Canadian Education Association
Proceedings of the
convention
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PROCEEDINGS
SIXTH
CONVENTION

DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Toronto
July 10, 11, 12, 13
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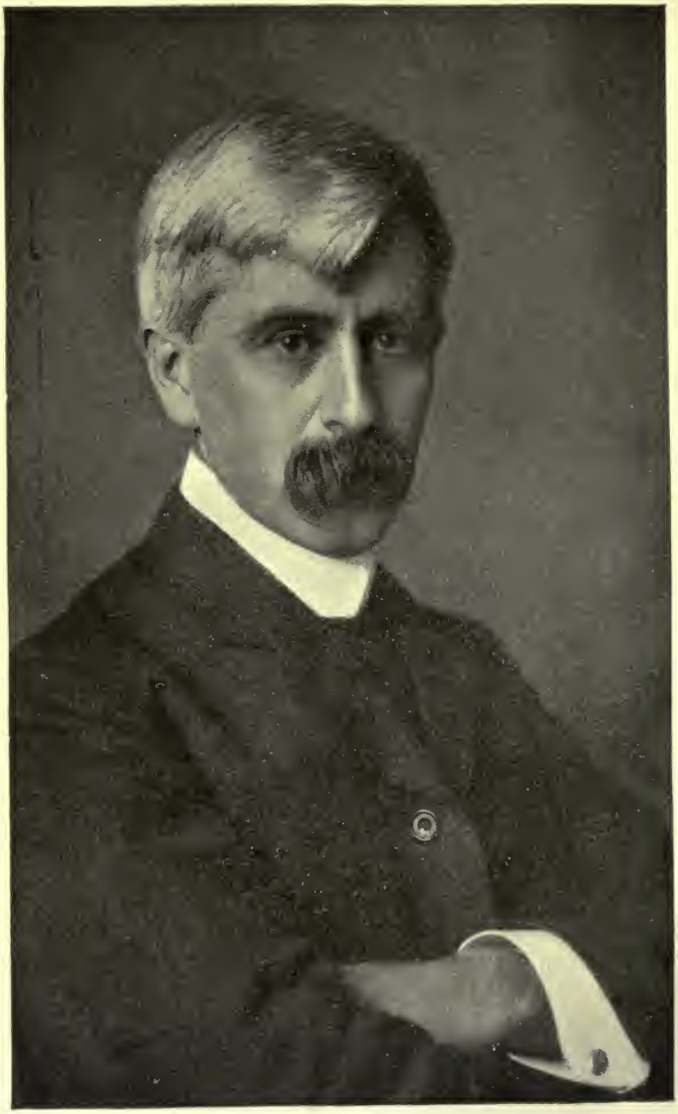

ALEXANDER ROBINSON, B.A.

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Canadian Education Assoc'n
6th Convention, Toronto, 1907

(THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION)

THE MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS

WITH

ADDRESSES AND PAPERS

OF THE

Sixth Convention of the Association

HELD AT

TORONTO, JULY 10-13, 1907

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

TORONTO:
MURRAY PRINTING CO., LIMITED, 11-13 JORDAN STREET
1908

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CONSTITUTION OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Article I.—Name.

This Association shall be styled the Dominion Educational Association.

Article II.—Departments.

Sec. 1. It shall consist of seven departments—Elementary Education, Higher Education, Inspection and Training, Kindergarten, Industrial Education, Art Education, Musical Education.

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

Article III.—Membership.

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

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

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

Article IV.—Officers.

Sec. 1. The officers of the Association shall consist of Honorary Presidents consisting of one from each province or territory represented on the Association, together with Past Presidents of the Association; a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer and twelve Directors, together with the presiding officers of the several sections of the Association.

Sec. 2. The Officers of the Association with the exception of the Honorary Presidents shall form the Board of Directors, and as such shall have power to appoint such Committees from their own numbers as they shall deem expedient.

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

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

Sec. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence a Vice-President shall preside, and in the absence of the Vice-Presidents a *pro tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

Sec. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records

present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

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

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

Article V.—Meetings.

Sec. 1. The meetings of the Association shall be held at such times and places as shall be determined by the Board of Directors, provided that no more than three years shall intervene between two general meetings or conventions.

Sec. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of ten members of the Board of Directors.

Sec. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall

appoint, provided that the expense of such meeting shall not be a charge upon the funds of the Association, without the order of the Association.

Sec. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings during the convention.

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

Sec. 6. Each new Board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the President and Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each Department.

Article VI.—By-Laws.

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

Article VII.—Amendments.

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

By-Laws.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.

2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Treasurer all bills approved by the Board of Directors.

3. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in its volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Board of Directors.

CONSTITUTION DE L'ASSOCIATION D'ÉDUCATION DU CANADA.

Article I.—Nom.

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

Article II.—Départements.

1ère Divis. L'Association comprendra sept départements: l'Élémentaire, l'Éducation Supériéure, l'Inspection et Enseignant, le "Kindergarten," l'Éducation Industrielle, l'Éducation Artistique et l'Éducation Musicale.

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

Article III.—Affiliation.

1ère Divis. Toute personne intéressée au progrès de l'éducation pourra devenir membre de l'association en versant la somme d'un dollar a la réunion générale ou convention; et elle pourra continuer son affiliation en versant la même somme (un dollar), annuellement. Elle cessera d'être membre dès qu'elle négligera de payer cette contribution.

2de Divis. Chaque département pourra prescrire ses propres conditions d'affiliation. Une personne ne pourra être affiliée, cependant, que lorsqu'elle est déjà membre de l'Association générale.

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

Article IV.—Officiers.

1ère Divis. Les officiers de cette Association seront: un Président Honoraise pour chaque province et territoire représentés à l'Association, et les Présidents retirés de l'Association; un Président, un Vice-Président, un Secrétaire, un Secrétaire Assistant, un Trésorier, et douze Directeurs et les Présidents des divers départements.

2de Divis. Les Officiers de cette Association, moins les Présidents Honoraires, constituront le Bureau des Directeurs, et en cette qualité ils auront le pouvoir de former des Comités dont les membres seront choisis parmi eux, selon qu'ils le jugeront à propos.

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

4me Divis. Chaque départment sera administré par un Président, un Vice-Président, un Secrétaire et par tous les officiers jugé nécessaire à l'administration de ses affaires.

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

6me Divis. Le Secrétaire devra garder un rapport complet et exact des délibérations des assemblées générales de l'Association et de toutes les assemblées du Bureau des Directeurs, et se chargera de toute correspondance qui lui pourra être confiée par les Direc-

teurs, et il devra apporter avec lui ses registres à toutes les réunions de l'Association et du Bureau des Directeurs. Le Secrétaire de chaque département devra accomplir les devoirs appartenant ordinairement à sa charge, et, en outre conserver une liste des noms des membres de son département.

7me Divis. Le Trésorier devra percevoir, d'après les instructions du Bureau des Directeurs, tous les deniers payés à l'Association, les placer en garde súre, et les employer seulement d'après l'ordre du dit Bureau; il tiendra un compte fidèle de ses recettes et de ses dépenses, il en fournira, au sortir de functions, un relevé complet au Bureau des Directeurs. Le Trésorier donnera toutes les garanties que pourra exiger le Bureau des Directeurs concernant le fidèle accomplissement de ses devoirs.

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

Article V.—Assemblées.

1ère Divis. Les assemblées de l'Association, se tiendront aux jours et lieux que déterminera le Bureau des Directeurs pourvu qu'il ne s'écoule pas plus de trois ans entre deux assemblées générales.

2de Divis. Sur demande de dix membres du Bureau des Directeurs le Président pourra convoquer des assemblées spéciales.

3me Divis. Tout département de l'Association pourra tenir une assemblée spéciale aux jours et lieux indiqués par ses propres régle-

ments, pourvu que les dépenses de ces assemblées ne soient pas à la charge de l'Association sans un ordre de celle-ci.

4me Divis. Le Bureau des Directeurs devra tenir ses assemblées règulières pendant la convention.

5me Divis. La Bureau des Directeurs pourra tenir des assemblées spéciales à des jours et lieux que le Bureau ou le Président pourra déterminer concourremment avec cinq autres membres du Bureau.

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

Article VI.—Réglements.

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

Article VII.—Amendements.

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

Réglements.

1. A chaque assemblée regulière de l'Association on devra former un comité pour la nomination des officiers, un pour la nomination des membres honoraires et un pour les résolutions.

2. Le Président et le Secrétaire devront certifier pour le Trésorier tout compte approuvé par le Bureau des Directeurs.

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

4. Il ne sera fait lecture d'aucun document, d'aucune conférence ou adresse devant l'Association ou aucun de ses départements en l'absence de son auteur; et l'insertion de tels documents, conférences ou adresses ne se fera pas au Régistre des Délibérations sans le consentement du Bureau des Directeurs.

PROGRAMME

GENERAL MEETINGS.

(In Convocation Hall)

President—W. A. McIntyre, LL.D., Winnipeg.

General Secretary—D. J. Goggin, D.C.L., Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH—

2.30 p.m. Meeting of Directors in Ladies' Reading Room, Main Building, University of Toronto.

8 p.m. Addresses of Welcome by Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education, and R. A. Falconer, LL.D., Litt. D., President of the University of Toronto.

Replies by D. Soloan, LL.D., Truro, Nova Scotia; J. W. Robertson, LL.D., C.M.G., St. Anne de Bellevue, Quebec, T. A. Brough, B.A., Vancouver, B.C.

Presidential Address.—The Nation's Need.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH—

9 a.m. Canadian Universities and the State.—A. H. U. Colquhoun, LL.D., Deputy Minister of Education, Toronto.

The Modern Trend of the Public High School.—George H. Locke, Dean of the School for Teachers, Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, P.Q.

The Old and the New Training.—James L. Hughes, Chief Inspector of Schools, Toronto.

8 p.m. Education for the Improvement of Rural Conditions.—James W. Robertson, LL.D., C.M.G.,. Principal Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, P.Q.

The Call of the Nation.—J. A. Macdonald, Editor, *The Globe*, Toronto.

FRIDAY, JULY 12—

9 a.m. The Educational Value, from a National Point of View, of the Canadian Archives.—Adam Shortt, M.A., Queen's University, Kingston, Ont.

Scholarship and Service as University Ideals.—F. Tracy, B.A., Ph.D., University of Toronto.

English in Schools—Its Scope and Function.—William Houston, M.A., Toronto.

8 p.m. Illustrated Lectures, by Professors in the University of Toronto. (Lantern and Laboratory.)

Liquid Air.—J. C. McLennan, Ph.D. In Room 16, Main Building.

Italian Painting.—Its Origins and Developments (with lantern illustrations).—W. H. Fraser, B.A. In West Hall.

Experimental Investigation of the Thought Process.—A. H. Abbott, Ph.D. In Room 17, Main Building.

9.15 p.m. Conversazione. Dining Hall.

SATURDAY, JULY 13TH—

9 a.m. Receiving and Disposing of Resolutions; Election of Officers; Selection of Next Place of Meeting. Meeting of New Board of Directors.

HIGHER EDUCATION SECTION.

(All Meetings in West Hall, Main Building)

President—R. A. Thompson, B.A., Normal College, Hamilton, Ont.
Secretary—W. G. Anderson, B.A., Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH—

3 p.m. Organization.

President's Address.—The Ideal High School Teacher.

Appointment of Committees.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH—

2 p.m. Relation of the High School to the College.—George H. Locke, Dean of the School for Teachers, Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, P.Q.

Independence of the High School.—F. H. Schofield, B.A., Collegiate Institute, Winnipeg.

The True Work of the High School.—A. W. Morris, M.A., Collegiate Institute, Hamilton, Ont.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH—

2 p.m. High School Training as a Preparation for Life.—D. Soloan, LL.D., Normal School, Truro, Nova Scotia.

English in the First Year of the High School.—F. H. Sykes, Ph.D., Columbia University, New York.

Reports of Committees; Election of Officers.

INSPECTION AND TRAINING SECTION.

