But we understood not the genius of the age in which this previously varying and whimsical spelling was fixed. We knew not then the stories of the alchemist in his cell mystifying the reactions of his chemicals in his retorts under the signs of the planets and the zodiac and Latin doggerel, to hide the truth from the profane and vulgar who did not choose to enter into apprenticeship. We did not notice that the literary people of that day burned more for their own glorification than for the simplification of the literary art for the masses, and that the scholars of the time formed a caste inclined rather to protect the realms of literature from the invasions of the vulgar hordes, by fencing the written language with the furze and thorn and bristling brushwood of silent letters and false sounding combinations, suggested by the accident of their origin. This may be mixed metaphor, but not so badly mixed as English spelling.

Am I too severe? I then give you the words of a Bishop. The late Connop Thirwall, Bishop of St. David's, author of the "History of Greece," and *classical examiner* at the Universities of Cambridge and London, says, "I look upon the established system of spelling, (if an accidental custom may be so called,) as a mass of anomalies, the growth of ignorance and chance, equally repugnant to good taste and common sense."

It will appear strange to many that, if spelling had really been so difficult for them, or had really cost them much time, they do not now feel conscious of it. The explanation is simple. When spelling was being mastered it was looked upon as a necessary difficulty, one of the many difficulties in the way of all youth. All these experiences are now seen through a distance of time and through a circumbient atmosphere of weighty responsibilities, which tinge the far-off years of childhood with the uniform tint of happy memories. But, put yourself in the place of the child again, and scan closely what you have had to go through. Or, study closely, and reduce to figures which will admit of a quantitative determination, the work that is now being done by our young people. Do this before you express an opinion. Let us think of it.

There is no doubt that in adopting the Roman alphabet, the English originally intended to adopt the Roman phonetic system by which each sound should be represented by a distinct character. But at the

time when our present language was being ignorantly congealed in all its fantastic picturesqueness into the rigidity of the arctic scenery of our present orthography, this original purpose was widely departed from. Now, as Principal Bouton of Shelburne puts it in an address before the convocation of the University of New York in 1881, "The English alphabet has 200 or as some say 563 signs of sounds." This is a large alphabet—many more than the simple 26. But to make matters tenfold worse, when you have got one of these 563 signs, you cannot say which of the sounds it should have, unless you have heard it before and memorized the association. For instance, the sound of *e* in *meet* is represented by no less than 40 signs; *a* in *mate*, by 34; *o* in *note*, by 34. On an average there are said to be 14 different ways of writing the 40 different sounds of our language. The word *scissors* can be spelled in 596, 580 different combinations of letters, each combination of which can be justified by analogy. The simple euphonious name of the great English painter, Turner, might be spelled, in accordance with English analogies, *Phthyrhgnolo*. (See the words phthisic, myrrh, malign, and colonel.) Now the law forces us to consume years of a boy's life in what is simply a pure effort of cram,—the cramming of what must be, to all youthful persons arbitrary agglomerations of letters in many cases lacking the advantages of the Chinese characters. But there is worse than lost time in it. Of all youthful tasks, spelling, with its mixture of half French, half Latin, half Saxon, half Greek, half phonetic, wholly hodge podge orthography, is the first which begets a distaste to school work as a general rule. Hundreds and thousands and millions of Englishmen have taken a dislike to school studies commencing with spelling. Those naturally crammers pass. And here we get a glimpse of another vast unnoticed evil. I fear that our English spelling tends to sift from the great current of potential scientific scholarship in its earliest manifestations the most original and inventive of its minds. It lets the crammer pass; the other, it disgusts. No wonder we have no Shakespeares in these days of spelling drill! No wonder, so many men of genius rise outside the ranks of the school trained! If the English spelling were only as reasonably phonetic as the German, I believe England to-day would compare more favourably with Germany in original scientific work and philosophic thought. "But surely the evil of the system is exaggerated by this presentation," I fancy some one thinks. That is just what I wish to be carefully examined. I shall directly come to some Nova Scotian statistics, but first let me quote some world-wide acknowledged authorities. Max Müller says: "English spelling is a national misfortune, and in the keen international race between all the countries of Europe, it handicaps the English child to a degree that seems incredible till we look at statistics." Again he makes a rough quantitative estimate: "Millions of children at school might learn in one year, and with real advantage to themselves, what they now require *four* or *five* years to learn, and seldom succeed in learning at all." Read the treatise of

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Dr. J. H. Gladstone, F. R. S., of the school board of London, in which he deduces from English statistics conclusions as strong as these I have to present. I can quote but a line: "If English orthography represented English pronunciation as closely as the Italian does, at least half of the time and expense of teaching to read and spell would be saved. This is strong testimony to the extent to which the English child in his education, and the English language in its adoption by other races are handicapped by our spelling. Gladstone's researches have been very extensive and thorough. Apart from its spelling, the English language is the most concisely expressive, it is said, of all languages; and by reforming its spelling, besides removing the tremendous difficulty of its orthography, it might be made 17 per cent more concise. Such considerations, I have no doubt, prompted the following expression from Jacob Grimm, the great German philologist: "The whimsical orthography of the English language stands in the way of its universal acceptance." As compared with German, the report of the Faculty of the University of Mississippi to the State Legislature, in 1879, makes the following statement in clause 2:—"Spelling hinders our people from becoming readers, (1), by the length of time it takes to learn, (2), by the dislike of reading it induces. An average German learns, they say, in about *one-third* the time." Yet the Germans with the advantage of so perfect a phonetic system, founded, in 1876, a society for a more "simplified German spelling." And so intelligent have the Germans been to take advantage even of the the smallest improvement, that on the 1st of April, 1880, by a ministerial decree, the use of the reformed spelling was made obligatory in the text books of the elementary schools of Prussia, and on April 1st, this present year, the same has become compulsory in the secondary, or high schools. And Austria has followed suit.

Now let us see what this "accursed system of spelling," as Sir Bulwer Lytton calls it, costs us in Nova Scotia. I take the schools of Pictou as a fair mean between those of Halifax and Truro on the one hand, and the miscellaneous schools of the provinces on the other hand. In the Pictou common schools, each teacher has the work of a "provincial class" to do. In these schools I made a careful attempt to *measure* the magnitude of the energy absorbed by spelling and mechanical reading, on absolutely trustworthy grounds. I detail the method so that it may be tested by others. I printed tabular forms for each school and each provincial *grade*, (one year section of Course of Study.) These forms were ruled to show, (a) the whole time given by each pupil to study *at home* and *in school*; and (b) the time given to the preparation of spelling and reading alone, *at home* and *in school*. From this the percentage of total time of study given to spelling and reading could be ascertained, not of a few selected cases, but of all the children attending the common schools on a given week

in June, out of a town of about 5000 souls. The teachers were carefully and minutely instructed as to methods of finding exactly the true time expressed in minutes under each head. Parents honestly coöperated with the teachers. The average daily time for a week had been secured. No theory was broached to influence observations.

At my hand, here, is this volume of statistics, which I have classified, summed and averaged, to show various interesting facts. It shows for instance, that the percentage of *home study* given to the memorization of letters in words, and the pronunciation of combinations of letters as compared with all other subjects in the school course is as follows:

1st year's	Common School Course,	about 100 per cent.
2nd	"	" " 100 "
3rd	"	" " 100 "
4th	"	" " 100 "
5th	"	" " 60 "
6th	"	" " 50 "
7th	"	" " 25 "
8th	"	" " 20 "

Combining the time tables of the work in each school room with time of "Home Study," and taking the "provincial classes," each of which includes two years, the percentage of time *altogether* given to spelling and reading as compared with the time devoted to all the subjects of the course is as follows:

Class	I.	(5 to 7 years of age)	64 per cent.
"	II.	(7 to 9 ") 47 "
"	III.	(9 to 11 ") 37 "
"	IV.	(11 to 13 ") 25 "

In class IV. a portion of this 25 per cent. is devoted to reading, which would be nearly all beyond the mechanical stage. In class III. a portion of the reading would be also beyond the mechanical stage. But in classes I. and II. nearly all the words used in the readers would be those already understood by the pupil in oral conversation. Let us then confine ourselves to classes I., II., and III., or the first six years of the course, and as a small portion of the reading done up to this point might be challenged as being beyond the mechanical stage, let us offset against it all the time spent in learning spelling in class IV., and also in the high school, and this work is often very considerable, as sometimes we find a person go through his university course without a thorough knowledge of orthography. Any one who knows the work done in our schools, knows that this offset is much more than an equivalent for the time spent in reading in class III., which may be said to be beyond the mechanical stage. Therefore the percentage of time given in the

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first three classes shall be under rather than above the facts. That is, 64 per cent of the time of study of the first two years is given to spelling and mechanical reading; 47 per cent of the next two; and 37 per cent of the next two. Or, summing up, over 49 per cent of the first six years of school study in the Pictou schools is spent in spelling and reading exercises. That is, about *three years* of the average pupil's time of study is devoted to letters and their combinations. And this estimate is below rather than above the mark.

Now let us consider, how much time might be required to master spelling and mechanical reading with a phonetic spelling. Were it as phonetic as the German, it would, according to estimates already quoted, take *one-third* the time—that is, *one year*. Then *two years* are totally lost and wasted, and worse than wasted. Why? Because to the young, uneducated child it is a process of cram, systematic cram, on a portentous scale, and is placed at the ~~many~~ portals of our educational work, which intensifies the mischievous effects of the system, and still people will talk of the evils of cramming, while the hydra is their own fashionable pet. But were our spelling system perfectly phonetic, mechanical reading and spelling could be mastered in less than one year. It is perhaps not generally known that in foreign countries, and even in America and England, our language is taught in some schools at first from phonetic books.

They then pass on to the ordinary English, and find the process to pay. Mrs. E. B. Burnz, of New York, says: "The phonetic teaching in the Fisk school (at Nashville,) as elsewhere, proved beyond all cavil, that with phonetic books as much could be accomplished in four months, in teaching to read, as by a year with the common method, and moreover, it showed that there is no difficulty experienced by children in passing from phonetic to the ordinary printed book." How much more satisfactory would the system be were the ordinary book not in existence! Mr. William Colbourne, of Sturminster, England, is quoted by Mr. Fernald in the *Popular Science Monthly*, as follows: "My little Sydney, who is now a few months more than four years old, will read any phonetic book without the slightest hesitation; the hardest names or the largest words in the Old or New Testament form no obstacle to him. And how long do you think it took me—for I am his teacher—to impart to him this power? Why, something less than *eight* hours! You may believe it or not, as you like, but I am confident that not more than that amount of time was spent on him, and that was in snatches of five minutes at a time, while tea was getting ready. I know you will be inclined to say: 'all that is very well, but what is the use of reading phonetic books?' He is still as far off, and may be farther from reading roman books. But in this you are mistaken. Take another example, his next elder brother, a boy of six years, has had a phonetic education so far. What is the consequence? Why reading in the first stage was so *delightful and easy* a thing to him, that he taught himself to read

very

romantically, and it would be a difficult matter to find one boy in twenty, of a corresponding age, that could read half so well as he can in any book." Am I not then *under* the mark, when I say that *two* years of school work in Nova Scotia are uselessly wasted, and worse than uselessly wasted.