(Ladies' Reading Room, Main Building)

President—S. E. Lang, B.A., Normal School, Winnipeg.

Secretary—William Scott, B.A., Normal School, Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH—

2 p.m. Organization; President's Address.

Position and Prospects of Manual Training in Canada.—A. H. Leake, Inspector of Technical Education, Ontario.

Appointment of Committees.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH—

2 p.m. The True Function of the Normal School.—A. Melville Scott, B.A., Ph.D., Superintendent of Schools, Calgary, Alta.

Relation of the Normal School to Inspection.—T. E. Perrett, B.A., Principal Normal School, Regina, Sask.

Foundation Work in Primary Education.—J. P. Hoag, B.A., Inspector Schools, Brantford, Ont. (Joint Meeting with Elementary Section in East Hall, Main Building).

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH—

2 p.m. Why Teach Psychology to Teachers in Training, and what kind of Psychology do they need? A. H. Abbott, B.A., Ph.D., University of Toronto.

The Golden Island of Vancouver.—Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, Victoria, B.C.

Art in Public Schools—with illustrations,—Miss Jessie Semple, Supervisor, Toronto. (Joint Meeting with Elementary Section in East Hall).

Reports of Committees; Election of Officers.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION SECTION.

(The East Hall, Main Building)

President—E. Montgomery Campbell, B.A., McGill Model School, Montreal.

Secretary—Miss M. J. Peebles, McGill Model School, Montreal.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH—

2.30 p.m. Organization; President's Address; Appointment of Committees.

The Rural School Problem in Ontario.—D. D. Moshier, B.A., B.Pæd., Inspector Schools, Sarnia.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH—

2 p.m. Practical Manual Training.—Charles F. Errett, Manual Training Inspector, Brantford.

Music in Public Schools (with class).—A. T. Cringan, Mus. Bac., Normal School, Toronto.

Foundation Work in Primary Education.—J. P. Hoag, B.A., Inspector Schools, Brantford. (Joint Meeting with Inspection and Training Section in East Hall).

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH—

2 p.m. Home Economics.—Mrs. Adelaide Hoodless, Hamilton, Ont.

Art in Public Schools with illustrations.—Miss Jessie Semple, Supervisor, Toronto. (Joint meeting with Inspection and Training Section in East Hall).

Reports of Committees;

Election of Officers.

KINDERGARTEN SECTION.

(In Room 4, Main Building)

President—Miss M. E. Macintyre, Normal School, Toronto.

Secretary—Miss E. Cody, Normal School, Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH—

3 p.m. Organization; Appointment of Committees.

President's Address.—An Up-to-Date Kindergarten.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH—

2 p.m. Supervision of Kindergartens, and Criticism of Student's Work.—Miss Geraldine O'Grady, Supervisor of Kindergartens, Brooklyn, N.Y.

Practical Problems Encountered in Establishing Kindergartens in New Districts.—Round Table Conference with the following amongst other speakers: Miss Ashton, St. Catharines; Miss Tattersall, Collingwood; Miss Wilson Dawson City; Miss L. Mason, Winnipeg; Miss Copus, Winnipeg; Miss McLeod, Owen Sound; Miss Johnston, Stratford.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH—

2 p.m. Election of Officers; Report of Committees.

Development of Artistic Expression.—Miss Ada Baker, Normal School, Ottawa.

What Should the Training for Assistants Embody?—Miss Louise Curry, Supervisor of Kindergartens, Toronto.

The Ideal Kindergarten Teacher from an Inspector's Standpoint.—The General Secretary.

Dominion Educational Association

Toronto, July 10th to 13th, 1907

MINUTES—GENERAL MEETINGS.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH, 1907.

The first session of the Sixth Meeting of the Dominion Educational Association was held in the Convocation Hall of the University of Toronto, President W. A. McIntyre, LL.D., Winnipeg, Manitoba, in the chair.

On the platform were Hon. Dr. Pyne, Minister of Education for Ontario; R. A. Falconer, LL.D., President of the University of Toronto; John Seath, LL.D., Superintendent of Education for Ontario; William Scott, B.A., Principal Normal School, Toronto; Rev. T. C. Street Macklem, D.D., LL.D., Provost Trinity College, Toronto; David Soloan, LL.D., Principal Normal School, Truro, Nova Scotia; Jas. W. Robertson, LL.D., C.M.G., Principal Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, Quebec; T. A. Brough, B.A., Principal Schools, Vancouver, British Columbia; D. J. Goggin, D.C.L., the Secretary.

The meeting was opened with the reading of Scripture and Prayer by the Rev. Provost Macklem.

The Minutes of the Fifth Meeting having been printed and distributed, were taken as read.

Addresses of Welcome were given by the Hon. Dr. Pyne and President Falconer, and replied to by Dr. Soloan for the Maritime Provinces, Dr. Robertson for Quebec, President McIntyre for the Middle West, and Mr. Brough for British Columbia.

Messages of congratulation were read from W. Peterson, C.M.G., LL.D., Principal of McGill University, Montreal, and Hon. J. A. Calder, Minister of Education for Saskatchewan.

Dr. McIntyre delivered his presidential address on the "Nation's Need."

The meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH, 1907.

The Association met in Convocation Hall at 9 a.m.

After opening exercises, A. H. U. Colquhoun, LL.D., Deputy Minister of Education for Ontario, read a paper on "Canadian Universities and the State." It was discussed by Maurice Hutton, LL.D., Principal of University College, President McIntyre and others.

George H. Locke, Ph.D., Principal of Normal School Department, Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, read a paper on "The Modern Trend of the Public High School."

James L. Hughes, Chief Inspector of Schools, Toronto, read a paper on "The Old and the New Training."

The meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH, 1907.

The Association assembled in Convocation Hall at 8 p.m.

James W. Robertson, LL.D., C.M.G., Principal Macdonald College, gave an address on "Education for the Improvement of Rural Conditions."

J. A. Macdonald, Managing Editor *The Globe*, Toronto, gave an address on "The Call of the Nation."

The President appointed as a Nominating Committee: Messrs. Moshier, Soloan, Brough, Fraser, McColl, Schofield and Scott.

The meeting adjourned.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH, 1907.

The Association met at 9 a.m.

After opening exercises Adam Shortt, M.A., Professor in Queen's University, gave an address on "The Educational Value, from a National Point of View, of the Canadian Archives."

F. Tracy, Ph.D., Associate Professor in the University of Toronto, read a paper on "Scholarship and Service as University Ideals."

William Houston, M.A., read a paper on "English in Schools —Its Scope and Function."

The meeting adjourned.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH, 1907.

The Association met at 8 p.m. in the Main Building of the University of Toronto.

In Room 16, J. C. McLennan, Ph.D., Professor in the University of Toronto, assisted by Mr. Burton, gave an address on "Liquid Air," accompanied by a number of illustrative experiments.

In West Hall, W. H. Fraser, M.A., Professor in the University of Toronto, gave an address on "Italian Painting—its Origins and Developments," with lantern illustrations.

In Room 17, A. H. Abbott, Ph.D., Professor in the University of Toronto, gave an address on "Experimental Investigation of the Thought Process," accompanied by a number of illustrative experiments.

At 9.15 p.m., the members assembled in the Dining Hall as the guests of the University of Toronto and spent a most enjoyable hour with their hosts.

The meeting adjourned.

SATURDAY, JULY 13TH, 1907.

The Association met at 10 a.m.

The report of the Nominating Committee was presented by Dr. Melville Scott, and on motion of Mr. T. A. Brough and Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, it was decided to hold the next meeting of the Association in Victoria, British Columbia, in 1909.

On recommendation of the Nominating Committee the following officers were chosen for the ensuing term on motion by S. B. Sinclair, Ph.D., and T. A. Brough, B.A.:

President—Alexander Robinson, M.A., Superintendent of Education, Victoria, B.C.

Vice-President—James W. Robertson, C.M.G., LL.D., Principal Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, P.Q.

Secretary—J. D. Buchanan, B.A., Normal School, Vancouver, B.C.

Treasurer—William Scott, B.A., Normal School, Toronto, Ont.

Directors—T. A. Brough, B.A., Vancouver; A. P. Argue, B.A., Vancouver; A. C. Stewart, B.A., Victoria; A. Melville Scott, Ph.D., Calgary; E. B. Hutcherson, M.A., Regina; W. A. McIntyre, LL.D.,

Winnipeg; A. T. DeLury, B.A., Toronto; J. P. Hoag, B.A., Brantford; Adam Shortt, M.A., Kingston; George H. Locke, Ph.D., St. Anne de Bellevue; H. V. B. Brydges, M.A., Fredericton; A. Mackay, Halifax.

On motion of Mr. Fraser, Nelson, B.C., and Dr. Melville Scott, Calgary, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered to the governors of the University of Toronto for their kindness in giving the use of their buildings for the meetings of the Association.

A vote of thanks was also tendered to the Press for the full and accurate reports of proceedings published daily, and to the railway companies for their courtesy in the matter of transportation.

The meeting closed with the singing of the National Anthem.

NOTE.—On the invitation of President Creelman, a number of delegates visited the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph as the guests of that institution. A very enjoyable and profitable day was spent under the guidance of Professor MacCready and at the close Principal Hales of the Brandon Normal School, expressed, on behalf of the delegates, their appreciation of the courtesies extended them.

LIST OF OFFICERS.

Honorary Presidents:

THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR NOVA SCOTIA.
THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR NEW BRUNSWICK.
THE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.
THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR QUEBEC.
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR ONTARIO.
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR MANITOBA.
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR SASKATCHEWAN.
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION FOR ALBERTA.
THE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Past Presidents of the Association:

DR. G. W. ROSS, Toronto.
DR. A. H. MCKAY, Halifax.
DR. D. J. GOGGIN, Toronto.
DR. W. A. MCINTYRE, Winnipeg.

President:

ALEXANDER ROBINSON, M.A., SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, VICTORIA, B.C.

Vice-President:

JAMES W. ROBERTSON, C.M.G., LL.D., Principal Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, Quebec.

Secretary:

J. D. BUCHANAN, B.A., Normal School, Vancouver, B.C.

Treasurer:

WILLIAM SCOTT, B.A., Principal Normal School, Toronto, Ont.

Directors:

A. P. ARGUE, B.A., Vancouver
A. C. STEWART, B.A., Victoria.
T. A. BROUGH, B.A., Vancouver.
A. MELVILLE SCOTT, Ph.D., Calgary.
E. B. HUTCHERSON, M.A., Regina.
W. A. MCINTYRE, LL.D., Winnipeg.
A. T. DELURY, B.A., Toronto.
J. P. HOAG, B.A., Brantford.
ADAM SHORTT, M.A., Kingston.
GEORGE H. LOCKE, Ph. D., St. Anne de Bellevue.
H. V. B. BRYDGES, M.A., Fredericton.
A. MACKAY, Halifax.

Addresses of the General Meetings

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

HON. R. A. PYNE, M.D., LL.D., TORONTO.

Minister of Education for Ontario.

Mr. President and Members of the Dominion Educational Association. — On behalf of the Government of this Province, I welcome you to its capital, and assure you of the deep interest we feel in you as the educators of our children. Let me express the hope that your meeting may be as profitable to yourselves as I am sure it will be helpful to the cause of education.

Those of you who read our provincial press must have come to the conclusion that there has been something at fault in our educational system. There is a feeling of unrest in educational affairs, not only in Ontario, but in the other Provinces of the Dominion, in Great Britain, and on the continent. New conceptions of the work and worth of the schools are abroad. To the old problem of how to secure the best intellectual training of the youth there has been added another—how to secure the industrial training of the masses so that the natural resources of a country shall be developed economically and skilfully, and its youth fitted to meet the fierce industrial competition that now obtains among the nations. It is acknowledged that Germany holds her leading industrial position to-day because of the thorough intellectual and technical instruction which she has provided and made compulsory for her people.

In the presence of representatives from every province in the Dominion, it is not necessary for me to dwell upon the immense resources of Canada in field and forest, in stream and mine. We owe it to ourselves, to our children, to our Dominion to develop these resources, and to do this successfully we need the best type of intellectual and industrial education.

The Government of Ontario realizes this and has begun a for-

ward movement in education that should strike a sympathetic chord in the hearts of the teachers of the whole Dominion. It realizes that the first step towards improving the schools must be an improvement in the qualifications and remuneration of the teachers. We have doubled the length of our Normal School sessions, and within a year we shall have doubled the number of our Normal Schools. We have arranged for Faculties of Education in the University of Toronto and Queen's University. You are all aware how much we have improved the financial status of the teacher, but we do not feel that we have yet done our whole duty in this respect. We have introduced Manual Training and Domestic Science into many of our schools. We are giving aid to technical schools and we look forward to the establishment of these in all our cities and manufacturing centres.

We have, as a beginning, arranged for the establishment of six local schools of agriculture in connection with the High Schools in as many centres, and over each we are placing an agricultural expert from the Ontario Agricultural College. We have given generously to the support of University education.

We feel that we are but trustees for the people of this province, and that we owe it to our constituents to do everything in our power to place this Province in the forefront intellectually and industrially. There may be differences of opinions as to methods, but as to our aims, I think we are all agreed.

I sometimes feel that our division into Provinces has been the cause of a little sectional feeling that we ought all to deprecate, especially now, when we are passing from the status of a colony to the position of a nation with a voice in the Imperial Councils. We need to remember that we are Canadians first and last, with the same national aims and aspirations, and I am persuaded that if we could have a national series of readers permeated with the ideals literary and patriotic, which are the invaluable possessions of the British race, and read by the children from one end of Canada to the other, it would unite us, bind us together, and make our children better Canadians and more enthusiastic citizens of the great empire to which we are proud to belong.

On behalf of the Government and the Province I again welcome you who have chosen the most strenuous of professions, and who have in your hands the moulding of the character of the youth of our country.

R. A. Falconer, LL.D., Litt. D.

President of the University of Toronto.

Mr. President, and Members of the Dominion Educational Association.—I extend to you a welcome on behalf of the University of Toronto. The number of the delegates and the distance that they have travelled in order to be present at this meeting are a proof of the stage at which we have arrived in our national development. It is an evidence that our national life is getting past the crude condition, and that we are putting due value on the things that are permanent, when the teachers organize themselves for the purpose of developing the educational work of the country and put themselves to the inconvenience and expense of meeting in such an association as this at this time of the year.

In the past the Dominion has been made by a number of great men, who have come forth as leaders of the people, but also it has been built up by a host of unknown workers, whose lives have become a part of the fabric. Amongst those who have contributed largely to build the real life of the Dominion, the teachers form a very essential part, and by their devoted efforts and unselfish work are in a very real sense the makers of Canada. The teachers do not receive the recognition that their work deserves. Hitherto the public have been careless in estimating the value of their services, and one is amazed in particular at the indifference of parents to the character and ability of the teacher to whom they entrust their children, when one considers the means and the permanent influence that the teacher has in moulding the character of the child. Teachers, themselves, should magnify their office and uphold the dignity of their work. Hitherto, the material emolument has not been great, but teaching has its own rewards. There is the satisfaction of fashioning the young mind and seeing it develop under ideas that we impart, and amidst many disappointments being gratified often by the progress that is made, and in some cases at least by the later results.

From remote country homes and from schools in the smaller districts there come constantly those who occupy leading positions in the Dominion and develop its growth. To have had a share in the moulding of such persons is in itself a reward for a teacher. The University must also be closely in touch with the schools, for

unless the work of the school is well done, that of the University cannot be satisfactorily accomplished. The one forms the foundation for the other. Therefore, the schools and the University should work in harmony, both being essential for the welfare of the nation.

The educated man and woman is the best asset of the country, the money spent in this way being in a very real sense an addition to its capital. The University of Toronto bids welcome to the Dominion Educational Association and has a very real right to do so, because in a true sense it is not only a Provincial but a National University. Its graduates are to be found in every part of the Dominion, and I believe they are amongst the most intelligent and active in co-operating with those who seek through the schools and higher institutions of learning to further the intellectual and national development of the new Provinces, and on behalf of the University of Toronto, I bid you welcome.

RESPONSES.

DAVID SOLOAN, LL.D.,

Principal Normal School, Truro, N.S.

Mr. President and Members of the Dominion Educational Association.—The accident of circumstance is responsible for my being delegated to-night to speak on behalf of my Nova Scotian fellow-teachers a few words in cordial acknowledgment of the welcome extended to our Association by the University of Toronto and the Education Department of the Province of Ontario.

It is a matter of regret to us all that we have not with us our distinguished fellow-member, Dr. Mackay, Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia, a man well known to you through his initiative in educational reform, though his zeal for the promotion of a unified Canadian sentiment in education and in affairs, and through the distinction he has won in the department of biological research. Dr. Mackay has until lately looked forward to participating in this

reunion of Canadian teachers, and he bids me say for him how deeply he regrets his absence. Sent to Europe on affairs related to the administration of his office, he has found it impossible to complete his mission in time for our Toronto gathering.

Nova Scotia, you may know, has lately undertaken a venture in the domain of technical education, and is inaugurating a system of technical schools under state auspices and state control. As our government comprises no such portfolio as that of Minister of Education, the administrative function in education devolves largely upon the Superintendent, who is Secretary to the Council of Public Instruction. Hence, the success of our new educational venture depends largely on the efforts of the chief educational official. His mission to Europe is to study systems of organization and support—an important consideration, you will recognize, and one that may be pleaded in complete extenuation of his absence to-night.

Permit me a word here in testimony to the fraternal affection and admiration which we of the eastern provinces cherish for your great Ontario and the vast provinces to east and west of you. We are a proud people, we dwellers by the Atlantic surges, but we claim with satisfaction that our pride is more than local: we own that our part in the making of Canada has been creditable largely in virtue of what you in Ontario have become. We Nova Scotians did have and do have some share in making you what you are, and we intend not to allow you to forget this. We can never hope to match you in wheat fields, but we think we more than match you in skilled orcharding; we hardly hope to overtake you, in this generation, in the mining of precious metals, or the manufacture of textiles, shelf-goods, or musical instruments; but we shall more than hold our own in the production of iron and steel, while, in the raising of coal, we see before us opportunity and promise of unlimited expansion. Beyond and above all this, we believe that we turn out a goodly product in men and women.

You will pardon me, I trust, if I am tempted to recall here in your great and beautiful city three distinguished scholars from the Maritime Provinces who have in succession sat in the high places of McMaster University. Not that I am to be thought of as claiming a monopoly of things intellectual for my native East; but it is pleasant for me to realize that, feeble as are my efforts to worthily represent my own community, my shortcomings are more than

atoned for by the reputations of those three McMaster men, Rand, Wallace, and Kierstead. Then, there is your sister university of Queen's. Who that ever thinks of Queen's fails to recall the big manly voice and presence of Grant?—Grant, who was the embodiment of wholesome, confident, cheery Canadian citizenship! Is it known to you—it is worth your knowing—that, when a successor was sought for this broad-minded, broad-shouldered creator of a university, the search ended in the same province of Nova Scotia, nay, in the selfsame county in which Grant was born and reared? And the destinies of Queen's University are now directed by a Pictou County Gordon whose outlook upon the world is none the narrower for a boyhood spent amid those lovely hills that overlook the great Gulf of St. Lawrence. It may be—but I am not certain as to this —that both these Queen's men drew inspiration direct from another Pictou school-master whose name is familiar to you. For, during their youth, one William Dawson did wield authority in the Academy of that town. Be that as it may, the career of Sir William Dawson was one not destined to chill the ambition of any young Canadian.

It is pleasing to view in the lives of the men whom I have mentioned, the fact that your great Ontario has always risen above parochial prejudice in the selection of leaders to direct her educational efforts. Pleasing, too, for us to receive this latest assurance of your broad, generous and discerning instincts in your selection of our Dr. Falconer to preside over the faculties of the University of Toronto. I am aware that he is not by birth a Nova Scotian, but I am also cognisant of the fact that he springs from a Nova Scotian family; for there are few of my fellow-provincials that command a larger tribute of esteem among us than his saintly father the ex-Moderator of the Presbyterian Assembly of Canada.

No wonder then that we folk from the little eastern provinces feel ourselves wonderfully at our ease among you in Toronto. The welcome your fathers extended to the wise men from the East we are sensible of to-night, reproduced as it is in the hearty greeting accorded to the men and women come hither from afar to discuss matters in which you have discerned an importance hidden from the vulgar. Let me say to my fellow-teachers that we highly appreciate and heartily reciprocate the kindly and discriminating feelings which inspire your welcome. You have in the past placed a proper value on the contribution of the Lower Provinces to the intellectual life

of Canada. Let us hope that our contribution of intelligent and devoted schoolmasters and school-mistresses may do credit to those great teachers who have helped to make our province illustrious and our Dominion secure.

Dr. James W. Robertson, Principal of Macdonald College, replied on behalf of Quebec. He said that the labor of teaching was usually considered as a labor of love, and most people were willing to accept it at that valuation. He was glad to be welcomed on behalf of the Department of Education that was setting the pace for the Dominion in improving the educational system. As a neighbor, he was glad to know that it had increased expenditure on education by $600,000 in two years. He believed that Quebec was doing its share in the development of Canada and was glad to say that the University of Toronto was also wisely and largely taking its part in the same great work.

Mr. T. A. Brough, of Vancouver, in replying for British Columbia, spoke of the work already accomplished in that province and of the forward movement now in progress in the Far West. He congratulated Dr. Pyne on the generous aid that had been given by Ontario to the University of Toronto. He wished for Dr. Falconer unmeasured success in his new field of labor—a wish, in which he was sure the graduates of every university in Canada would heartily join.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

The Nation's Need.

W. A. McIntyre, B.A., LL.D.

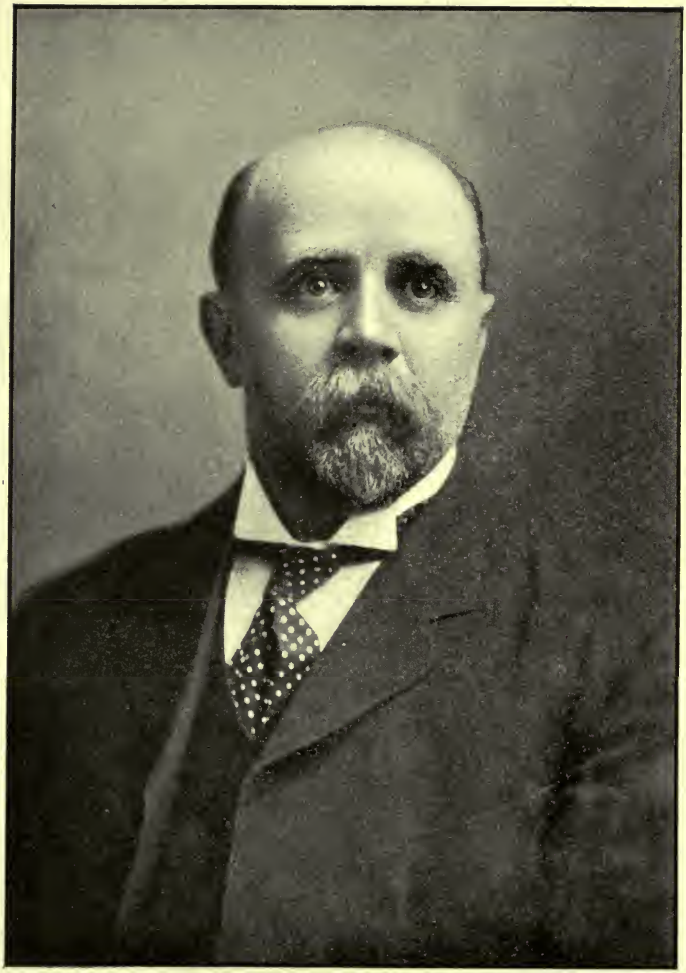
You will permit me in opening this meeting to refer to the great loss the Association has sustained since its last gathering in the death of its president—the late John Millar—Deputy Minister of Education for this Province. He was known and esteemed by his co-educationists in Ontario; he was loved and honored by all those in the other provinces who were so fortunate as to be classed among his friends. The work he did with such fidelity and perseverance is still bearing fruit. The wholesome influence of his pure and unselfish life will be felt, in and out of education, for years to come.