Will not those who had not previously given attention to this subject, feel now the truth of the remark made by Richard Morris, Lecturer on English Language and Literature, at King's College, London, and author of several classic works on Historical English Grammar, when he states, "that adults who by some good fortune or other have become proficient in the subject, and have managed to master the intricacies of our orthography, and have become what is rarely found, good spellers, no longer have a true appreciation of the obstacles they have surmounted. All the severity of the previous toil is forgotten and they feel little or no compassion for the young learners who are daily undergoing the drudgery and weariness imposed upon them by the mistakes and blunders of past generations."

But suppose some one thinks, "what is said is all true, but it would be a pity to spoil the etymology of our language," I shall then produce a greater authority than the thinker to settle his qualms. Max Müller, Professor of Sanskrit and comparative philology at Oxford, England, author of "History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature," and of "The Science of Languages," shall speak. "An objection often made to spelling reform is that it would utterly destroy the historical or etymological character of the English language. Suppose it did. What then? Language is not made for scholars and etymologists, and if the whole race of English Etymologists were really swept away by the introduction of spelling reform I hope they would be the first to rejoice in sacrificing themselves in so good a cause. But is it really the case that the historical continuity of the English language would be broken by the adoption of phonetic spelling, and that the profession of the Etymologist would be gone forever? I say no, most emphatically, to both propositions. On the same point, Professor Sayce, of Oxford, says: "We are told that to reform our alphabet would destroy the etymologies of our words, ignorance is the cause of so rash a statement." Henry Sweet, President of the Philological Society, London, says: "The notion that the present spelling has an etymological value was quite popular twenty-five years ago, but this view is now entirely abandoned by philologists; only a few half-trained dabblers in the science uphold it." The regent of the "Illinois Industrial University," Gregory, puts it in this way: "Small men will still decry, and ignorant men will deplore the movement to improve English spelling, but it has within it the force of truth and the energy of a great want." Joseph Angus, formerly President of Stepney College, author of "English Literature," "Handbook of the English Tongue," &c., &c., Examiner in English of the London University, says: "Everyone familiar with the business of education,

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whether in our elementary schools or in those of a higher direction, is familiar with the fact that this plague of spelling is a plague that meets us all. It is also a costly plague. Dr. Morell has stated that eighteen nineteenthths of the men who fail in the civil service examinations fail in spelling, and all of us who have not failed in government examinations know very well what a cost of time and patience it is to have to recall the spelling of words we want to use. I am not ashamed to say that I sometimes do not know how to spell a word until I put it down in writing, and it commends itself to a sort of organ—I cannot call it sight or thought, it is something between the two, and an enormous amount of time is wasted in that way by all classes." He then goes on to show that the loss of the scanty time for education and its injurious mental effects are a great deal worse than the expense.

In this connection I shall quote a few lines from an address of Professor F. A. March, published in a valuable circular from the Bureau of Education at Washington under the National Government of the United States: "Three years are spent in our primary schools in learning to read and spell a little. The German advances as far in a twelve-month. A large fraction of the school time of the millions is thus stolen from useful study and devoted to the most painful drudgery. Millions of years are thus lost in every generation. Then it affects the intellect of beginners."

He goes on: "We ought then to try to improve our spelling from patriotic motives. If this do not move us, it may be worth while to remember that it has been computed, that we throw away \$15,000,000 a year paying teachers for adding the brains of our children with bad spelling, and at least \$100,000,000 more paying printers and publishers for sprinkling our books and papers with silent letters."

Professor Hadley, of Yale, whose Greek grammars many of us use, says: "It cannot be denied that the English language is shockingly spelled." Some of our half-learned pedagogues think it is beautifully spelled. Is this collision worse for Hadley or the pedagogue? I confess I often thought it beautiful, for instance, when tripping up a higher man in the old long spelling class. And so have we all at times I presume. We have been taught from the cradle to reverence it. We have been paid to sacrifice to it. Government examining boards have compelled us to hold it sacred, with as much reason and true intelligence as the ancient Egyptians were compelled to offer divine honors to the crocodile of the Nile—only with this difference, that our spelling is a more hideous fetich than the crocodile, and much more widely mischievous in its influences. This is not a figure, it is a sober fact.

Mr. President, I have given you statistics collected in the most painstaking and careful manner by the teachers of the common

schools of Pictou--by persons who never had read or had heard discussed at that time any proposition to reform our spelling; by persons whose idea was the orthodox one that English spelling was a most important subject, because all examining boards, from those of the Pictou schools to those of the Imperial Government, had always decreed it to be so; by persons also who conducted spelling drill in the most approved and successful manner followed in any school. I have quoted from a few of the many great scholars and Educationists in England and America. I put their inductions in juxtaposition with our independently collected ones, and you can see whether they agree or not, and to what extent they agree. These are not words. They are facts which stand out as clear as our very own existence; and they point out the presence of an evil of tremendous magnitude--one which calls for our first and our most energetic efforts to reform. Three years required to master English reading and spelling, when only a few months would be necessary with a proper spelling! Let our farmers, our labourers and artisans, think of the enormous tax put upon them by this system. Thousands of them cannot find sufficient time to get even a good common school education, a fact largely due to our mode of spelling. Think of the time spent, the sacrifice endured by many of our poorer people, to send their children to school for a short time. But what are they required to spend their time in, there? First and foremost, in learning what is not of the smallest sensible value to them--for, at least, two years of their time--and what, in addition, disgusts tens of thousands with everything associated with school education. What would not those two years allow us to do in our Course of Study? More language drill--useful in its results; more natural science teaching,--attractive in its subjects, perception-strengthening in influence, reason-training in effects, knowledge-storing in results. Less slavery, more love for study, fewer rebels, more recruits for advanced knowledge. Nothing to lose, everything to gain.

The first names in linguistic scholarship and philology in England and America, have declared in favor of reform, the first names in all ranks. In poetry, the laureate, Tennyson, who was a Vice-president of the English Spelling Reform Society. In science, Darwin, who was also a Vice-president of the same society. In politics, Hon. W. E. Gladstone. And in general, such names in England as, Sir Charles Read, LL. D.; Rt. Hon. Robert Lowe, M. P.; L. H. Courtney, M. P.; W. Richard, M. P.; Professor Skeat, of Cambridge; Sir John Lubbock; Sir Walter Trevelyan; Professor Alexander Bain, of Aberdeen; the Earl of Malmesbury; Viscount Sherbrooke; Russell Martineau; Thomas Hughes; Professor Mahaffy; Rt. Hon. A. P. Mundella; and many others. In the United States of America, such men as the following have declared themselves in favour of Spelling Reform,--President Gilman of John Hopkins, President

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Andrews of Marietta, President Bascom of the University of Wisconsin, President Bellows of the United States Sanitary Commission, President Caldwell of Vassar, President Capen of Tuft's College, President Cattell of Lafayette, President Chadbourne of Williams, President Chase of Haverford, Chancellor Crosby of the University of New York, President Dod of Eutaw, Hon. David Dudley Field, President of the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Laws of Nations, President Folmel of the University of Minnesota, President Frieze of Michigan, President Garnet of St. John's College, Chancellor Haven of Syracuse, Chancellor Marvin of Kansas, President Porter of Yale, President Russell of Cornell, President Sulye of Amherst, President Seymour of "Western Reserve College," President Taylor of Wooster, President Warren of Boston, President Fairchild of Oberlin, President Allyn of Southern Illinois Normal University, President Pickard of Iowa, President Chapin of Beloit, and a host of University professors, among whom are Draper of New York, Fernald of Williams, Giddersleeve of Johns Hopkins, Goodwin of Harvard, Haldeman of Pennsylvania, Harrison of Washington, Hitchcock of Dartmouth, Johnson of Mississippi, Lounsbury of Yates, March of Lafayette, Packard of Yale, Peck of Yale, Perkins of Cornell, Price of Virginia, Raymond of Princeton, Sumner of Yale, Whitney of Yale, Child of Harvard, Corson of Cornell, all of whom are known by their books to the English world. And, generally, such men as Oliver Wendell Holmes, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Hon. Charles Sumner, Hon. Geo. P. Marsh, Shelton McKenzie, Chief Justice Waite, Professor Scott of Columbia College.

Next I may be asked: "Why have we not this spelling reform already, when its advantages are so great, and the array of names in its favor so authoritative?" I would answer: For more than one reason. It has not been brought to the notice of our people. Even our representatives and government officials, in the great majority of cases, have never yet happened to think of it. But the special difficulty is general agreement upon the most practical scheme of reform. Some are extremely radical, wanting no change until a completely phonetic one may be made, which can embrace all languages. Others, simply radical, will accept nothing less than a perfect phonetic system for English, which they would form by retaining all the useful letters at present used, and making new letters for the remaining sounds. A very liberal system, which may be summarized as follows, has been proposed and widely recommended. (1) 32 letters instead of 26. (2) Of these, 23 are old ones, viz: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, t, u (full), v, w, y, z. (3) Three new vowels for a (bat), o, (not), u (but). (4) That k, q, and x, be dropped. (5) That digraphs, now representing single consonants, for the present be named and treated as single letters, viz: th (thin), dh (thine), sh, zh, ng, and ch. (6) That the other sounds of e, and i, be distinguished by

diacritical marks, as in some pronouncing dictionaries. Until this system should be adopted, a committee of the American Philological Association, in 1878, suggested to the Spelling Reform Society, that, in the meantime the following usages be carried out:

1. Drop all silent letters, especially silent e after a short vowel, as in have, give; and a in ea, when pronounced e short, as in head, health.
2. Write f for ph in such words as alphabet, philosopher.
3. When a word ends in a double letter, omit the last, as in shall, cliff.
4. Change ed final into t where it has the sound of t, as in lashed, impressed."

This is a very conservative reform and one that was far from satisfying some people. Only a true phonetic system will give us all the advantages at which we should ultimately aim. But a series of gradual steps might lead to the wished-for consummation, if not so rapidly, perhaps with less disturbing effects. In the meantime, we should introduce a reform, however mild, if we can do it. Professor Clement Lawrence Smith of Harvard, strikes the nail on the head when he says: "I am glad the ice has been broken in the matter of spelling reform. The superstitious reverence with which most people regard the present spelling, must be broken down before the claims of any rational system can get a fair hearing."

The Spelling Reform Societies of England sought instruction and guidance from the Philological Society of England. The American Societies were guided by the American Philological Association. These systems were not uniform. But at length in 1883, the English and American Philological Societies—the embodiment of linguistic learning in the English world—agreed upon *twenty-four* rules for amending our present spelling. The system is very conservative.