Let me welcome you to this Sixth Meeting of the Dominion Educational Association. I trust our gathering will be of profit not only to those who are here, but to the cause of Education in the Dominion, and therefore to all our Canadian people. It should have at least three good effects.

In the first place it will bring together workers from all parts of the Dominion and develop that brotherly feeling which should exist, but which is not so marked as it might be because the control of education is vested in the Provinces rather than in the Dominion. It is no doubt wise to have it so vested. Each province has its own needs and its system must be adapted to such needs. Because of this, however, there is likely to be generated a narrowness that does not make for highest efficiency. Interchange of ideas will be of the greatest value to all.

In the second place workers from all departments will meet together, and this will tend to develop a feeling of kinship and mutual respect that is very much needed at the present time. There is no aristocracy of talent in the teaching body, there is no grade of the work that is highest. We are all co-workers in what we hope is a worthy cause.

In the third place this union of force will breed confidence not only in the minds of the teaching body, but in the minds of the



W. A. McINTYRE, B.A., LL.D.

general public. We have begun in Canada in a much more hopeful manner than did the educators of the United States, yet this annual gathering is now recognized to be one of the greatest forces for good in the republic. We have great difficulties to surmount because of our territorial extent, but if we are in earnest we shall accomplish much for our schools and our people.

Those of you who have glanced over the programme for this meeting will have observed that many of the speakers have chosen subjects which relate in some way to our national responsibility and our national prosperity. This seems to be most appropriate at a time when the blood of youth is coursing through our veins, and ere yet we have fixed our ideals, and established those habits, tastes and tendencies, which must determine our destiny.

We have such a glorious heritage in our wide acres of mountain and plain, that we are never weary of picturing the wealth that is in store for us because of our unlimited capacity for production. It is well to remember what a brilliant writer has recently said—that no nation whose opulence has been founded on agricultural success too easily won has ever succeeded in raising up for itself any ideal in art, literature, or politics. If these words are true, and the history of the great river valleys of the world bears out their truth, they would seem to emphasize the fact that what we require is not chiefly an industrial revival but a quickening of our spiritual faculties. We do require, indeed, to develop our resources and to better our trade-relations, but we require still more to preserve inviolate and render efficient those great institutions of civilization upon which the permanent well-being of our country depends. A few dollars, more or less, is a matter of small concern, but a truer ideal, a more honest purpose, a more righteous example of living and doing in the home, the market-place and the forum—these are what make for the permanent happiness and glory of a nation.

Nor can we attain to true greatness unless *all* the institutions of the land perform their duties to the full measure of their abilities. The school is not the only educational agency—nor is it even the chief agency. Whenever a man meets with his fellows he becomes both teacher and learner. No one can escape the responsibility of so living and acting in his manifold relationships that his own life and the lives of those around him will be purer, sweeter, and more productive of good. The sense of responsibility is the saving virtue in any soul. We all need and feel it. When the father feels it there

is daily regard for the happiness and welfare of his children, where the teacher feels it there is honest striving for the improvement of his pupils, where the preacher feels it there is plain dealing and personal effort with the members of his flock, where the master feels it there is sincere regard for the comfort and well-being of his servants, and where the public official feels it, there is no possibility of intrigue and treachery and betrayal of the people, but every act is inspired by a deep regard for that which is wise and right and good. It is necessary, therefore, that our institutional life should be efficient throughout. National calamity will result when *any* institution neglects its duty. Thorough understanding and mutual co-operation are necessary to the highest welfare of the State.

THE STATE.

If we should look for strength in any of our national institutions; if we should expect any of them to serve as a great educative force in the state, it should be our Parliament. There is not a day passes in which its acts are not held up for public review. Its attitude to truth and honesty, to wrong-doing and injustice is a perpetual object lesson for young and old. Our public men become the pattern by which young lives are moulded; the standard of morals adopted by Parliament tends to become the rule of the people. It is in vain that patriotism is instilled in the home and in the school, if it be not manifested in our legislative halls. And yet some of our legislators speak as if it were possible by a few patriotic exercises in the school-room to offset the villainy that is rampant in the lobbies of parliament.

It is with justifiable pride that we point to parliamentary life in the mother land, and it is with thankfulness we can in our land, name men and measures that are worthy of the great nation to which we belong. Yet there are some dangers against which we must guard, if our national life is to be preserved in all its integrity and usefulness.

The first of these is the evil of extreme partyism. It seems unnecessary to show how it is standing in the way of national progress. It places a lower affection in place of a higher; it does away with individual liberty and independence of thought; it breeds hatred, discord and distrust; it leads to insincerity, untruthfulness, and false judgment; and it makes possible the corruption of the

electorate which ends in the loss of self-respect and true manhood. Yes, and this extreme partyism is in evidence right here now. Because of it we have iniquities that cause fair-minded men to blush with shame. Dishonesty is excused, injustice is tolerated, open-handed corruption is unheeded. Men, who in private and commercial life are blameless do not hesitate to commit criminal offences in the name of party. In party circles it is not uncommon for the greatest heeler to be the greatest hero.

Such an evil must be opposed, not only by determined souls who take an active part in political life, but by the home and the school, the press and the church. The home and the school can create a sentiment for country and for truth; and in this way offset the strong sentiment for party that prevails. It is natural for every man to belong to a party, to espouse a cause. Generally, he follows the lead of his parents. The result is partyism. Our political warfare is frequently of no more account than those sanguinary engagements of youth, when the boys of the south side fought the boys from the north. There was no principle involved, but there was a party to side with and fight with and that was enough. It is a matter of education to transfer affection and sympathy from party to country. Here lies the opportunity for the home and especially for the school. As for the press it can give us more information and less abuse. The church can do much by giving us more direct inspiration along the line of practical effort, and by excluding from its membership all who are driven by partizan zeal to commit those unrighteous acts which make Canadians ashamed of their nationality.

Great as is the danger of extreme partizanship, it is no greater than that of the control of our national resources by great privately owned financial concerns. The national significance of this danger is not fully appreciated. By many, the privileges granted the great corporations are regarded as simply interfering with the just distribution of wealth. The evil is, however, more serious than this. The great mass of our people, not having any appreciable stake in the country cease to feel the responsibility which insures loyalty. The bond of sympathy which binds man to man is broken; the feeling of independence which characterizes the freeman and the patriot is gone; there is a class hatred which is fatal to national unity; there is a diversion of land and wealth which makes for anarchy. Worse than all this, there is associated with the granting of favors

and monopolies, the natural consequence,—political corruption,—which no individual can practice and retain his integrity, which no country can endure and maintain its moral standing. We need not grieve chiefly because our patrimony has been squandered and our rights surrendered, but because our moral sense has been blunted, and our manhood lowered by this nefarious crookedness that has become so common in Canadian politics.

To a pure legislature must be joined an incorruptible judiciary. May the day never come in this land when judges will be influenced by monetary or political considerations! Every judgment of the courts is a lesson for our people—influencing their conduct for good or ill. The judge as a public educator must possess the confidence of those who have entrusted him with authority. To high legal qualifications should be added the purity of character and loftiness of demeanor which would ensure respect and esteem.

To our legislators, therefore, and to our courts we look for an example of all that is pure and holy. Our laws must be made and administered in the spirit of fairness and justice, and the same spirit of honesty must characterize the action of our public men, as characterizes the deeds of our private citizens. So shall we walk with cheerful countenances and with heads erect, as becometh those who look for a neighbor's kindly greeting and the smile of an approving God.

The Church.

Side by side with the State institutions is one which is not of the State but yet in it. It is an institution which it is becoming somewhat fashionable to deride. Yet when I stand on one of your principal streets on a Sunday evening and watch the thousands who are on their way to houses of worship, and when I know that this is but an illustration of what is taking place throughout the whole land, I see in the custom of church-going something that has a most pronounced national significance. Is it not well that every man should for at least one hour of the week so place himself that he must almost of necessity consider great moral issues? Is there any other hour think you, on which there is developed so much power for righteousness?

"Not with vain noise
  The great work grows,
Nor with foolish voice,
  But in repose,—
Not in the rush
But in the hush."

And yet this is but a small part of the Church's ministry. It leads in philanthropic endeavor, it is present with its beneficent influence and assistance wherever there is sin and sorrow, it stands for civic righteousness and private morality, it is opposed to organized evil and to all human injustice, it is, taking it on the whole what its divine Originator ordained it to be, the salt which is to be the savour in our social and political life.

As a public educator the Church will continue to extend its influence. It will in the first place, become more definite in its teaching. Unfortunately, many of its ministers have cultivated a semi-philosophical habit, to such a degree that they are incapable of dealing with real people and real issues. They "see men as trees walking." When grave questions affecting personal and national life are up for discussion it is not sufficient to indulge in "empty platitudes and glittering generalities." Teaching to be educative must be direct, simple and searching.

In the second place the Church will educate by purifying its membership. Every life is a sermon, and the preaching power of any church is measured by the number of members whose lives are sincere and helpful. It is not fine buildings, superb organization and great undertakings that we need, but the sweetening and purifying influence of those who are daily living in communion with Him they profess to serve.

In the last place the Church will endeavor to assume its full responsibility. It has a work to do that can be accomplished by no other agency. It has a commission that it must fulfil. To transfer its burden to others is not only an act of disobedience but a confession of failure.

The Vocation.

The State and the Church direct the activities of man in a general way. In the Vocation there is scope for the exercise of individuality. A great change in the last three decades has been the transfer of manufacture from the home and the small community to the large centres of industry. Along with this has come a demand for specialized talent. The man with general qualifications, has, excepting in certain important cases, given way to him who has particular knowledge and skill. This specialization in industry is but typical of what has taken place in all the activities of life. In one of the farms of Ontario thirty years ago, a suit of clothes was the result

of the effort of two or three people. To-day under ordinary conditions more than a score of individuals assist in the manufacture.

Now this change in society carries with it two grave dangers. The first, growing out of the centralization of industry, is the trust or combine with its correlated combination, the union. The second, which follows from specialization of talent, is the growth of the spirit of exclusiveness, which is fatal to national unity. These dangers are to be met by the combined efforts of education, legislation and religion.

The school can cultivate the social virtues in many ways. It can necessitate co-operative activity; it can follow the custom of visitation of industries; it can sympathetically discuss social needs at home and abroad; in short, it can develop that feeling of brotherhood which should exist in every school and every community.

As for legislation, it can always make justice easy and injustice difficult. The steps recently taken by Parliament indicate what may be done by wise regulation to prevent discord and distress.

But it is upon religion that we must chiefly depend for the solution of the problems that rise out of the conflict of man with man. Among people who possess the Christian grace of Charity there is little room for discord and recrimination.

It is not enough, however, to overcome danger. Our country must prepare within its own borders those who are to serve in every vocation. We have made a good beginning in our technical schools, but we must not remain satisfied until in our trades and professions we are in the fore front of the nations. National education in every necessary field is the price of national prosperity.

There are no people in the world so versatile, so ready for emergencies, so full of initiative as Canadians. And yet they lack that higher knowledge and refined skill which are necessary to the specialist. If you enquire in any manufacturing establishment in this city as to the nationality of the experts in the various departments, you may be surprised to find how few are of Canadian birth and education.

The School.

And now our own institution—the school. Here I hold in my hand a picture. It is of a group of twenty-two children from one of the schools of a Canadian city. In it are represented no less than nineteen nationalities. Think what it means for these children

to mingle in the same classroom and to meet together on the same playground; to sing the same songs of home and country and to learn the same lessons of honor, truth and duty; to weep and laugh together and perchance to settle minor difficulties by the good old way of personal combat; to join in the same hymns of thanksgiving and may I not say to live in the same atmosphere of purity and refinement; and above all to sink all differences of class and creed, race and language in the realization of a common brotherhood that is none the less noble because it is truly Canadian. Surely the late Colonel Parker was justified when he said that the public school was the greatest human agency that was ever devised for the unification of the diverse elements of our population.

And yet it stands for more than unification. It is the preacher and the exponent of truth, beauty and holiness. There is no greater moral agency in any community. Sometimes it is said that its chief duty is to give instruction in the ordinary branches of study, but this is a misunderstanding. The chief work is the formation of character to the end that pupils may be capable of happy and useful service in a world of men. The teaching of the branches of study, the games and occupations are but incidental—they are but helps to the realization of a great moral purpose.

Now it would be supreme folly for one to contend that the school in its aims, its methods, and its administration is perfect. Yet it may be said without fear of successful contradiction that no other institution of civilization so nearly lives up to the measure of its opportunity. If there are inefficient teachers, there are unwise parents, tedious preachers, unjust judges, self-seeking legislators, and dishonest men of business. We need not throw stones at one another. Fortunately the exception is not the rule. On the whole our institutional life is not so imperfect as some would have us believe.

The school requires to modify its procedure in order to meet the needs of the present day. It is surely a first principle of educational practice that the aims and methods of instruction and training must be determined by the needs of those to be educated. A changing civilization demands a changing form of culture. There is no anachronism more glaring than that of an ancient or mediæval system of education imposed upon a modern civilization. As well expect the frog to retain the form and habits of the tadpole as to expect our twentieth century civilization to follow the educational

customs of a by-gone age. It is not that our civilization is in all respects superior to the past. Indeed it may be freely conceded that in some particulars our forefathers cherished nobler ideals and followed more worthy practices. Their educational system may have suited them but it can not suit us. We must of necessity have regard to the divine law of harmony. We have an individuality which distinguishes us from others. Our situation, our resources, our population, our climatic conditions and our territorial extent, make for us our own peculiar problems which we must solve in our own wisdom and in the strength of our own perseverance. The past has its lessons which we must seek to perpetuate; but yet it is the past, and it is ours to place the golden age not there but in the future.

There are no doubt many ways in which our schools can be helped to greater efficiency and these will be discussed throughout the sessions of this convention. There are three or four points to which reference might be made at a public gathering of this nature.

The first refers to the aim of school effort. There is a delightful vagueness and variety in the opinions of those connected with education. It is quite possible no single phrase can set forth the whole truth, but no conception can be entertained which does not provide for the two notions of individual development and preparation for social service. One danger is from those who make scholarship synonymous with education. They think in terms of the subject of study rather than in terms of the pupil. The best preparation for life is participation in life and this should be the first law in any school. Sometimes we complain that, more especially in higher education, it is difficult to obtain popular support. One reason may be that the public fails to see the practical connection between school and college studies and the affairs of life. There is no particular virtue or culture in the study of the non-useful branches. In modern society there is room for leisure, but no room for a leisure class. The educated man is he who, possessed of pure and vigorous manhood, is trained to serve.

The second suggestion for rendering our schools more efficient refers to finance. We can never accomplish what we should until our people are willing to pay the price. Ancient Persia entrusted the education of her youth to her noblest and most experienced citizens. Some one with a bitter tongue said that we enlist the services of "beardless youths and giddy-headed lasses." Though this is extreme, we must confess that in every province in Canada a ma-

jority of the schools are operated by novices. The average length of service of the public school teacher is probably not three years. Men are not to be found who will give themselves to the calling. A particular remedy for the evil would be a grading of the grants to schools in such a way that length of service and professional qualification would have just recognition. The institution of municipal school boards to replace the present local boards would work towards the same end.

The third suggestion refers to administration. Centralization is excellent for many purposes but it has its dangers. In Canada we have perhaps failed to see clearly the result of our efforts, because we have been so lost in the blissful contemplation of our systems. The fact is that our systems have prevented that freedom which is essential to progress. The future will give more liberty to local centres in working out their ideas. Not complete uniformity but diversity in unity should be the goal of effort.

The last suggestion refers to the teaching body. We must put forth every effort to raise the standard of scholarship and professional skill of those engaged in teaching. Above all, our teachers must be possessed of pure and holy motive. The words of the day-dreamer are true to-day as in the day when they were penned.

"And O brother schoolmaster, remember evermore the exceeding dignity of your calling. It is not the holiest of all callings, but it runs near and parallel to the holiest. We have usually to deal with fresh and unpolluted natures. We are dressers in a moral and mental vineyard. We are under-shepherds of the Lord's little ones; and our business is to lead them into green pastures, and by the sides of refreshing streams. Let us into our linguistic lessons introduce cunningly and imperceptibly all kinds of amusing stories; stories of the real kings of earth that have reigned crownless and unsceptered, leaving the vain show of power to gilded toy-kings, and make-believe statesmen; of the angels that have walked the earth in the guise of holy men and holier women; of the seraph singers whose music will be echoing forever; of the cherubim of power, that with the mighty wind of conviction and enthusiasm have winnowed the air of pestilence and superstition.

Yes, friend, throw a higher poetry than this into your linguistic work; the poetry of pure and holy motive. Then in the coming days, when you are fast asleep under the green grass, they will not speak lightly of you over their fruit and wine, mimicking your

accent and retailing the dull, insipid boy-pleasantries. Enlightened with the experience of fatherhood, they will see with a clear remembrance your firmness in dealing with their moral faults, your patience in dealing with their intellectual weakness; and calling to mind the old school-room they will think, 'Ah, it was good for us to be there. For unknown to us were made therein three tabernacles; one for us, and one for our schoolmaster and one for Him that is the Friend of the children and the Master of all schoolmasters.'

Ah! believe me brother mine, where two or three children are met together, unless He who is the Spirit of gentleness be in the midst of them, then our Latin is but sounding brass and our Greek a tinkling cymbal."

The Home.

Now a word on behalf of the last and the greatest of the institutions of civilization. There may be corruption in the state and inactivity in the church, there may be incompetence in the schools and needless warfare in trade and commerce, but there is always hope for a nation in which the home life is pure and home ties unbroken. There is in civilization no greater force than a mother's love, no inspiration more ennobling than a righteous father's example. Sometimes as I see boys and girls wending their way to children's clubs, I can but wish that the energy expended in getting them to leave home was expended in making their home life more perfect. One of the most serious errors in education is for any institution to assume the duties that rightfully pertain to others. Could we have but one wish for our land it would be that everywhere and all the time there might be the fullest measure of parental responsibility.

A typical Canadian home,—what must be its characteristics? Three things at least are demanded. First, there must be a real companionship among the members of the family. Spiritual life is fostered only by spiritual communion. Where business engagements engross the time and attention of the father to such a degree that he is unknown to his children let him make ready for the desolation and despair of the later years; where social pleasures absorb the sympathies of the mother let her prepare for the harvest of bitter regrets. Every child has a right to the father's smile and the need of his wise direction; and likewise every child requires the mother's fond caress and sympathetic association. The afternoon

outing with its cheerful fun and frolic, the long evening stroll with its sweet communion, the old fireside with its game and song and story, the discussion of the day's affairs and the planning for the morrow, the evening devotion with its incentive to noble action—these are what bind heart to heart and build the soul strong in those virtues which adversity cannot weaken nor temptation completely overcome.

Secondly, there must be in each home the spirit of reverence—a fond devotion to all that is beautiful and true and good. Such reverence will place within the reach of each child good books and high models of art. It will result in the purification of tastes and feelings, and will make for sweetness and light in all the relations of life. It will work against pure commercialism and lust for gain, and exalt the spiritual element of our being which is the true measure of manhood. Above all, it will make for worthy obedience without which no life can be happy in its meditations nor rich in its service.

In the third place the home must preach and live charity. There must be cultivated that warm humanity which works against the spirit of caste and exclusiveness. There must be continual regard for the thoughts and feelings of others, even of the most humble. There must be such an obliteration of class distinctions, such mutual toleration, respect and co-operation, that a true democratic spirit will prevail. Only under such conditions will it be possible to arouse that sentiment of patriotism which will ensure united action when an enemy threatens either our happiness or our possessions.

It will not seem strange that at a gathering of this nature, reference should be made to the family and its influence. Who can understand more clearly the importance of a refined and well-regulated home than we who are meeting here to-night? Our experience has taught us that it is impossible to build up strong manhood in bodies that are weakened by hereditary taints, to foster habits of self-control in those who are accustomed to witness passion and appetite unrestrained, to cultivate calm judgment in minds that are charged with superstition and prejudice, to develop the feeling of brotherly kindness in hearts that are filled with envy, selfishness and pride. Would we have our people strong in those virtues which avail in peace and war? Let us have homes in which these virtues are exemplified. We take care that our teachers, our preachers, our tradesmen, our soldiers, our physicians, and even our lawyers are trained for their service, yet it sometimes seems

that for the holiest calling of all, no preparation is necessary. We do not know how many estrangements and heartrendings might have been avoided if parents had only known how to minister to the needs of their little ones.

Conclusion.

And now let me end where I began. I have unlimited confidence in the future of this land, because of its natural resources and because I believe our people are determined to keep inviolate and to render efficient its five great institutions. Statesmen, see to it that by no act of yours the moral sense of the people is dulled and national unity destroyed. Judges, see to it that the scales are evenly weighted, that the poor man suffers not because of his poverty, and the rich man escapes not because of his wealth. Preachers, so think and labor that you will become great moral forces in a community, and not simply ministrants at the altar and the graveside. Men of business, remember that every act is for eternity, that the only righteous law of communistic effort is each for all and all for each. Teachers, you too work on as the dispensers of sweetness and light, knowing that no nation can be in darkness which is lighted by the triple torch of truth, beauty and goodness. And above all, parents, here in Toronto as elsewhere, know that as the gift of children is to you primarily, on you must fall the responsibility of directing their lives so that they may not only be free from all taint but meet for whatever service may be rightly demanded by God or man. And to all institutions and educational agencies, I commend these glowing words of Ruskin to the mother-land:

"In some far away and yet undreamt-of-hour, I can even imagine that England may cast all thoughts of possessive wealth back to the barbaric nations among whom they first arose; and that while the sands of the Indus and adamant of Golconda may yet stiffen the housings of the charger and flash from the turban of the slave, she, as a Christian mother, may at last attain to the virtues and the treasures of a Heathen one, and be able to lead forth her sons, saying

"These are MY Jewels."

CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES AND THE STATE.

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Deputy Minister of Education for Ontario.

The state-supported universities of Canada have reached a critical stage in their development. The cost of maintenance tends to increase largely. If training in science is to be adequate, a heavy expense for the latest equipment must be borne. Higher salaries to university professors must also be considered essential, if the best teachers are to be obtained. As the number of students increases, and it surely will in a growing country like Canada, we may be sure that all the resources available for university education will be severely taxed.

To the state only can we look for enough money to carry out this great task. Private endowments have been generously bestowed in the cases of several denominational universities, and in the case of McGill University, Montreal. But we in Canada must not expect for many years to parallel the great private foundations of the United States, such as Yale, Harvard, Princeton and Cornell. In fact, the state has already, although on the whole feebly, begun to realize its obligations. Universities have been founded in the new provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, and there is to be another in British Columbia. Manitoba is embarking upon a publicly-endowed course in science, and Nova Scotia is making similar provision by means of a vote of money from the Legislature. In Ontario the Legislature in 1906 acted with such munificence toward the Provincial University that its example may well be considered by other Provinces of the Dominion, not merely as a notable instance of what can be done, but also what should be done.