While shortening a great number of words, and reducing the irregularities, it also makes these corrections in the interests of etymological and historical truth, and confines them to words which the changes do not much disguise from general readers. The changes sanctioned by these *twenty-four* rules, have from their origin and endorsement, an authority higher than all our old fashioned dictionaries combined, and ~~leading~~ ^{leading} to an ultimate, and more complete, phonetic system. I shall be so bold as to say, that in the meantime all our examining boards should admit this better and more scholarly spelling to, at least, the same recognition, as the old erratic method which afflicts us at present. Here are the rules:—

Recomm

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2. ea.—

3. eu.—

4. eo.—

5. i.—

6. o.—

7. ou.—

8. u.—I

9. ue.—I

10. y.—

11. —

12. b.—I

13. c.—C

14. ch.—

15. d.—C

16. g.—D

17. gh.—E

18. l.—Dr

19. p.—D

20. s.—Dr

21. sc.—D

22. tch.—Dr

23. w.—D

24. ph.—W

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JOINT RULES FOR AMENDED SPELLINGS.

Recommended by the Philological Society of England and the American Philological Association, 1883.

1. e.—Drop silent e when phonetically useless, as in *live, vineyard, believe, bronze, single, engine, grandeur, eaten, rained*, etc.
2. ea.—Drop *a* from *ea* having the sound of *e*, as in *feather, leather, jealous*, etc.
Drop *e* from *ea* having the sound of *a*, as in *heart, hearken*, etc.
3. eau.—For *beauty* use the old *beuty*.
4. eo.—Drop *o* from *eo* having the sound of *e*, as in *jeopardy, leopard*.
For *yeoman* write *yoman*.
5. i.—Drop *i* of *parliament*.
6. o.—For *o* having the sound of *e* in *but* write *u* in *above* (abuv), *dozen, some* (sum), *tongue* (tung), and the like.
For *women*, restore *winnen*.
7. ou.—Drop *o* from *ou* having the sound of *u*, as in *journal, nourish, trouble, rough* (ruf), *tough* (tuf), and the like.
8. u.—Drop silent *u* after *g* before *a*, and in native English words, as *guarantee, guard, guess, guest, guild, guilt*, etc.
9. ue.—Drop final *ue* in *apologue, catalogue*, etc.; *demagogue, pedagogue*, etc.; *league, colleague, harangue, tongue* (tung), etc.
10. y.—Spel *rhyme* rime.
11. **Dubl consonants may be simplified:—**
Final *b, d, g, n, r, t, f, l, z*, as in *ebb, add, egg, inn, purr, butt, bailiff, dull, buzz*, etc. (not in *all, hall*).
Medial before another consonant, as *battle, ripple, written* (writn), etc.
Initial unaccented prefixes, and other unaccented syllabls, as in *abbreviate, accuse, affair*, etc., *curvetting, traveller*, etc.
12. b.—Drop silent *b* in *bomb, crumb, debt, doubt, dumb, lamb, limb, numb, plumb, subtle, succumb, thumb*.
13. c.—Change *c* back to *s* in *cinder, expence, fierce, hence, once, pence, scarce, since, source, thence, tierce, whence*.
14. ch.—Drop the *h* of *ch* in *chamomile, cholera, cholera, melancholy, school, stomach*.
Change to *k* in *ache* (ake), *anchor* (anker).
21. d.—Change *d* and *ed* final to *t* when so pronounced, as in *crossed* (crost), *looked* (lookt), etc., unless the *s* affects the preceding sound, as in *chafed, chanced*.
16. g.—Drop *g* in *feign, foreign, sovereign*.
17. gh.—Drop *h* in *aghaist, burgh, ghost*.
Drop *gh* in *haughty, though* (tho), *through* (thru).
Change *gh* to *f* where it has that sound, as in *cough, enough, laughter, tough*, etc.
18. l.—Drop *l* in *could*.
19. p.—Drop *p* in *receipt*.
20. s.—Drop *s* in *isle, Lemane, island*.
Change *s* to *z* in distinctiv words, as in *abuse* (verb), *house* (verb), *rise* (verb), etc.
21. sc.—Drop *c* in *scant, scythe* (sithe).
22. tch.—Drop *t*, as in *catch, pitch, witch*, etc.
23. w.—Drop *w* in *whole*.
24. ph.—Write *f* for *ph*, as in *philosophy, sphere*, etc.

"But what can we do?" I fancy I hear some one ask. In the United States a Spelling Reform Society is at work endeavouring to bring the

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advantages of reform to the notice of the people. The faculties of some of the State Universities have reported to the State governments in favour of reform. Commissions have been appointed, by other State governments to collect information and report. Some States, I understand, are ready to recommend alterations of the orthography of school text books, when a system receiving the approval of the educational officers of the State is produced. In England the subject is being brought to the attention of the people. An application has been made to the Imperial government, on behalf of many schools, asking to place reformed spelling on the same basis as the ordinary spelling, in all examinations under government control. The petitioners have not yet obtained their prayer. But a stronger and more influential presentation of the case is to be made this following winter. We can act in similar lines. We can ask for a committee of this Association to report at a future meeting on the subject. We can ask our local government to appoint a commission to investigate the matter, and to invite the other provincial governments of Canada to do the same. I fancy some person is now saying to himself: "Language is a development and it cannot be changed by government." But does not every one know that government is one of the most powerful of the factors affecting the development of human institutions. And is it not equally patent that government is now painfully restraining the development of orthographic changes, by legal enactments and examination tests. Remove these restraints, and at an infinite number of points in the superficies of English terrestrial possessions, would improved spellings flash into existence, and rush on in the race of development until the survival of the fittest would present us, at last, with a much improved orthography. But the force of development exists even under the restraint of government. It is becoming more and more intense, and the barriers must soon give way. The proper function of government, in the matter, is to coördinate the times and methods of these changes, so that when they do come, we shall have no confusion and but one form of written language. Therefore I argue, that the government should be ready to carry on its share of the development in an intelligent manner, and I hope, when the occasion arrives, it will be found that Nova Scotia had been reading the signs of the times, and is prepared to act in the front rank without unnecessary delays.

Mr. President, If the statistics which I have presented at all approximate the facts of the case (and I believe, that on examination it will be found that for Nova Scotia I have understated rather than overstated the evil), then, sir, of all the grievances calling for reform, this is one of the greatest importance. True, there are conservatives of the fossil type, who appear to have turned into stone about the end of their minority with every idea, notion and sentiment of that tender period, changed into lines as hard and enduring as those of the sarcophagus, which may receive them at

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resented at all that on exam- ve understated the grievances rtance. True, ppear to have ith every idea, o lines as hard ceive them at

the end of their majority. Such men shall have an undying faith in the orthodoxy of the fantastic accumulations of letters which, in the middle ages, stiffened into nearly unchangeable forms, because at a great cost it was acquired, and they instinctively recoil from the radical, heretical thought, that the world should ever value at nought their special acquirement. In these we shall see martyrs for the alphabet, in a literal sense, and the divine rights of our old dictionaries will have as honest and simple advocates in them as ever had the divine rights of Kings. Mr. President, I am myself a conservative by tradition, I am a conservative by instinct, I am a conservative by education. But I have reason and a small modicum of common sense, I hope, and I think the true conservatism in this matter is to be liberal,—nay more, to radically destroy whatever tends to sap the intellectual, physical, and moral energies of our race. The true conservatism is to conserve our supremacy in all these respects over races now becoming formidable rivals. And if the question is not one having an important bearing on the supremacy of the English races and language, then I am mistaken.

In conclusion let us review, *seriatim*, some of the points raised.

1. Our present alphabet is defective, redundant, and inconsistent, and is not used as was originally intended by its Roman inventors.

2. The spelling of English was always changing, in its early history; and no good reason has ever been given why it should have been permanently fixed at the particular stage of development attained in the 17th century.

3. Changes are, even at present, going on slowly.

4. The Spelling of several modern languages has been reformed by the influence of learned academies or of the government, and why not ours, which needs it so much?

5. "It would create great expense in our printing at the time of change," some one might say. For amended spelling simply, it would not. For a phonetic system a few new characters would be required. But the ultimate good effected would many times pay the additional expense at the moment of change. Our language would be 17 per cent shorter, and if millions are invested in our printing establishments, 17 per cent of the cost of printing would forever after be saved. Wouldn't that pay?

6. "But all our literature, for a few years at least, would be mostly in the old spelling," another might say. Those who learned the old spelling need learn no new spelling. While those who learned the new without any effort, could also read the old without much difficulty, if necessary.

7. "But it would be shocking to see all our beautiful, graceful, intricate words, curtailed, clipped, vulgar looking, as if they slipped

from the pen of an ignoramus." Granted; it is the inevitable consequence of mental association. But even were a sudden change made (which is scarcely possible), before New Year's day after its introduction, throughout the whole world, the phonetic spelling in our newspapers, and the greetings on our Christmas cards would be altogether "too lovely utterly utter," in virtue of the same law of association; and in another year, the antiquated spelling would justly be considered more horribly horrid than the old fashioned s.

8. "But in the interests of etymology and philology it would be unwise to change our spelling," somebody may maintain. Why are our leading philologists in favour of this movement, and why do the philological societies lead the spelling reform societies, if this were the case? The spelling of many of our words suggest false etymologies, and ignorance is crystallized in many an orthodox orthogram. By Grimm's law we can chase a word through the centuries, not only when its spelling, but its very sound, has changed. He must be a *tyro* philologist who requires such literalness in these days of etymological dictionaries; and he must be a *tyrant* philologist who would require 100,000,000 individuals to spend years, money, intellect, and morals, so that some few thousands might be able to enjoy the fancy, that from a given spelling they could trace out the origin of a word, if not its etymological history, without referring to a dictionary.

9. If the tracing of words to their originals, such as from modern English to middle English, and from middle English to Norman French, and from Norman French to Latin, be a valuable and enjoyable recreation, as undoubtedly it is, the phonetic reform would make the exercise more valuable by adding another link to the spell-binding chain of changes,—the changes from antique to modern English.

10. The difficulties of our present spelling are such as to engender dislike to school work on the part of a very large number of our pupils, and thus tends to perpetuate illiteracy, truancy, and bad conduct generally.

11. As the acquiring of a perfect knowledge of English orthography is to the youthful pupil essentially *cram*, it has all the mischievous intellectual effects of that notorious system of instruction.

12. In addition to the other evils of our present system, there is at least the equivalent of a loss of two years' work in our schools. And the English child is handicapped to that extent as compared with children of races having a phonetic alphabet.

13. Phonetic reform would, therefore, give us the equivalent of two years more for our common school work, which time could be utilized in a more thorough and extensive language culture, and in a more complete training in scientific observation and induction, instead of simply in silent letter culture.

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14. It would shorten our written and printed language by about *one-sixth*, so that the morning paper, which costs us now six dollars a year, could be had for five. Of the millions spent annually in books, periodicals, paper, pens, and ink, one-sixth would be saved. One-sixth of the time spent in writing, and much of the time spent in turning up the dictionary, would be pure gain. Why, it is the true *national policy*.

15. It would also tend to uproot dialects and provincialisms, 1st, by making the correct dialect more easy of acquisition, and 2nd, by assisting in the growth of a uniform pronunciation.

16. A phonetic system, widely approved, having the powers of the letters more like their original powers in English, and therefore more closely approximating those of European nations at present, would give uniformity to the school pronunciations of Latin and Greek.

17. The same system would enable any one who could read Anglo-Saxon, Latin, French, German, &c., to read and spell English with no effort beyond acquiring the accent.

18. A phonetic system would also facilitate the acquisition of English by foreigners, and, as the language would then be the most concise of European languages, it would have advantages for telegraphic, commercial, and other correspondence. It would undoubtedly tend to the ultimate universality of the English language.

19. It would facilitate the introduction of Christianity and English civilization among other nations and peoples.

20. In a word: This reform would make school life more happy and moral, school work more useful and extensive, literary products and efforts less expensive, and therefore university learning more advanced and profound. And in the great rivalry of European and Asiatic powers, which is becoming keener and keener from year to year, it would give the English races the critical preponderance, as admitted by Grimm, which would determine the ultimate universality of their language, and their supremacy in literature, science, and philosophy, as well as in commerce, adventure, and arms.

SCHOOL SYSTEM, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

D. MONTGOMERY, ESQ.

*Chief Superintendent of Education for Prince Edward Island.**Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen,—*

At the request of the Executive Committee of this Association, I consented to give a short address on some subject of general interest. It was difficult to select a subject. Already the Association had been treated to learned discourses on the usual topics discussed at educational meetings. That there might be no danger of travelling over the ground taken by any of my colleagues, I selected for the subject of the few remarks I intend to make, "The School System of P. E. I."

In P. E. I. we have had a Free System of Education since 1852. We had ample opportunities of testing the merits and demerits of such a system. From 1852 until 1877, our teachers were paid almost entirely from the Provincial Treasury. This system was found to be *too free*. The people became indifferent to privileges which cost them so little. In 1877 a new law was passed making our school system somewhat similar to that in your Province and in New Brunswick. The legislation on this subject in the three Maritime Provinces was largely based on the Nova Scotia law of 1866. Whatever deviations have since taken place, are chiefly attributable to difference in administration of the law, and to amendments passed to meet the peculiar requirements of each Province. I purpose, this morning, to speak more particularly of the different respects in which our own school system diverged in its development and its administration from the common law upon which the Maritime Provinces based their legislation. Our experience in these matters may be interesting to the teachers here assembled.

The teachers of P. E. I. are paid from two sources, viz.,—the School Section and the Province. The amount paid by the Province consists of a fixed amount, called the "Statutory allowance," and an amount dependent upon the effort made by the section, called the "Supplementary allowance." The Statutory allowance paid by the Government is as follows:—

	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
Male Teachers	\$300	\$225	\$180
Female "	230	180	130

In addition receive from raised for being \$150. \$150 from the Province which he is salary would \$450. This only inexp against the amount of work, and plain. My excuse: made by them might be a they are in mistake for veniently contribute the more to do for them grant for each at present had the effect would not financially

In connection our school elsewhere, call your attention quarterly, trustees), and daily attendance children in correspond salary. The deduction law, proceed who, by necessity in and a work

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In addition to the salaries thus specified, every teacher is entitled to receive from the Provincial Treasury an amount equal to any sum raised for his support by the district by local assessment, not exceeding \$150. For example, a male teacher of the first class, who receives \$150 from the School Section, will receive an additional \$150 from the Provincial Treasury, besides the Statutory allowance of \$300, to which he is entitled by his rank as a first class teacher. His total salary would, therefore, be \$600, of which the Government pays \$450. The teachers of all the other classes are similarly paid. The only inexplicable part of this liberal provision is the discrimination against the ladies. Why they are not permitted to draw the same amount of salary as the gentlemen, when they do the same amount of work, and hold the same grade of license, I cannot satisfactorily explain. Many of our people are satisfied with the time-honoured excuse: "It has always been so." From the very liberal grants made by the Government for the support of Education in P. E. I., it might be anticipated that teachers' salaries are much higher there, than they are in your Province. Such, however, is not the case. It is a mistake for the Government to do for its people what they can conveniently do for themselves. Our school sections are quite able to contribute handsomely towards the teachers' salaries, but we find that the more the Government does for them the less they are inclined to do for themselves. While it is impossible to diminish the annual grant for education now made, without serious injury to the teachers at present employed, yet this system of extreme liberality has not had the effect of stimulating the local sections to increased efforts. I would not advise your teachers to think of bettering their condition financially by asking for an increased Government grant.

In connection with the payment of teachers, we have a section in our school laws, which I have not met with in any laws of the kind elsewhere, but which seems so effective in its operation, that I will call your attention to it for a moment. Our teachers, who are paid quarterly, are required to furnish full statistical returns (through the trustees), semi-annually to the Education office. Unless the average daily attendance of pupils is at least 50 per cent of the number of children in the section, between 5 and 16 years of age, a deduction corresponding to the deficiency of average, is made from the teacher's salary. The trustees of the school are immediately notified of this deduction and requested to pay it. They forthwith, according to law, proceed to levy an assessment upon the parties in the section, who, by neglecting or refusing to send their children, caused the deficiency in the average attendance. This section has been an effective and a workable compulsory clause.

The payment of an annual bonus to those who have served over five years in the profession, is another of those modes of encouraging and rewarding teachers, more admirable in theory than in practice. We

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have paid this bonus for three years, and, although the Inspectors exercised the greatest degree of prudence and judgment in the classifying of teachers, it has not had the full effect intended. I would not advise your Province to adopt this portion of our laws.

In the schools of Prince Edward Island we have a uniform provincial course of studies, in eight grades. This course has been in operation for five years, with very good results. The different subjects are introduced at suitable stages, through the primary, advanced, and high schools. Even in rural districts, classics and mathematics may be introduced at the stages authorized in the prescribed course of studies, provided that the regular subjects are not, in consequence, neglected, and that the teacher is competent to impart the desired knowledge. In this way students who intend to take a collegiate course, are taught, at an early age, the elementary subjects preparatory to such a course. This is a privilege which our Island youths value very highly, and of which they generally make good use. It is also a great help to the higher schools,—enabling them to do better and higher work, when the pupils are thus prepared in the elementary schools. We have aimed at giving our young people a system of education, which, while it allows every freedom of choice in the selection of subjects, opens up, with the greatest ease, and the least possible expense, the way to the highest educational institutions within their reach.

THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

W. D. MACKENZIE, M. D.,

Inspector of Schools for District No. 10.

It is with a very considerable degree of hesitation that I acceded to the request of our esteemed president to introduce a "Talk" on our Course of Study, because it is a subject about which every member of this assemblage, engaged in the active work of teaching, knows as much, or more than I do. It may, at the outset, be safely asserted that any measure is necessarily a wise one, which is a result of the combined wisdom of the teaching profession of Nova Scotia, and which, after careful analysis, judicious criticism, and cautious amendment, has been finally adopted by this Association, representing as it does, in a most extended sense, the interests of progressive education in this Province. The Course of Study is no exception, though in itself it is of little value,—it is not an end, but a means to an end. On paper it is a mere crystallization of the educated thought of our teaching profession in this country, and until it is generally adopted, and

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quicken or verified, and made part and parcel of at least a majority of schools in this Province, it must fail in its most essential object,—that of unifying and systematizing common school work and method in Nova Scotia.

To any who have not yet adopted it in their work, I would say, the process is exceedingly simple. It is quite unnecessary to make sudden and radical changes, and it would be very injudicious for us to apply the *C. of S.*, in all its strictness and entirety, to a school that had not previously undergone some preparation for its adoption.

Let us imagine for a few moments that we are placed in charge of an average school in a rural section, that has hitherto been innocent of the *Course*, and where figuratively we have virgin soil. We find on our roll 30 to 40 or more pupils, ranging in size from little toddlers in their a, b, c's, up to sturdy boys and graceful girls, almost ready to graduate into the world and take up its burdens for themselves. We find our new pupils have been engaged in all the branches of study incident to common school work, though with the usual lack of method and absence of system, that so generally characterize miscellaneous schools where no written standard has been followed. Now, let us hasten slowly. The ancient Roman proverb has a vital meaning here. Before applying our *C. of S.* to this school, it might be well to pause long enough to reflect that the children of Nova Scotia were not created for the express purpose of carrying out the requirements and provisions of the *C. of S.* The *Course* was elaborated for the benefit of the children. Allow me to elucidate my meaning a little more clearly. Suppose in this school we find a boy 14 or 15 years of age, bright and intelligent, but who has had little educational training hitherto, and whose school-life will close with the present term. It would be manifestly absurd to compel this boy to study analysis if he cannot solve ordinary problems in commercial and practical arithmetic. The ability to write well will be of infinitely greater importance to him than the knowledge of a series of comparatively isolated historical facts. And, further, if this boy be a poor reader, and mis-pronounces and mis-spells most of the words in an ordinary newspaper article, it will surely be little compensation for him that you compel him to study detailed geography. A cast iron rule is an excellent thing, but it must be used advisedly. In connection with this admirable *C. of S.* we must never lose sight of the fact that society expects us to put our pupils in a position to earn a living easily and well when they go out from our schools into the world. And this thought compels us to consider the relative importance of the branches usually taught in a common school. Of these the three R's undoubtedly retain deserved pre-eminence, and of the three, Reading stands easily at the head.

Reading, writing, and arithmetic are the iron framework of the *Course*; they support the whole structure, and are, I believe, the only

branches that should be made absolutely compulsory, and any table adjusted to the Course, is perfect only in so far as it gives due prominence in duration and frequency to these fundamentals, consonant with fair treatment of the less important studies.

Now, having become familiar with our pupils, their peculiarities, their various intellectual capacities, let us begin to systematize a little by the gradual application of our Course.

A glance at the published schedule shows us that the 6th reader has no place in it, and it is manifest that the first step is to get rid of this book entirely, and however easy this may seem, in practice, as no doubt many of you have experienced, it is the most difficult and the only *really* difficult step in the introduction of the Course.

Those of us who have taught in the rural sections are well aware how extremely conservative many of the older people are, and the abolition of the highest reader in the schools, means, to their excited imaginations, the destruction of the whole educational machinery of the section. A most necessary quality in the intellectual outfit of the teacher must come to the rescue here. *Tact* will open a door that has resisted the sledge-hammer. We have deservedly a low opinion of people who have nothing but their tact to commend them, but, joined to mental ability and solid moral worth, it will do anything and everything for the teacher; it will remove the 6th reader from the school easily, naturally, quietly. It does not do to ride roughshod over people's prejudices, no matter how absurd we may think them.

The 6th reader got rid of, we at once have two grades in the 5th, viz.: the 7th and the 8th. And I may go out of my way for a moment to remark that you are not likely, for a year or two at least, to have very many pupils in the 8th grade. Generally speaking, it will not be advisable to make any further changes in the reading; let the reader form the basis of the grade, and as a rule it is better not to put the pupil *back*, even if you find he is not quite fit for the reader he happens to be using when you take the school.