My purpose is to speak frankly of the onerous nature of the obligations which the Provinces have declared their willingness to assume. It will be a misfortune if the new institutions are not properly endowed. A number of weak universities in Canada would be no credit to us. They would only tend to lower the standard of education, and provide, instead of thorough training in the

arts and sciences, a false show of efficiency that would prove a delusion and a snare. We may hope that no such disastrous step will be taken in any of our Provinces. But let us clearly understand what is before us. You cannot create a university by writing the preamble to a bill. A heavy expenditure should be contemplated by the state. It is perhaps not desirable that immense private fortunes should be regarded as the natural reservoir of university resources. If, then, the state starves its universities they will be monuments, not of a zeal for learning and research, but proofs of folly and public incapacity.

In calling upon the Legislatures to do their duty in this important matter, it is well to recognize how vital a question is the constitution of a state university. In one sense happy is that university which has no history. Traditions it may well have, and the nobler its record the more inspiration its students may derive from a contemplation of past achievements. But in the actual administration of affairs, the machinery of government is all the better for not being complicated and hampered by hard and fast local conditions, or by a respectable but highly embarassing royal charter.

When in 1905 a Royal Commission was appointed to recommend a new plan of government for the state university of Ontario, the commissioners found themselves instructed to pay respect to the federation compacts, under which several institutions had joined the university. The history of universities in Ontario, briefly, had exhibited a marked generosity toward religious foundations. In the course of time they had become crippled by the extensive demands of modern teaching while the state institution had been deprived of the undivided support and enthusiasm so necessary to its successful development. Federation, after more than sixty years of separate existence, was accomplished by compromise and concession. These definite conditions had to be allowed for. They affect, to a considerable degree, the present constitution of the University of Toronto. The newer state universities may avoid this difficulty by a study of the Ontario situation.

Now, Legislatures are political bodies. In popularly-elected assemblies there are apt to be party issues. The people who create these assemblies are actuated, more or less, by party feeling. The problem of administering a state university assumes, therefore, this general phase: the wisdom of avoiding entanglement in the medley of party politics, and the necessity of securing the support

and sympathy of enlightened public opinion. This is no light task. What is sometimes airily called divorcing a state university from politics may easily drift into separation from the vital progressive element which is the dominant force in all democratic communities. On the other hand—and this is no imaginary evil—the filling of professional chairs by political intrigue, soon weakens confidence in the institution. The regents or directing body of a state university must, therefore, administer the trust so as to win the approval of the Legislature, and also the approval of the people who elect that Legislature. If any regent or trustee feels that this task makes too heavy a demand upon frail human nature he has failed to understand the peculiar needs, and the special position of a state institution. As the trusteeship involves much personal sacrifice, and as there never can be any pecuniary reward attaching to an office which is purely honorary, we must consider carefully the measure of control exercised by the board of regents so as not to deter public-spirited men from accepting the service.

Into what form, then, should the constitution of a modern state university be cast? The system proposed for the institution in whose halls we meet may throw some light upon the question. The plan evolved was subject to the limitations which I have already mentioned—the impossibility of seriously impairing without consent those compacts with private universities into which the Legislature had entered. The composition of the commission was representative of the influences which mould the character as well as the control of higher education. The six chief members of the commission were men of marked distinction. Mr. Goldwin Smith's unrivalled experience and his fame as a man of letters, was of the utmost value. The devotion of the Chancellor, Sir William Meredith, to the University assured the deepest consideration of its welfare throughout the enquiry. Two men, eminent for their knowledge of affairs, and their appreciation of higher education, were found in Mr. Flavelle, and Mr. Walker. Two graduates of the University, of the highest academic standing and insight into college life, Canon Cody and Dr. Macdonald, contributed an indispensable element by their experience as teachers. A special investigation was made into the conditions of universities in the United States. From personal observation and enquiry, therefore, certain conclusions were drawn and embodied in the draft bill submitted for the consideration of the Government. With few modifications, none of

them essential, the measure was accepted by the Legislature, and is now the Act under which the University is administered.

The governing board of a state university should be so composed as to hold the confidence both of the Legislature and the people. This is indispensable. In Canada the state universities are the creations of the Legislatures, and not, as in some of the United States, part of the constitution. In Michigan, for example, the people of the state elect the regents of the university when they elect the Legislature. This, in theory at least, places our universities in a more dependent position as regards the political forces of the day and increases the risk of detaching from these institutions the cordial support of those who hold the power of the purse. The general policy of the state university (if the term be permissable) as well as its financial control, should be framed to meet public opinion at every point. The affairs of the University should be kept before the people. The governing body should, therefore, have a spokesman. It is not well that this duty should be relegated to a Minister of the Crown. It ought to be discharged by one whose whole interests are bound up in education, and for whom the rise and fall of parties have no direct concern. The governing board will naturally be representative of the best thought and influence of the community. It ought not to be too large, but in order that it may be thoroughly representative this quality may have to be sacrificed. In Ontario (subject to veto on certain points) all the powers of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council over the University are vested in the governors. No member of the teaching staff is eligible for membership, the President being present in virtue of his office and not possessing the right to vote. As the final disposition of all appointments rests with the governors it is clear that appointed officers could not with propriety sit on the board. In Ontario the selection of governors has been made without reference to party, and all the eighteen members appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council have established claims to their position by experience in public affairs and interest in the University. A stronger board would be hard to imagine.

Another outstanding feature in the constitution of this university is the office of president. For years there was no such office. The real academic head was the President of the state college. As long as there was but one college in the University, the absence of a University president was of secondary consequence. When the

office was created many of its proper functions had already been assigned to the vice-chancellorship, and the President found himself burdened with minor executive duties, the discharge of which occupied most of his time to the exclusion of that wide general oversight (with power to act) so necessary to the growth and development of the institution. The present Act was drawn with the aim of avoiding either of the extreme views held respecting the powers of a president. It was considered inadvisable to create a kind of dictator with unlimited authority over both academic and business affairs, while, on the other hand, the desire was to clothe the office with such real powers as might safely be entrusted to a strong man.

The President of the state-owned university of Ontario, therefore, exercises a commanding influence in all university matters and his responsibilities are great. He is chosen by the Board of Governors. He is both their officer and their adviser. No appointment to the teaching staff can be made without his recommendation. Being *ex officio* a member of all Faculties, he is in close touch, for purposes of appointment, with those best qualified to give him advice. He is the recognized head of the academic system, and presides at all meetings of the Senate wherein are represented the federated universities and colleges. His right to attend meetings of the Board of Governors places him also in contact with the financial administration of the University. To that body is entrusted exclusive control over the finances, so that the expansion of the university in respect to new faculties, departments or professorships, will naturally be determined in consultation with him. The President is also the channel of official communication between the academic and administrative bodies. In no way is he separated from any part of the system of government and its smooth working is, in large measure, dependent upon his exertions, insight and tact.

The relations of the office to such bodies as may be inherent in the special conditions of Ontario, have no application to the general question of state universities and need not, therefore, be dwelt upon here.

As all constitutions have imperfections the one here outlined may not prove in the course of years to be wholly without defect. It pre-supposes a co-operation and a common loyalty among those who have to administer it. It is not a constitution evolved from theory. It is founded upon the experience of this community

and of other communities. It aims to embody a plan by which the excellent denominational colleges which have grown up in modern times may have freedom to expand and flourish while grouped together within the domain of state-controlled education. The supremacy of the state, however, is maintained and must be maintained if the money of all the people is to be drawn upon for maintenance.

For a number of years the University Acts have contained a provision by which, with the consent of those most interested, the name of the University may be changed to the University of Ontario. I venture to express the hope that in course of time the University Senate, with whose members the change rests, may find themselves warranted in giving a Provincial designation to the state university. There is always the desire to retain old names, round which old associations cluster, but in this case it is of supreme importance that the people of the Province should feel that the institution belongs to the whole people. Under its present revenues, and with the wise guidance of its governors and president, there is every reason to think that it will assert itself potently in moulding the national ideals and the national life of Canada.

THE MODERN TREND OF THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

GEORGE H. LOCKE,

Macdonald College.

THE centre of interest and pride in the typical American community has shifted from the building that contains the county court and jail to that in which is housed the high school. This fact tells the story of the modern trend of the public high school in its sociological development and is full of significance in American education.

There is no accurate definition of a "public high school." That may seem a disadvantage to those who live under a logical system of education, where everything educational is defined by a central authority, everything examined and classified, and those who refuse

to be logical and who desire to develop their individuality are forced out into the private educational institutions or into trade.

This peculiarly American institution, for it is one of the few native products, is *public* in that no fees may be exacted of any pupil who wishes to attend the public high school within the limits of the municipality in which he lives; indeed in many states there is a law which provides that where there is no public high school in the municipality, the child who desires a high school education and is eligible intellectually for it, may attend one in an adjoining municipality and the fees levied because the pupil is an outsider shall be paid by the municipality in which he has his home.

It is a *high* school in that it contains the ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades of the public school system, a rough division being grades one to four, primary school; grades five to eight, grammar school; grades nine to twelve, high school.

The story of its development is simple. We had first the college, founded to provide a trained ministry; then the preparatory school to give the intellectual training necessary to enter college. This was known for many years as the academy, and it was not until cities began to spring up as a result of great immigration that the academy, situated generally in some secluded spot, found that there was arising a formidable rival in the high school developed in the town, supported by a public tax and known therefore as a public high school. I wish to make clear that the public high school of America is not a dependent school, not a mere link in the chain or four rungs in the educational ladder about which we used to hear in our younger days in Ontario. Some of the Ministers of Education had many dreams about that ladder, and Jacob-like, saw a great many angels ascending and descending upon it. I have often thought since that it was mainly exercise—certainly not inspiration—that they got on it.

The high school in its early days was a distinctly college preparatory school, and some few schools have not progressed beyond that rudimentary stage. Its curriculum and its methods of teaching were fashioned after that of the college, and progress was made only after the slowly moving college had deliberated long over any departure from conservative traditions. The emancipation of the high school was due to the growth of towns and cities with their own schools and school systems independent of outside control, state or federal. This local control of schools is the secret of the

progress of the United States of America in educational matters, and that nation has proved to the satisfaction of the educational world that it is possible to attain unity in other ways than through uniformity.

The growth of the nation as a great manufacturing people turned the attention to the question of the adequate and suitable preparation of the children for the kind of life into which they would have to go. Therefore, the high school, as the school of the people where boys and girls were to be fitted for active participation in life as leaders, became the prominent part of the educational system. This also was the experience in England; the board schools developed in the large manufacturing centres.

It is within the past quarter century that we have had the importance of the public high school brought out, the two great epoch-making discussions being those of the Committee of Ten some fifteen years ago, and of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements some eight years since. These show the progress, and now we are on the threshold of another great movement, which I may describe perhaps as the claims of industrial and technical education to an adequate recognition by the public high schools and colleges as covering subjects which in intellectual content and in methods of teaching should be accorded places on the program of studies.

In other words, what we have been facing during the past few years, and more than ever to-day, are the claims of the so-called practical subjects.

The claims of natural science were urged upon us and we were cajoled, threatened and even ridiculed into giving it a place. Now, nobody disputes the right of the natural sciences to a place on the curriculum of the high school, even though sometimes the practicality needs some proving, and much of the teaching of them is more deadly dull and formal than were the classics in the palmy days of their solitary reign.

We are told that this is the age of the practical and that the modern trend of education is towards the practical. What is the practical? Surely not some physics which I see taught in our high schools as formal as any Latin grammar and about as little related to everyday life. Is it some chemistry that in the desire to establish a claim for intellectual content has the work organized on the most formal, logical plan, and to establish its claim for prac-

ticality, has a collection of bottles and liquids which the youth learn to manipulate by looking for inspiration at one another, at the teacher or at the book?

Is it some systematic botany or some zoology written by the college professor who never taught boys and girls, but who knows exactly how it should be done?

And so I might proceed through the curriculum and examine the modern languages for which so many extravagant claims are being made—languages whose practicality is doubted so often by those who have experienced the thrills of having to use them. All this opens a very important discussion in regard to the place of method in education and the folly of relying simply on subject matter —but that is another story.