Following the basis of classification the primer will form grade 1: the 1st book, grade 2; the 2nd book, grade 3; the 3rd book, grade 4; the 4th reader, grades 5 and 6, and as before mentioned, the 5th reader, grades 7 and 8.

Apparently, we have the *Courage* now introduced—in reality, however, as you are well aware, many new difficulties still present themselves. Invariably at the start we find pupils tolerably advanced in reading, yet woefully deficient in other branches, and very particularly so in arithmetic. The teacher is discouraged to find that the classification on reading merit alone, includes, in the 6th or 7th grade, one or more pupils who have not yet mastered the intricacies of the multiplication table. Don't be discouraged—the teacher draws on another cardinal virtue—*patience*. *Time* will connect all the broken links—it will bridge the chasm between multiplication and decimals.

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Having the grade standard, as per reader, once fixed, we gradually carry the other branches up to this standard in the order of their importance, beginning with arithmetic. You need not be surprised, and I hope not discouraged, when you find that it may take one, possibly two years, to coax all the arithmetical stragglers—the awkward squad—up to the grade line.

As we work up our *arithmetic*, so we gradually carry up the other branches, neglecting none, but each term emphasizing the particular one which comes next in the order of practical importance. Writing is emphasized from the first with reading and arithmetic. Book-keeping for the 8th, and industrial drawing for all the grades, follow these eminently practical studies on which the future success and usefulness of our pupils will largely depend. I base this statement on the accepted theory that we are responsible for the future *material* success of the children which the State commits to our charge, in as high a degree as we are held answerable for their intellectual, spiritual, or moral welfare. I am quite aware that the practical importance of *industrial drawing* may be and perhaps is open to question; but I believe it is eminently practical in Nova Scotia. In countries where the occupations of the people are largely agricultural and commercial, this kind of drawing might be relegated to a secondary place. But Nova Scotia is evidently destined to be a *manufacturing* country. One of the most astute statesmen in the Dominion has prophesied that Nova Scotia will be the *Manchester of Canada*. Nova Scotia a few years ago was almost out of the world, but electricity has already annihilated time, and steam is so far limiting space that to-day this Province is, for all practical purposes, the world's centre—a centre in which are heaped up such vast stores of coal, iron, and other mineral wealth, that Nova Scotia cannot help accepting her fore-ordained mission as the *manufacturer* of this Dominion. It is with this probability in view that we give such prominence to industrial drawing. It is, furthermore, the natural precursor of a system of technical education that is rapidly becoming so necessary in this country. And, just here, I embrace the opportunity to congratulate the people of this town, and the faculty of the Normal School, that a parliamentary measure has been passed that leads to the establishment in these halls of the first technical chair in this Province—a chair of agriculture. This will further assist in opening up the question of technical education.

Experience has taught us that once we have succeeded in bringing *arithmetic* up to the published standard, almost the entire difficulty of following the Course has been surmounted. Geography and history, grammar and analysis, follow along easily and naturally, and neither teacher nor pupils will have any further trouble with these branches,—they tend to gravitate into line of themselves. The studies I have enumerated, with a little algebra and geometry in the 8th grade, cover the entire text-book range of the Course. The oral work, as a

rule, must be left largely to the judgment, discretion and ability of the teacher, tempered and modified by the apparatus and appliances at command, and the location and circumstances of the section. It would be presumptuous in me to offer suggestions as to the manner in which the oral work of the Course should be accomplished. Until the schools are supplied with apparatus necessary to illustrate oral work, it is manifestly unjust to ask teachers to conform closely to this particular requirement of the Course. There are certain essential aids to oral teaching that should be found in every school room in Nova Scotia. I need only mention Walter Smith's Drawing Manuals, Calkin's Object Lessons, Prang's Natural History Series, a box of solids representing the cube, sphere, cone, and pyramid. These with a few pebbles from the brook will constitute an *Armamentarium* that will enable an intelligent teacher to go forth conquering and to conquer all the enemies that may beset him or her in the oral field of our Course.

But even in cases where trustees or ratepayers have so far failed in their duty as to have entirely neglected the provision of apparatus, there are one or two subjects which the exigencies of the day have made so prominent that we would be culpable in passing silently over them. We require no apparatus to teach hygiene. This has only to be named to have its importance acknowledged. Another subject is *Temperance*. Ladies and gentlemen, you who control for time and for eternity the destinies of 100,000 of Nova Scotia's children, need scarcely be urged to form the advance guard in the army of workers who are rapidly consummating one of the grandest moral reforms that the world has ever witnessed in any age or in any country. There can be no doubt that Richardson's Lesson Book on Temperance should be the *personal* property of every teacher in Nova Scotia.

In your consideration of the foregoing outline I easily anticipate that your individual experience will suggest difficulties and exceptional cases that I have not here touched upon, or at least noticed very incidentally, and I have only to observe that a fixed rule, applicable to every case and in all emergencies, is impossible. It quite frequently happens in the winter term that larger boys and girls, who have been employed at home or abroad during the summer, come in with a desire of taking up, for a short time, one or two special branches in which they have found themselves deficient. There need be no hesitation in allowing these pupils to prosecute their chosen studies to the exclusion of the rest. As already mentioned, the only branches which it is advisable to make obligatory are, reading, writing, and arithmetic; and in nine cases out of ten, these are the very branches such pupils will especially desire to study. They will not in any material way interfere with the grading; if their arithmetic is of the 7th grade they read in this grade, simply omitting the other studies, and keeping their seats during class exercise, the grade place remaining intact, there being merely an absence of the individual.

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In graded schools, the *C. of S.* is a ready-made syllabus and curriculum, and in these departments its introduction presents no difficulties. The work is divided proportionally, according to the numerical strength of the staff. In a school of four departments each teacher would have two grades, and so on.

It is recommended that from the very start the classes be called by their *grade* names, that the term class, section, sub-section, division, &c., be carefully avoided. There is much in a *name* after all, and though the first classification may not be so satisfactory as the teacher might desire, yet the very grade name, persistently applied, seems to exert a hidden power in classification that will have a strong tendency to lead to accurate grading.

I cannot help seizing so favorable an opportunity as the present to urge most strenuously on the Faculty of the Normal College and the Principals of our Provincial Academies and High Schools, the necessity of thoroughly explaining the requirements and provisions of the *Course* to all proposed candidates for license to teach. You would be surprised to know how many there are who fail to understand the *Course* in its scope, meaning, arrangement and detail.

The *Course of Study* is a finely balanced and fairly well adjusted piece of intellectual machinery. And though I am quite willing to admit that it is susceptible of improvement and increased range of practical usefulness, I would respectfully deprecate any radical modification or change in it on the part of the individual teacher. There are cases in which an unusually clever person attempts to improve on the printed schedule, and the result, I am bound to say, is almost invariably disastrous.

In this ever-changing profession the original and brilliant teacher is frequently followed by an average plodding, pains-taking, hardworking successor, who cannot carry out the improved methods of the former. And the *Course of Study*, instead of fulfilling its legitimate function as a labor-saving instrument, becomes a veritable instrument of torture. The school is soon disorganized, and weeks and months are wasted before we again reach the old safe standard. I very sincerely hope you will not infer from this statement, any under-estimate of the value of originality on the part of an exceptionally endowed teacher. While the *C. of S.* is sufficiently flexible and elastic to give him the amplest scope for the exercise of peculiar talent, he should generously abstain from any readjustment that might prove a stumbling block in the way of his successor. But while it would be hazardous for an individual to alter the *Course*, I think it would be in the highest degree advisable for this Association in its deliberative capacity to make some few amendments, which our experience of its working may suggest. I am inclined to think *Decimal Fractions* might

be finished in the 6th grade, thus bridging an apparent gap which is now covered by the 7th grade. But, before any advantageously extensive modifications can be made, it seems desirable to make certain changes in existing text books, tending to a simplification of the Course. It certainly does not seem necessary to be burdened with two entirely different and distinct Arithmetics, when a slight extension and amplification of the smaller, would meet every ordinary requirement. The same appears true of the Geographies, and I am disposed to think that a revised and enlarged edition of Calkin's smaller text would be amply sufficient to meet our common school needs in this branch.

It becomes us to inquire what immediate benefits accrue to the individual school from the adoption of the Course.

It first classifies, and does this in a much more systematic and perfect manner than is possible to the average teacher without a written guide.

Its next great benefit is in the systematic and natural arrangement of the studies, omitting none, and giving each prominence in the order of its accepted importance.

It effectually prevents the well meant, but frequently annoying and mischievous, interference of parents and trustees, and it so unifies our system that every school has its exact counterpart in every other school where the Course is in operation.

It does away with the iniquitous fashion of turning the children all back to the first of the book when a new teacher takes charge.

It enables the Inspector to do the work of *two* hours in *one*, and to do it in a manner much more systematic and more satisfactory to himself and to the teacher than formerly, and it enables him easily to discriminate between the really valuable teachers of the district and those who barely succeed in passing their grades; and he will naturally advance the interests of the former as opportunity occurs.

It encourages a noble emulation among teachers which is in the highest degree beneficial to the schools, and it enables trustees and parents to examine the school intelligently, and thereby the more thoroughly to appreciate the services of a really superior teacher, and pay him or her accordingly.

It incites the pupils to greater regularity in attendance, as they are very quick to discover that their success at the grading examination is largely dependent on regularity; and, for the same reason, it stimulates the idle ones and incites them to diligence.

It keeps up a permanent classification, so that a new teacher takes the work up just where the last left off, and thus weeks and possibly months are saved that were formerly wasted in a manner that your experience will very readily suggest.

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In the several sections it reduces to a minimum the evils consequent on the unhappy frequency of changing teachers.

It is the teacher's rule and guide,—his harbor of refuge in times of doubt and discouragement.

Notwithstanding the manifold advantages which are presented by the successful adoption of the Course, I am convinced that its usefulness would be materially enhanced if the *merit* of the teacher, dependent on the success with which he or she *operates* the course, could be officially and substantially recognized.

We may look forward to the near future when the C. of S. will be the first link in a chain binding the common school to the university. All we now require is the intermediate link,—the high school—whose certificate of graduation shall be accepted in lieu of the preliminary in law, medicine, and college matriculation.

In conclusion, I observe that notwithstanding any faults it may possess; notwithstanding any occasional friction that we may notice in its workings,—the course of study stands forth one of the grandest measures, one of the most emphatic examples of progressive development that the educational history of Nova Scotia affords.

SOME DEFECTS IN OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

BY F. H. EATON, M. A.

Professor of Mathematics and Natural Science, Normal School, Truro.

It will be pretty generally admitted by this audience at least, that the salaries of teachers in this province are too low. If they do the work they ought to do, they should be better paid. Public sentiment rates the average third-class female teacher at just \$206.67 a year, and male teachers of the same grade at \$212.13, the latter being considered worth just \$5.46 more than the former. These are last year's valuations; the price fluctuates a little year by year. Second-class female teachers last year got \$235.51, and males of that grade got \$279.06; while \$311.28 and \$423.10, respectively, were the munificent incomes of First-Class teachers, the difference in favor of the men of the latter grade being quite pronounced. If the teacher's work is of so great importance, why is it not better recognized?