There is still another group of the practical subjects—a later one—which we were told would revolutionize education and bring it up to date. These concerned commercial education, the study of the subjects included in which were supposed to enable the high school graduate to understand the significance and the conduct of business life. He was supposed to be able to enter a business house and make much more rapid progress than the graduate who had had the ordinary course of training in language and mathematics. In other words, bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, commercial law, stenography and typewriting, with allied subjects, will give a boy or girl a practical education. We were advised to do this by business men, and now those men, practical hard-headed business men, who gave us that advice refuse to accept our product. This leads me to remark that rarely have I met a business man who did not know just what was the matter with the schools, but whose remedies were so crude and impracticable, that one loses confidence in their judgment in school matters and does not wonder at the tendency of the times to limit the number on a school board and restrain the scope of their labors to legislative functions not executive.

Our city high schools are finely equipped with miniature counting offices, windows for paying and receiving tellers, paper money, and teachers who have passed even the governmental examination as commercial specialists, and yet the sober business man hires the boy from the one-course, derisively termed "one-horse," high school where he had none of these things, in preference to the graduate of the commercial department of our city schools. Why?

Would that I could dwell longer on this group of subjects and search after the reasons for our failure, but my subject is so wide and my time so limited that I think the wiser plan is to suggest lines of thought rather than attempt the solution of one or two problems. My reason for this is that I am talking to teachers.

The other subjects that are urging their claims to recognition might be classed under the general group name of "Manual Training and Domestic Science." These are concerned with *doing* things, we are told, and therefore have claims greater than merely intellectual or informational subjects. The favorite way of describing their claim to recognition is to put in a plea for education of the hand as well as of the head. With the claims of this group I have great sympathy, but the place for the introduction of these subjects is not in the first year of the high school. They ought to be enlisted in the service of helping to enrich and stimulate and satisfy the starvation part of our school curriculum—that during the ages of children from eleven to thirteen or ten to twelve.

Without entering into the merits of all these additions to our curriculum, let me point out that these are quantitative and hence the curriculum is an ill-arranged affair; and that these were added as a result of pressure exerted by the colleges (or government), or equal if not so easily discernible pressure by the people who maintain the school by public taxation.

In other words, we are to-day in our high schools facing the demands not so much of the college (against whose demands we used to protest) as of the people who are asking us to make the schools practical and to teach these things that are useful.

Now I should like to make my position clear upon this important matter. I believe that the high school is the only real democratic part of our school system, and it ought to be the democratising part. It is the time when the development of character is more marked than at any other period of life. It is the time of the emergence of social and intellectual differences. It is the time of storm and stress as well as of aspiration and boundless enthusiasm. It is the growing time. Now it is the business of the high school to give the pupils such an intellectual, moral and physical environment as will enable them to develop into thinking men and women. My point is that the teacher should furnish the environment and have control of it, not of the boy and girl. The teacher does not—or at least should not—mould the character of

boys and girls. He will have enough to do to attend to his own.

The tangible part of the intellectual environment is the curriculum and the modern trend of the high school has been towards multiplying the number of so-called practical subjects so as to provide for an easy, hasty and seemingly suitable exit into life. The question that confronts us is "What equipment is necessary for success in life," and we are working towards its solution in a characteristically stupid manner. We have our classical high schools which prepare for college, all of which teach Latin and some of which provide for Greek; our manual training or technical schools, which prepare for engineering and higher technical schools and for active participation in life in some phase of mechanic arts; then there is the compromise, the ordinary or English high school which gives a good working education, but does not aim to prepare for college. Of course we have commercial high schools and other divisions which embarass the school system and handicap the children. In other words, we are supposing that at the age of fourteen a boy or his parents can decide what his future work will be, and then and there is chosen the school that will help him the more quickly on his way. We are doing what the Germans did many, many years ago, of which they have repented. They are consolidating the gymnasien, real gymnasien and realschulen. We are dividing our school into these minor unities.

The modern trend as far as the curriculum is concerned should and will be towards a *qualitative* improvement instead of the quantitative, under which we have suffered; towards such an arrangement of schools that they will not be in separate parts of the cities and thus deciding a boy's fate at the age of fourteen; towards making the first two years of the high school course general and postponing all applied subjects until the last two years of the course; towards making the first two years almost identical for all pupils in that there will be the study of his own language, of one foreign language, of history, of mathematics and such a science as physical geography, taught as an introduction to the natural sciences. It is the method of thinking consecutively, the method of developing the power of concentration, the power of discrimination between the things worth while and those of lesser worth, in other words, the ability to attack a problem with not only vigor but intelligence—these are some of the objects of the first two years of the high school

as I see it developing in connection with the modern trend of education.

The principles governing right intellectual action are best developed in such subjects as these, and this phase of a liberal education will help us to make artists whose earning power and whose contribution to social happiness and well being will greatly outstrip and exceed that of the artisans turned out of our so-called practical schools. The modern trend is towards helping a boy to find himself—the greatest discovery in the world. This can only be done in secondary education and the high school is particularly for that purpose. In these first two years he has the opportunity not only of acquiring distinctly useful knowledge, but in such phases that he is helped towards a decision as to what interests him most. The modern trend of the high school is towards the development of the individual after the manner of his inclinations, but first to show him what are the possibilities for his development. The bill of fare is *a la carte*, with everything wholesome, but offering such a variety as to give him an opportunity of cultivating a taste as well as of indulging a taste for that of which he has already some knowledge. We desire to have our boys and girls show a preference. We certainly have passed that unhappy educational period when we tried to turn our average men, made average by examinations set by average men, and examined by average men on a system of averages. Too long some of our schools were run on the principle that if a boy had only two talents and three talents were necessary to enter the service, the boy ought to neglect the development of his two and beg, borrow, steal or assimilate in some way or another another talent. In the meantime his other talents were wrapped in the proverbial napkin. I am reminded here of a fable which my aged and learned friend, Dr. Dolbear, the great physicist, told me when I was discussing this subject with him.

In antediluvian times, while the animal kingdom was being differentiated into swimmers, climbers, runners, and fliers, there was a school for the development of the animals.

The theory of the school was what the best animals sh uld be able to do one thing as well as another.

If there was in a given animal an apparent aptitude for doing one thing and an apparent inaptitude for doing other things, the time and effort should be spent upon the latter rather than on the former.

If an animal had short legs and good wings, attention should be

devoted to running, so as to even up the qualities as far as possible. So the duck was kept waddling instead of swimming. The pelican was kept wagging his short wings in the attempt to fly. The eagle was made to run, and allowed to fly only for recreation; while maturing tadpoles were unmercifully guyed for being neither one thing nor another.

All this in the name of education. Nature was not to be trusted, for individuals should be symmetrically developed and similar, for their own welfare as well as for the welfare of the community.

The animals that would not submit to such training, but persisted in developing the best gifts they had, were dishonored and humiliated in many ways. They were stigmatized as being narrow-minded and specialists, and special difficulties were placed in their way when they attempted to ignore the theory of education recognized in the school.

No one was allowed to graduate from the school unless he could climb, swim, run and fly at certain prescribed rates; so it happened that the time wasted by the duck in the attempt to run had so hindered him from swimming that his swimming-muscles had atrophied, and he was hardly able to swim at all; and in addition he had been scolded, punished, and ill-treated in many ways so as to make his life a burden. He left school humiliated, and the ornithorhynchus could beat him both running and swimming. Indeed, the latter was awarded a prize in two departments.

The eagle could make no headway in climbing to the top of a tree, and although he showed he could get there just the same, the performance was counted a demerit, since it had not been done in the prescribed way.

An abnormal eel with large pectoral fins proved he could run, swim, climb trees, and fly a little. He was made valedictorian.

The modern trend as I see it is towards such an adjustment of the curriculum of the high school as will enable our boys and girls to have an adequate introduction to the world of thought and action, and a training in the most economic and successful methods of attacking the problems presented for solution, before they are given the opportunity to make the application to the problems that will interest their individual tastes in a vocational way.

I plead then for a unity of all phases of educational endeavor in the one building or group of buildnigs, so that these boys and girls of fourteen to sixteen may live in the atmosphere of the classics, the modern languages, the natural sciences and the applied sciences, and thus imbibe so much of the educational atmosphere as thrills and allures them. This they get while seeing the sixteen to eighteen year old pupils at work on their specialties, all of which, whether

classics, manual training, commercial courses or what not, may be classed as practical subjects.

This is only one phase of a great subject, and my time does not allow me to touch on the others, though I should like to conduct a round table discussion on these great problems. I have but touched the fringes of the curriculum, and there remains still the great social aspects of secondary school education so vastly important in connection with moral education. But that is another story, as Kipling says, and perhaps some day we may have an opportunity to take it up together.

Let me say just a few words about the prospect as I see it. The public high school of this country and of the United States ought to be the place where are developed the scouts of the intellectual and moral army soon to enter upon the active field service in the great world of struggle for existence and for intellectual and moral conquest. There is the opportunity for developing individual pluck and ability without which no man can be a leader. It is comparatively easy, as Baden-Powell said, for a man in the heat of and excitement of battle where every one is striving to be first, to dash out before the rest and do some gallant deed; but it is another thing for a man to take his life in his hand to carry out some extra dangerous piece of scouting on his own account, where there is no one by to applaud, and it might be just as easy for him to go back; that is a true bit of hero's work.

Now it is exactly that kind of man who ought to be developed as a result of the education in our public high schools—and there is no other part of our educational system where there is such an opportunity to develop the qualities that will make such leaders. What qualities are these? Confidence in oneself, self-reliance—the ability to act "on your own hook," to be able to see what is the right thing to do under the circumstances without a superior officer at your elbow to give you the command. In fact, it is an emotional appreciativeness that is too often lacking in the product of our schools. Discretion—some people mean by discretion a readiness to back out of a job if you see there is any danger in it. That is not the kind of discretion—on the contrary, it is sufficient cool-headedness to see how by using pluck and self-reliance you can go into the danger and get through it all right.

Baden-Powell tells us that "One so often finds men full of pluck who would scout into the mouth of perdition if you asked them—

they would go slap-dash-bang in; but what one wants is a man who besides having the pluck to go there, has the discretion to see how he is going to get back again with the information of what it is like."

I have added this postscript, and think I have touched here just what I see is going to be the modern trend of high school education. I believe in reaching out after the possible and not simply contenting oneself with the actual.

The subjects I mentioned in the early part of my talk are the concrete material, the phases of the social life which the modern teacher in the high school who appreciates his opportunity will use to help the boys and girls to acquire the qualities which I have enumerated in the latter part of the talk. These can be learned, but they cannot be formally taught. What the teacher can do and ought to do is to develop himself into such a man and to remember that the secret of getting successful work out of trained men lies in the clearness, not in the fullness, of the instruction given.

THE OLD TRAINING AND THE NEW.

JAMES L. HUGHES,

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(Abstract.)

EVERY child has three great central tendencies as soon as it is able to walk. It loves to do things, to do things it plans itself, and to do things in co-operation with others. These are the greatest elements in human character; they are the elements that have enabled mankind to achieve a progressive civilization. These three tendencies should be the dominant elements in the life of every man at maturity. The old training robbed every man of these tendencies. The chief word in the old training was "don't," the chief word in the new training is "do." The more thoroughly a boy was trained under the old ideal, the less initiative, and force, and originality and transforming power, and achieving tendency, he had. There

is little use in preaching from the text—"Be ye doers of the word and not hearers only"—so long as men and women are trained to be don'ters. The word training is used three times in the Bible, and the derivative meaning of the word in each case is, to clear clear away difficulties. The old training has degraded "training," to make it mean some form of adult interference.

The ideal of self control under the old training was the power of keeping away from wrong. This is merely a negative ideal. The old training dealt with negative characteristics, the new training deals with the positive elements of character. The old training was engaged most of the time in stopping the child's doing, the new training aims continuously to develop the child's tendency to do. Achieving tendency and achieving power are the ends most desired by the new training. A man may possess the self control that keeps him away from every form of evil, and yet be of no more service to God and his fellow men than a grasshopper. True self-control, positive self-control, the self-control of the new training, means the control that each man should have over his physical, intellectual and spiritual powers to enable him to achieve his best work for humanity and God.