Small salaries are the result of over-competition, which means that too many teachers are willing to work cheaply, and the public are too willing to employ cheap labor. School keeping is put up at public auction, and the trustees accept the lowest tender.

"Wanted for Section Blank, a second (or third) Class teacher; Applicants will please state salary required."

When public sentiment is put right on this subject, trustees will consider, first, what is the largest sum they can afford to give; and then, how they can get the best talent for that money. Then, advertisements for teachers will state the salary offered, and ask for *testimonials*. Then the competition will be on the score of merit, and the highest tender taken every time.

The *Law* makes this auction business brisk by multiplying bidders. In 1884, 449 persons received third-class licenses, enough to fill at once *one-fifth* of all the schools in Nova Scotia! Now it, at least, seems easy to suggest a remedy for the over-production of low grade teachers, simply, *raise the tariff*; and if it be objected that "all changes in the examination syllabus should have a distinctly educational end in view," the answer is, that improving the condition of the teaching force, by improving its quality, is a distinctly educational end. It might not be amiss, further, to limit the validity of *third-class* licenses to not more than two years' tenure, partly as a check to accumulation, and partly as a spur to ambition for higher qualification.

But, in another way, the conditions for this ruinous underbidding for situations are made by law most favorable, namely, by cutting the school year in two; so that trustees may change their teachers as they do their clothing, a lighter quality for summer wear.

During the year covered by the last Educational Report, there were in operation something less than 2,100 schools, which in that time suffered 1878 changes of teachers. Of these, nearly one-half, that is, 899, occurred in May. 51 per cent of the winter schools, and 43½ per cent of the summer schools, had new teachers. Of course the plan of cheaper teachers in summer than in winter involves as many changes in November as occur in May; and this not only lowers salaries by the stimulus it gives to competition; but makes a nomad of the teacher and drives him from the business by making it uncertain.

Nor can the schools acquire character with such frequent changes. The children's education must go on, if at all, in a halting, irregular fashion. Teacher and pupils barely get adjusted to each other before the time comes for a new order of things. This evil is greatly aggravated by the further sub-division of the summer term, into two short terms with the midsummer holidays between.

Now to lessen these related evils of low salaries, itineracy and ephemeral service it is necessary,—

1. To educate public sentiment until it shall recognize the fact that the best teacher possible under the circumstances, is always the cheapest.
2. To fix higher professional standards for low grades of license.
2. In some way to minimize, if not effectually prevent, the evils resulting from the practice of changing teachers twice a year.

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But to solve the problem of elevating the status of the profession involves more than making the conditions of service more stable and paying it better; the service itself must improve; teachers must grow into better and better fitness for their work. With all that is inspiring and ennobling in the life of a teacher there are considerations involved whose effect upon himself are not wholesome. His work is in a narrow field from which the liberalizing influences that determine social progress are excluded. The reactions upon his nature of continued contact only with those who are in the relation of inferiors, deadens rather than quickens the progressive impulses of his mind. His world is small and in it he is supreme. The persistent exercise of authority unquestioned tends towards a habit of reticent self-sufficiency or of obtrusive self-assertion. Continually appealed to for decisions he acquires a false estimate of the extent of his knowledge and of the value of his opinion. In his constant concern with the rudiments of knowledge, he neglects to exercise his mind in its higher reaches. In his unvarying pursuit of the same methods, he becomes unconscious that they may be imperfect and that better ones may exist. These are the dangerous reflex tendencies of the teacher's work which will if unchecked in no long service make of him a mere automaton, a machine, a narrow unprogressive bigot; and it is just such tendencies that it is the beneficent aim of this Association to correct. We meet here once a year to renew and extend fraternal fellowship. We meet to learn of one another; that once a year, at least, our wheels may be lifted out of ruts; that by the interchange of thought and method and ideals our pulse may be quickened with a new life, our enthusiasm freshly kindled and our resources multiplied.

That the purpose of this Association is understood and its beneficent influences measurably appreciated the yearly increasing membership testifies. Still time and space have set narrow limits to its usefulness. Meeting only once a year for two days and within easy reach of only a few of the teachers of the Province, it fails to educate as widely as it should. Fully appreciating the measure of good that is being wrought, we may nevertheless consider if still more comprehensive means are not available for the education of our teachers in better methods and truer ideals; for the creation and diffusion of a warm and earnest professional spirit, and for giving public sentiment a stronger bias towards all that affects the interests of popular education. There are twenty hundred teachers in this province; and only three hundred are directly reached by the educating influences of this Association, and they only once a year. Local Associations should do something for the rest, and every effort possible should be put forth to stimulate and energize them.

But one of the great needs of our province, both for teachers and the public generally is an educational literature; of which there is at present an absolute lack. Our teachers, as a rule, much less other people, seldom, if ever, read an educational article, not to mention

the regular reading of an educational periodical. It certainly is within the province of this Association to recognize, as, it is its duty, to take early and vigorous measures to supply this want.

Thus far the interests of the teacher mainly, have been before us. Not, however, as an individual, disposed to earn an honest living, but as the chief agent in modern civilization, are his interests entitled to such concern. It is his work that gives him his importance; it is only that his work may be better done that his interests must be guarded and promoted. With the work then rather than with the workman lies our ultimate concern; so consistency to our aim will not forbid a reference in this paper to the moral aspects of that work.

A new word has lately come into our vocabulary. Progress is always marked by new conceptions. New ideas and new conceptions, necessitate new terms. Not many weeks ago, *Arbor-day* fell strangely upon our ears. And "what is Arbor-day?" was often asked. To me the word is full of significance. It means more than tree-planting on the school grounds, as a pleasant holiday performance. It means that the higher purpose of education itself is coming into sight. Its fullest meaning is being realized,—that not *History* but *Humanity*, not *Mathematics*, but *Morality*, not *Chemistry* but *Character* is its aim.

How can the common school be made a nursery of virtue? How can school influences be made such, not only that children who are pure, and honorable, and refined, shall not be contaminated by coarse and filthy and vicious association; but that children whose inheritance is vice, and filth, and vulgarity, shall be made gentler, purer, and nobler by their life at school? This, Ladies and Gentlemen, is the problem that popular education will have to solve before its mission shall be accomplished; and to the solution of which you and I must contribute what we can. It is in this connection, as a hopeful prophecy that *arbor-day* is most significant.

The moral effects of school buildings and premises, are little appreciated as yet. We do not find that the dilapidation and the squalor of city slums are favorable to moral growth and culture; as little should we expect that children can be morally benefited by spending their school life amid surroundings that are not clean and tidy. And yet to bring the matter home, did not some of you teachers leave a school house two days ago, whose grounds were repulsive from the unsightliness of dilapidated fences and accumulated rubbish; whose floor had not been scrubbed since last vacation; whose furniture was hacked and carved into remediless deformity; whose walls were hideous with broken plaster, naked laths, and the years' accumulation of dust, and soot, and cobwebs?

It is surely worth while to consider whether the moral conditions of the school can be healthy, unless the premises are properly heated,

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efficiently ventilated, scrupulously clean and in good repair. Is it not true that broken fences, doors, and windows; broken plaster, desks, and chairs; impure air and all uncleanness are among the evil communications that sadly corrupt the moral natures of the young.

Besides, it must not be forgotten that positive moral forces of great power are set at work when children themselves are stimulated into a hatred of deformity and dirt, and to personal interest in the removal of all that is offensive; and more especially when they are made to feel that they can be efficient in removing what is distasteful, and in making more attractive the surroundings of their childhood. If you can get your pupils to realize that the school house and grounds are theirs, and ought to be, on that account, the cleanest, prettiest, most attractive premises in the village; that boys with hammer and nails, white-wash brush and spade can supplant deformity with beauty; and that by evergreens in winter, and flowers in summer, the girls can make even a forbidding-looking school room, pretty and homelike, not only will you awaken in them an interest in the school, but through them you will interest the parents, and so your work will be lightened of its heaviest burdens. Not this merely, but your school may thus become what every school should be, a moral power in the community.

While, however, the moral influences of surroundings can hardly be overstated, it must be remembered that for developing human character, the most subtle and pervasive influence comes from human character. Personality is more potent than environment. In the school-room, every feeling, every motion, with which the child responds to act, or word, or look of teacher is the teacher's contributions towards the final permanence of his pupil's character, so that whether he realizes it or not, the results of his work are read in several lines that will not be effaced. When these lines come out clear and full into the outlines of higher aspiration, self-reliance, resolute purpose, unswerving rectitude, and generous altruism in his pupils, then the child has been educated indeed.

No one in a position to observe can fail to recognize the high moral standard of our teachers. We, of the Normal School, know somewhat of the kind of character that goes into the teaching profession; and we know that no grander, nobler, young people can be found, than those who, year by year, come hither to prepare themselves for teaching; and yet it may be feared that few teachers feel the full measure of their responsibility in this regard; that few consciously set themselves to work for moral growth, realizing that the tree of knowledge which they are set to cultivate is human character, and that they must toil to make it, not bitter, but sweet—not hurtful, but for the healing of the nations.

If the purpose of this paper has been in any degree successfully attained, it has been shown that to elevate the teaching profession there is necessary,—

1. A better paid and more stable service, to be secured through enlightened public sentiment, higher educational and professional qualifying standards, and pertinent legislation.

2. A constant interchange among teachers of educational knowledge, experience, and ideals, the promotion of professional enthusiasm, and the development of an increasing educational bias of public sentiment towards popular education; which are to be secured by frequent conference of teachers, and above all, by a wide and generous diffusion of educational literature.

3. Healthier school environment and a more positive moral purpose in the work of education.

THE METHODS OF TEACHING BEGINNERS TO READ.

BY J. B. CALKIN, A. M.,

Principal of the Normal School, Truro.

[This Paper, read at the meeting of the P. E. A., in 1884, is printed by the special request of the Executive Committee.]

It has been said by somebody that the man who aims at nothing, seldom misses the mark. He who hews a log without purpose or plan, makes simply a pile of chips. Definite aim and determinate effort in the line of doing some one thing, are essential conditions of success in any enterprise. Educational work is not exceptional in this regard. The teacher should have a well-defined object—a clear conception of what is to be the grand outcome of his work, and he should so build each part that it may sustain proper relations to every other part and conserve the general symmetry of the whole. I fear that much of the teaching in our schools lacks this definiteness of aim and singleness of purpose. Even where there exists a true conception of the nature of education, there is little co-ordination of means or right direction of individual steps towards the object sought.

OBJECTS TO BE KEPT IN VIEW IN TEACHING TO READ.

Turning now to the subject in hand, it is not unimportant to inquire what should be the leading objects in teaching children to read. It will be readily admitted that the mere ability to read is not to be our ultimate object. In fact, this is in itself of no value whatever. It is not knowledge, but simply a means for the acquisition of knowledge. Many persons possess this means, but derive little benefit therefrom, for the simple reason that they seldom read, or they read what is of little value, or they read in a loose, careless way, without

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attention or thought. Regarding school education as a foundation on which life's work is to be built, and not as a thing rounded off and finished, reading presents itself as one of the corner stones on which the superstructure rests. Looking at the subject in this light, and independently of these early steps by which the child is taught to name the written word at sight, two distinct objects claim consideration ;—

1. The child should be so taught that his ability to read shall become to him an effective means for the acquisition of knowledge.

2. The child should be so trained to read aloud that he can convey to others in a distinct, impressive, and pleasing manner the ideas of the printed page.

We should, as a primary aim, qualify the learner to read with the fullest profit to himself, both in silent reading and reading aloud, that he may be able to associate the written word with the thought represented, as well as with the sound of the spoken word.

It is important to lay the foundation of good habits at an early stage. To secure this object we must awaken in the pupil an interest in books, and lead him to come to them as a source from which he can both gratify and develop his desire for knowledge. It should be an object so to direct him and cultivate his taste that he shall discriminate wisely in the selection of reading matter, and that he shall enquire into the meaning, inwardly digest, remember and reflect on what he reads. These fruits of priceless value are not of spontaneous growth, but are the products of the most careful and well-directed culture. Nor should this culture be deferred wholly to the more advanced stages. If in the early reading lessons we give the child unmeaning syllables, as in the old-time a—b ab, b—l—a bla, or even significant words which represent no idea to the mind of the child, he will acquire a habit of listless reading—naming words without receiving or seeking ideas; or, it may be, a complete disgust for an exercise so devoid of interest. Possibly some of us have experimental knowledge of the stupid fashion in which reading was formerly taught. Do not some of us who were nurtured under the old education remember how the impatient teacher with his goose quill pointed to the letter, and with his sharp "What's that?" followed perchance with something still more incisive, sought to open an avenue for the admission of the unmeaning a b c. Meanwhile the poor, tortured victim twisted and writhed, and was sent blubbering to his seat as a hopeless blockhead. It is said that Garrick could move an audience to tears by repeating the alphabet in school-boy fashion, thus reviving the painful memory of early school-days.

THE CHILD'S FIRST READING LESSONS

should not only be significant, but they should mean something to him. The first lessons should not aim to convey new knowledge,

or to enlarge the child's vocabulary, but rather to show him how the objects with which he is familiar may be represented by written characters, to lead him to recognize in the written word the representation of the sound of the spoken word, and also a new symbol of the idea. They should bring before the child the objects and incidents of his own little world. The teacher's ingenuity will be laid under tribute to devise interesting lessons, as well as ways of presenting these lessons, so that they shall become pictures of real life to the young learner. As the learner acquires the ability to read, he should be encouraged in the practice of reading by providing for him supplementary reading matter suited to his ability. The teacher's desk should be furnished with children's magazines and books, so that when the pupil has finished his work assigned, he may be allowed to peruse these as a reward of diligence.

The ability to read so as to profit and please others involves the culture of all those qualities of voice, manner, and expression, which distinguish the elocutionist from the drawler and the stammerer. Success in this direction demands constant effort and vigilance. Throughout every recitation and in all the speech of the children, we must carefully cultivate those qualities of voice and expression which make reading effective.

In our written language words are made up of separate characters, representing (or as some one has aptly said, *misrepresenting*, elementary sounds. Hence there have arisen various ways of teaching children to pronounce words. There are at least five different methods of teaching beginners to read. These are known as the A-B-C or alphabetic method, the phonetic method, the phonic method, the word method, and the sentence method.

The ALPHABETIC METHOD teaches the names of the letters at the outset. Formerly the learner, after getting the names of the letters, was given syllables—first of two letters, as *ab*, then of three letters, as *bla*. When he had named the letters, he pronounced the word as told by the teacher. These syllables were so arranged as to secure frequent repetition of each letter with some one sound, so that the learner was led, in an unconscious way, to discover the power of the letter and associate it with the name and form of the letter. This drill on unmeaning syllables is probably a thing of the past. Significant words are taken instead, and after naming the letters, the child is told what to call the word. As there is generally not the slightest connection between the name of a letter and its sound or power in combination, the child readily obtains the word from the pronunciation of the teacher, and he would learn it just as readily, to say the least, if he were told it without reference to the letters.

The PHONETIC METHOD analyzes the sounds of the language, and forms a new alphabet, with a character or letter for each elementary sound. The spelling of the word then suggests its pronunciation, and the pronunciation is a key to the orthography.

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The PHONIC METHOD also begins with the elementary sounds, but it uses the ordinary alphabet. As many of the letters of our alphabet represent various sounds, to avoid confusion the beginner is kept exclusively to some one of these sounds,—the words being selected with this object in view, and when he is familiar with these sounds, others are given. Thus, in the first stage he takes the short sounds of the vowels, and the hard sound of *c* and *g*.² New difficulties follow gradually, one at a time, such as the long vowels, the diphthongs, and combinations of consonants, as *ch*, *sh*, and *th*.

There are two distinct ways of teaching the sounds. As these are of very unequal merit, the distinction should be carefully noted. One way is similar to the old method of teaching the names of the letters. The teacher points to a letter and gives the sound; the child repeats the sound and associates it with the letter, regarding the sound as the name of the letter. When the sounds have been learned in this way, words are presented for the child to make out. Opponents of the phonic method always assume that this is the course pursued, and hence their ill-founded charges against it.

The other plan presents a word first,—the name of some familiar object, as *top* or *cat*. Having first presented the object, or a picture of it, and awakened some interest in it by conversation, the teacher writes the word on the board, and states that the word is *top* or *cat*, as the case may be. The children are then made to pronounce the word slowly after the teacher, dwelling on each sound, until they discover that it has three sounds. They are then required to give these sounds separately,—the first sound, the second, the third. Then looking at the written word, the children find that it is made up of three letters—as many letters as there are sounds, a letter for each sound. Naming the first sound again, they are taught to apply it to the first letter, and similarly with the other letters. In this manner the words are first pronounced and analyzed until the children know the sounds and are able to give them when the teacher points to the letters. They are then set to find out words for themselves. In the first stage, therefore, while the children are learning the sounds, they are not required to make out words from the sounds, but to discover the sounds from the words.

The WORD METHOD gives the word as a whole, in the first stage, taking no notice of the letters of which it is composed. The child having been told the word, pronounces it, finds the same word in other places, thus learning to recognize and name it at sight.

THE SENTENCE METHOD at the beginning gives a whole sentence, teaching the child to recognize and read it without specially noticing the separate words.

It is proper to observe that the distinctive features of these five methods pertain exclusively to the earlier stages of reading. Each

method in its own way aims to bridge over the difficulties which meet the learner at the outset; but by the time the child has finished his primer, they all meet on common ground. The learner is then able to recognize at sight a large number of words which occur frequently, and he has acquired the ability to a greater or less degree, of making out new words by some occult process which scarcely admits of explanation. New words which he cannot make out he must be told. Again, I would observe that whilst one method may possess features which give it superiority over others in certain respects, successful teaching is much more dependent on qualities that do not belong exclusively or necessarily to any one of the five methods. Energy, enthusiasm, and inspiring power in the teacher are important factors. The child's intelligence and interest must be aroused, and the child must feel that he is not working with dead things, or wandering in the valley of dry bones. The best method may be so administered as to deprive it of all vitality and power. It would be very easy, for instance, to divest the word method or the sentence method of those incidental features to which they owe their success, and yet leave enough to entitle them to their present names, and to all that is involved in the definition by which they are described.

The child may be taught to recognize words and sentences which represent ideas wholly unfamiliar, and which are to him entirely without meaning—mere “words, words, words.” Or the lesson may be well selected, but nevertheless be dead, because the teacher lacks life and power to bring the words into contact with the child's intelligence:

VERY EXTRAVAGANT THINGS

are said by the advocates of the various methods, each urging for his own method merits which are wholly incidental and may equally well attach to other methods, at the same time abusing these other methods on account of features not necessarily belonging to them. The fact is there are few, if any, educationists who adhere exclusively to any one method. They perhaps call their way *word method*, *sentence method*, or *phonic method*, and yet when you analyze their practical course, you find it is, more or less, a mixture of the three. The advocates of the sentence method are probably the most extravagant and unfair in their utterances. And yet this method, as generally applied, borrows so much from the word and phonic methods, and is so dependent on them for its success, and even its practicability as a means of teaching children to read, that it is scarcely entitled to be called an independent method. At a meeting of the New England association of school superintendents, held a few months since in Boston, it was stated that the sentence method was in closest conformity to nature—that it is the method which nature employs in teaching spoken language.

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than such a claim. It strikes one that those who hold such views have forgotten the experience of their early childhood, and that they have either had little intercourse with young children learning to talk, or have profited little by their experience. It would be as correct to say that children begin to talk in paragraphs or chapters, and it would be much easier to prove that they begin to talk in syllables or inarticulate sounds. The fact is that children's early speech consists of separate words—names of familiar objects. When the child enters school, he has made such progress in the use of language, that he can talk in sentences, but that does not prove that he takes no account of the individual words which make up the sentence. Separate words are the embodiment of such notions as children gain through observation; the sentence represents the product of thought.

The power of the *sentence method* to appeal to the child's intelligence, awaken his interest, and secure expression, (which are the chief benefits claimed), can be secured equally well by the word method, if it is rightly applied. The words should not be presented detached and apart from their relations with each other, but should be grouped as given. We should first present those that have an independent meaning as the name-words; then those that cluster around, expressing qualities and relations, thus building up a sentence.

Thus, suppose the sentence is, *Tom spins his top on the floor*; the words should be taken in the following order:—*Tom, top, his, spins, floor, the, on*. These words are then grouped,—*his top, spins his top, Tom spins his top, the floor, on the floor*. Finally the child reads the whole sentence.

The first two or three lessons will probably consist of separate words, but these words should be so related that they shall lead up to a sentence. The child soon accumulates a stock of words which he can recognize at sight; new sentences can then be constructed by making new combinations of old words, with one or two new words.

THE PHONIC METHOD

has some features which give it special advantages over the other methods. It so exercises the organs of speech on the elementary sounds as to promote purity of tone and distinct articulation. It also stimulates and gratifies the natural desire of the child for activity by placing him in a position to find out words for himself. Some persons object to this latter claim on the ground that owing to the imperfections of our alphabet, the words which the children can make out for themselves are comparatively few. The limitation here urged is admitted, and if the objector will show some more comprehensive and effective way by which the learner can find out words for himself, his method should have the preference. The fact is no other method professes to confer this power, or even to give any ability in this direction. But working within the limitations of the phonic

method, the child acquires many words and much power, by which his subsequent progress is assured. As regards words of irregular orthography, the phonic method has no special disadvantages. It aids in finding out some words; other methods none.

ANOTHER OBJECTION

urged against the phonic method is that it does not proceed from the known to the unknown—it gives the sign before the idea. The objector here gratuitously assumes that the sounds of the letters are given first in connection with the letters taken separately, instead of being discovered as already shown, by slowly pronouncing the word and dwelling on each sound. Concerning this plan it has been well said, "as the sound is uttered the pupil sees it to be a part of his familiar word and consequently an intelligible part." The sounds having been learned in this way the pupil proceeds to find out new words and "he may be led to take as much delight in putting these sounds together as in putting his blocks together in any of his constructive amusements."

In my experience there are two serious objections to the use of the phonic method pure and simple. First, there is great difficulty in the training of teachers to apply it skilfully. Again, in this method, children cannot, at the first make out words fast enough to sustain their interest, and the limitations governing the selection of words interferes with healthful freedom in building up sentences and stories. These considerations, with others that might be named, seem to suggest that the most practicable and efficacious way of teaching beginners to read is found in a combination of the phonic and word methods. And I would not restrict the teacher within hard and fast lines as to how much of one method and how much of the other he should adopt. He must judge of his own power and skill in either method, and of the peculiarities of the children. Some may succeed best in one way; others in another.

I would not say that teaching the names of the letters at first, if done properly, merits the hard things said of it. Certainly the old time plan of teaching the names of the letters from A to Z, then backwards, then promiscuously, followed by the *a, b, abs, b, l, a, bla's*, is about as stupid as anything we can well imagine. But if the names of the letters are taught by taking a few at one time, and in connection with familiar words, the words being at once combined into sentences, the names, though giving no assistance in learning to read, may not be an obstacle to progress.

For black-board lessons with beginners, script letters are preferable to print. The teacher can place the lesson on the board more readily, and the children can copy it on their slates with greater facility. The ability to write acquired thus early is a great assistance in the subsequent school course. Before the children use the primer they can be readily taught the printed characters by writing the lessons on the board in both forms. The child will then first read the script and afterwards the printed lessons.

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NOTICE.

The *Seventh Annual Meeting* of the Provincial Educational Association will be held at Truro on the 14th and 15th of July, 1886. The Committee are engaged in the preparation of a Programme which will be published in detail in the *April Journal of Education*. In the meantime they wish to state that they expect Papers and Addresses from:—

Rev'd Dr. N. McNeil, Rector of St. Francis Xavier's College:—
“*On the Historical Development of Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophy.*”

Herman W. Smith, B. Sc., Prof. Agriculture, Normal School:—
“*On the Teaching of Agriculture in the Public Schools.*”

C. G. D. Roberts, A. M., Prof. of Modern Languages, King's College:—(Subject to be announced in April.)

Fred. Kelly, Ph. D., Vice-Principal, Montreal High School:—
“*On Geography as a basis of History.*”

Angus G. McDonald, Esq., Inspector of Schools, Antigonish:—
“*On the Ethics of the Teaching Profession.*”

A. D. Brown, Esq., Principal, Public School, Bridgetown:—
(Subject to be announced in April.)

J. B. Calkin, A. M., Principal of the Normal School:—“*On the Art of Teaching.*”

Miss Kate Mackintosh (A.), Halifax Academy:—“*On the Establishment of a Kindergarten in connection with the Normal School.*”

A. McKay, Supervisor of Schools, Halifax:—“*On Industrial Education.*”

Rev'd John Forrest, President Dalhousie College and University:—
“*On the Duty of the State in Fostering Higher Education.*”

One Session will be devoted to the discussion of the propriety of having some “changes in our school year.”

N. B.—Inspector Morse, Prof. Eaton and Supervisor McKay were appointed a sub-committee to arrange the Programme.

APPENDIX.

ABSTRACT OF THE MINUTES AND CONSTITUTION OF
THE ALUMNI ASSOCIATION OF THE PROVINCIAL
NORMAL SCHOOL.

BY H. S. CONGDON, ESQ.

Principal of the Dartmouth Public Schools.

The Alumni Association of the Provincial Normal School was organized in Truro, in 1882. J. B. Calkin, Principal of the Normal School, was its first President, and Mr. McVicar, its first Secretary. The minutes of its first meeting are lost. The second meeting was held in Halifax in 1883. Principal Calkin was elected President, and H. S. Congdon, appointed Secretary. Messrs. J. T. Bulmer, W. H. Waddell, and Rev. Robert Murray, read papers of great interest which were spoken to by Dr. Allison, Principal Forrest, Professors McGregor, Eaton and others. The number present was small. In 1884, the Association met in Truro, and adopted a constitution and bye-laws, the most important parts of which are as follow:—

“The objects of this Association shall be the advancement of education, and the promotion of that intellectual and social fellowship which should characterize those who have been students of the Normal School.”

“All persons shall be entitled to become members of this Association, whose names have been enrolled as students of the Provincial Normal School in Truro, N. S., and who pay annually a membership fee of fifty cents.”

That year the Alumni held a dinner at which about fifty sat down.

The Executive Committee endeavoured in every way possible to bring the necessity of such an organization before the teachers present, and with fair success—progress was reported.

Principal Calkin was made President, and H. S. Congdon, Secretary.

In 1885, the Association met in Truro, and after adopting the various reports, elected the following officers—

President.—J. B. HALL, PH. D., Normal School.

Vice-President.—A. D. BROWN, Esq., Bridgetown.

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Secretary.—H. S. CONGDON, Dartmouth.

Councillors.—Supervisor McKay, Halifax; Mr. George Ross, Waverley; Mr. W. E. Thompson, Albro St. School, Halifax; Mr. J. H. W. King, Wallace; Miss Bessie Miller, Dartmouth Public School; Miss Kate Mackintosh, Halifax Academy; Miss Ada Lewis, Model School, Truro.

In the course of the business it was decided, that a greater effort be made to perform the functions for which the Association was organized. The result was, the following resolution, which passed:—"That a prize or medal to the value of twenty-five dollars be awarded to the writer of the best essay on the following subject.—“To what extent should the state support High School or Academic Education.” “Said Essay to be in the hands of the Secretary, H. S. Congdon, Dartmouth, Halifax County, not later than June 1st, 1886. Competition to be open to all graduates of the Normal School of not more than four years standing, viz.; '82, '83, '84, '85, and also those attending the Normal School during the term '85-6.”

“The paper is to be read before the next annual meeting of the Alumni Society, in July, 1886, and it must occupy not less than thirty minutes in delivery, and thereafter become the property of the Alumni.”

The Normal School of our province is fast advancing its standing and its value. It commands the respect of the people of our province, including the teachers. It is now, more than ever, doing the work of a Normal School, and as the country progresses, it is to be presumed, it will occupy still broader fields in the direction of training rather than fitting for license. This essay asked for is intended to call forth a general view of the extent to which the state should support the schools that must feed it.

It is thought wise to append a few reasons why the Normal School should receive the support of all those intending to teach, which will explain why the Alumni Society have offered the foregoing prize, and why they will continue to work for the welfare of their Alma Mater.

It is held by all authorities that as much knowledge as possible of a general character should be obtained by all persons before entering a training school. It is quite clear that a Normal School must have several standards of admission so as to meet the requirements of different parts of the country. However, the standard of admission should be as high as possible, for the true function of a training school is to train. This cannot be done if the student has first to be instructed in the ordinary branches that he will be called upon to teach.

The advantages to be gained by having all teachers trained in a Normal School is of such high importance to the youth of a country, that every effort should be made to gather in all for that purpose. In a country such as Nova Scotia it is quite possible that many sections

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would be without a school if attendance at the Normal School were made compulsory, as the salary paid in those sections is too small to enable them to employ teachers who have undertaken the cost of such a preparation. The time, however, must come when N. S., like other countries similarly situated, must have only trained men and women in charge of its schools. The reasons are manifold. General Morgan says: "The two specific ends aimed at in our common school should be the awakening of the faculties, and the impartation of that knowledge that will be of most practical utility." A teacher needs to develop, train and instruct. In order that he may do this he must understand child nature. In order that he may understand child nature, he must know physiology, so he may not cause suffering by his ignorance of ventilation, heat, light, exercise, over-work, recreation, &c. Any person about to become a teacher, or now engaged as such, should bear in mind that the health, ay! the life perhaps of the pupils in his charge is in his hands, and he should be very careful how he takes so great a responsibility upon himself. By his carelessness he may bring ruin upon many who are patiently sitting at his feet, waiting for knowledge but receiving a contorted frame, the germs of lung disease, or some other malady easily prevented.

He should know Psychology so he may develop the mind. He cannot force the hand of nature, or invert the order. If he undertakes any other process than that in accord with psychological laws, he must fail. The mind in expanding, has as definite a set of laws to follow, as a flower, and obeys them as implicitly. He should know Ethics so as to properly train the moral nature, imbue patriotism, make the child unselfish and self-denying. The teacher should know the laws that underlie the whole social fabric, the social and moral growth of a community, so that he may be able to unfold and develop a high moral character, a phase of education too often neglected.

He needs to understand Logic so as to promote clearness in answering; he can systematize much better, and train his pupils to make proper classifications, deductions, inferences.

He should study the Philosophy of Education. This is a very far-reaching subject. In its range it carries one from the cradle to the grave, from the Kindergarten to the University. It covers education, moral, intellectual, and physical. It is a vast subject, and not half studied by our best teachers.

He should know the history of education and the history of great educationists, their life's work and their systems, so as to be filled with the fervour and energy natural to the study of great men. He should understand the principles of teaching any given subject, so as to know how to place it before his school properly, that it may be absorbed to the fullest extent.

Method and school economy are also essential, so that time and interest may not be lost.

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Such a bill will occupy the best of Normal Schools for a term, at least, without much attention to other subjects, as geography, grammar, &c. The subjects may be taught to a certain extent, but should be entirely subsidiary to the work. Such work the Alumni wishes to see all undertake who intend to teach, and to that end its energies will be largely bent, now and always. All graduates know the value of the training, and should step in and give their aid to the cause. The elevation of the teacher, both professionally and socially; professionally so that he may not cause such a fearful waste of child-life and energy, by reckless methods, or rather lack of methods; socially, so that he may have such a weight in the community in which he lives, that he may do work commensurate with his high calling. We therefore hope that a large number of essays will be sent in, as the competitors will be infinitely the better of it, even if the prize is not gained. They, at least, will be vastly improved by inquiry into the subject.

The executive have decided that for this year the prize will be paid in cash, viz, twenty-five dollars; (\$25).

H. S. CONGDON, *Secretary.*

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NOTICE TO TEACHERS.

Some members of the Alumni Association of the Normal School have proposed an excursion through a part of the United States and Canada, provided a sufficient number can be got together to form a party.

The proposed trip is from Halifax by way of New York up the Hudson to Niagara Falls; thence to Hamilton, Toronto, and Kingston; down the St. Lawrence, through the Thousand Isles to Prescott; thence to Montreal (possibly through Ottawa), and to Quebec, returning either by water or rail to Halifax.

The round trip, including all expenses, would cost about \$75. The trip is one of the finest in America, furnishing opportunities for observation and study that would be most valuable to every teacher. The party would set out about the 20th or 25th of July, and return in fifteen or twenty days.

College professors and others engaged in educational work are invited to join the party.

For further information apply to

H. S. CONGDON,

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