The old training regarded self-consciousness as a weakness in character. There are two kinds of self-consciousness, a self-consciousness of weakness and a self-consciousness of strength. The old training made the child conscious of weakness, the new training makes him conscious of his highest power.

The old ideal of responsibility was negative; the new ideal is positive. The old training taught our responsibility for the wrong that we do; the new training teaches our responsibility for the achievement of the good we have special power to do. There is no vitality in a sense of responsibility for the wrong that we do. A consciousness of individual power, and of responsibility for its use, is the strongest propelling moral element in character.

The old ideal of law was negative; the new ideal is positive. The old training made law restrictive, the new training makes law directive. All children naturally reverence law, and they would continue to reverence it if it was administered directively and not restrictively. The child formerly found law to be in opposition to the achievement of its plans, whereas under true training, law is the child's guiding friend, enabling him to produce greater results by his efforts. Law aids the child to greater achievement under

the new training, under the old training its chief function was to restrict his efforts. The supreme aim of the trainer of a child in regard to law, should be to develop his natural reverence for the laws of a game, into a related progressive sequence of reverence for law in the home, for law in the school, for law in the state, and beyond this, to a reverance for the laws of his own life and for the laws of God. The new training tries to develop reverence for law, and not mere submission to any individual.

The old ideal of obedience was negative; the new ideal is positive. The old training, when it demanded obedience really meant conscious subordination. Children are naturally obedient, and they would continue to be co-operatively obedient, if parents and teachers were not tyrannical. If men ordered each other to do things in the same tone and manner used by adults in ordering children to do things, what a sensation would be caused!

The old training in courtesy was negative, the new training aims to be positive. The old training said, "Children should be seen and not heard," and "Children should speak when they are spoken to." It is surely as unmannerly for a father to interrupt his child, when he is speaking, as for the child to interrupt his father. It is strange that adulthood should claim a monopoly of the right to be discourteous. Courtesy begets courtesy.

The old criticism made the child conscious of failure; the new criticism makes the child conscious of his success.

The motive of the old training was the negative motive, fear; the motive of the new training is the positive motive of genuine sympathy.

Even God himself was used negatively by the old training. Audacious adulthood said to the child, "God won't love you, if you do that"; or "God will be very angry with you, if you do that." One happy child said when told that God would not love her; "Oh, well! Moses will." A little boy, when his mother said: "God will be very angry," replied, "Oh, well! he is always getting mad about something." He was not to blame for his irreverence. All training that develops the three central tendencies of the child, to do, to do what he plans himself, and to do in co-operation with others, is good moral training. All training that restricts the development of these tendencies is immoral training.

EDUCATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL CONDITIONS.

JAMES W. ROBERTSON, C.M.G., LL.D.

Macdonald College.

SOME of the problems which we Canadians have to face and solve for ourselves are common to all self-governing nations, but others of them are peculiar to us. For instance, there are special national problems due to our youth; to our size; to the character, vastness and potential values of our undeveloped resources; and to the large amount of foreign blood pouring into our citizenship. The large inflow of foreigners who come to mix with our people adds difficulties to the ordinary problems of agriculture and of education. These people bring in not merely different methods of doing things, but different social standards and ideals. The traditions they have inherited, the conditions under which they have been brought up, their outlook on life, these are all different from ours. For our safety and their welfare it is necessary that these people should be so educated, so led and so guided by competent leaders that they will be inclined to live on the land, and not to herd in the cities, that they will be able to live on the land with profit and contentment to themselves and thus join our own people in making our civilization progressive and wholesome for the whole of us.

To help in the solution of some of the problems arising from those conditions is part of the work for which the Macdonald College has been founded and endowed by Sir William C. Macdonald, of Montreal. We are all making experiments; we are doing that to the extent to which we live in a way that is consciously rational, trying to do the best we can with ourselves and the conditions in which we find ourselves. We have much to learn; much to find out by patient, careful trials in agriculture and education and government, and withal we have reason for some satisfaction in that we are making genuine progress. We are making progress towards having the will of the people prevail in an intelligent way with integrity, with justice, with courage and good-will. Out of our

experiments in those matters there are embodied into laws and institutions and customs what we as a self-governing people think to be desirable and good, leaving these flexible and serviceable for further adjustment to new needs.

It has taken the older nations many centuries to learn how to manage their soils in order to get the most out of their climate. That the climate is one of the chief factors in profitable agriculture is sometimes forgotten. It has taken the older countries centuries to accumulate what one may call agricultural and industrial intelligence as applied to rural life. To make up for our youth in those respects, it is necessary that we should do more for the young people who are looking towards agriculture than we have been doing for them, or than has been done for them in any country so far. I think adequate educational and training work is not being done in this or any other country for the young people, looking towards a rural life and agriculture. What to do, and how to do it, are parts of the national problems. It appears to me that the solution of problems in agriculture for prosperous, beneficial rural life are inseparable from progress in education, including agricultural and industrial education. The sure way to increase the wealth and well-being of the people is by the application of intelligent labor, and the quality of intelligence in labor is one of the fruits of some form of education. Instead of standing still and grumbling at what is not, but what might be, it is worth while trying to improve the conditions and to solve the problems which confront us by doing the something which we believe to be right and best and by observing the result of our efforts. All rational progress is attained by learning the lessons from consequences.

Starve the Schools, Starve the People.

If the people will starve the schools, the schools may retaliate by letting the people starve, mentally, then morally, and in a measure materially also. Once I saw a field, of which the owner, a wise man, said: "I let the crop take care of itself; and in three years there were only two small heads of wheat among the weeds." Sir John B. Lawes further expressed to me at the same time the opinion that if the plants which furnish human food should be all left without human care and culture for fourteen years, there would be hardly any of the cultivated plants fit for food. For even the bare main-

tenance of human life there is need for practical education; and for the maintenance of all our institutions and means of culture, there is need for practical education.

What better use can be made of money than to keep up good schools? Taxation among a free people is everybody chipping in to do what no one could do alone, but which all can do together with great benefit to each. Such taxation increases the value of property; and more than that, it enlarges the capacity of the people to manage and to enjoy life. It is just as essential in the long run that the people should support the schools willingly as that their children should attend them.

Salaries Must Go Up.

Salaries for teachers will have to go up or the people will go down. I do not see any escape from that conclusion. It is well that there is none, because there is no better investment for wealth or public taxes than to pay somebody for doing the best work for the nation's most precious assets, its children and its schools. Many capable men are not attracted to teach because the profession has so few prizes. The bank has a good many managers; a youth may hope to become one. In commerce he may win a prize, but the prizes for the ordinary school teacher are few, and are not large. There are not many positions in the whole educational sphere where the salary more than yields a bare living. It would be a good thing to pay some of your best men, good, attractive, alluring salaries, to induce young men to go into this profession.

The Means of All Good.

"The love of money is the root of all evil," and the love of children is the means of all good. Put these two in opposition and see which prevails with you, which pulls you its way, when settling the amounts to be spent on education. Throughout the history of the past, those people have striven best for the improvement of rural conditions, who have had the greatest love of children. By making the most of this life in that way you will be making the most for the next life also, for "of such is the Kingdom of Heaven." The verities of what any people have done or been is summed up in the children and their opportunities. The supreme test of human

progress is the quality of child-life and its opportunities for wholesome development, happiness and satisfactions. That is why I speak earnestly on the importance of improving the conditions of rural life, that the children may be intelligent, capable, industrious, and full of good wills.

Burial Before Death.

In not a few instances unworthy motives impel parents to seek education as such for their children. Perhaps one of the most powerful of these is that education may deliver the boy from the need of working hard—give him a chance to escape hard labor. Any parent of any child who seeks education for that reason finds it a disappointment, a delusion and a snare—both as means and an end.

To seek to escape one's share of toil in life is really to waste one's powers, to wrap one's talents in the napkins or cerements of the tomb. It is burial before death. One purpose of education should be to develop the powers and train them into fitness for application to real, exhausting, telling hard work. One of the mischievious notions abroad is that the necessity for labor somehow was the consequence of man's fall; that as a punishment Adam was doomed to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow. No greater misfortune could befall a people than a general belief that labor is to be shunned, to be evaded, or to be looked down upon as a disgrace. I mean manual labor quite as much as intellectual toil. Conditions of rural life should be made so attractive that the boys will be impelled to work for sheer love of doing things, for the exhilaration and delight that come through the labor that increases "mastery for service."

Others seek education in the hope of finding a more genteel occupation than that of their fathers—something more genteel than farming. That habit of thought or motive regarding education should be corrected. The school should teach the children that there is no more satisfying and honorable calling than agriculture. But I would not stunt their ambition or benumb their powers by keeping them from knowing. Rather would I nourish them worthily by letting them learn that the real satisfying joys of life come from doing work with the hands and the mind and the spirit, indeed with the whole nature for the uplifting of the people of the locality.

To Labor is to Pray.

The worthy motives for seeking education are that the children might thereby be fitted for making the most of life itself and of the conditions of their own homes and locality. Education is needed by each individual as such to increase his capacity for happiness, and to enlarge the means of securing that; also to develop his power of service as a citizen, as one of the community, for "no man liveth unto himself." Education is also the birthright of every boy and girl as units in the eternal procession of the race out of the depths and the degradations of animalism, up to the best that men and women can be. And let us not forget that labor, intelligent, kindly, co-operative labor is a great means towards that goal. Every man that hath this hope in him purifieth himself, remembering that to labor is to pray.

Sympathetic Teachers.

We need teachers who are in sympathy with rural life. How often I have seen teachers so intent upon having children pass examinations on formal subjects that they did not know anything of the locality or of the people in it. The teacher needs to be in sympathy with the people and to have a knowledge of their conditions.

Teachers need those qualifications for effective leadership, leadership in the control of the school's campaign against ignorance and vice and selfishness and disease, and all ill-wills, howsoever begotten. They require scholarship in the subjects and questions vital to the people of the locality. They should be close to them in sympathy and in the character of their intelligence, although in advance as to the extent and range of it. Perhaps you remember how one of my American friends characterized a would-be leader who was out of sympathy with his longed-for but not labored-for followers. "He was so high up in his own esteem that he had an enthusiastic following of only his own atmosphere." There is need for teachers being close to the people, that they may lead the people up and on through the children, and otherwise also. The kind of teachers we require are those who are born into sympathy with the people's needs and trained into ability to meet them.

Nobility of Teaching.

What hinders those who might be teachers from going into this profession, peerless in its opportunities for good? Want of public appreciation of the profession. A Southern woman speaking of her family, when asked how many children she had, said: "I had three, but only one is living, another is dead, and the third is teaching school." Happily there is a splendid recovery from that attitude regarding the school teacher, which is seldom so bluntly expressed. The attitude of the taxpayers of Canada towards teachers makes one wonder whether they count the service really vital to the well-being of the nation.

The want of public appreciation of the nobility of the occupation of the woman or man who teaches school—that is a definite hindrance to the improvement of the schools, and to the choice of teaching as a profession when a young woman or man is considering what they will do.

The next drawback, which really comes from the low appreciation of the value of the teacher's work, is the small remuneration paid to them. The labor and self-denial of teaching, if applied to other occupations, would receive in them much larger compensation in money than when put into "keeping school." People say, "Oh, well, schools cost a great deal, even with the small salaries paid to teachers now." What of that? In so far as I save the seed to that extent do I make it impossible to reap the harvest. Instruction and training in youth are the means of bringing abundant harvests of national wealth as well as of some better fruits.

Not Dangerous.

I know people have said, "Don't teach the people, because a little knowledge is a dangerous thing." That is one of the fallacies which runs well because it sounds well. A little knowledge is not a dangerous thing; otherwise it would be better to remain ignorant and be in bliss. Think of the great Newton who knew he did not know much. He said of himself that he was only as a child playing on the beach and getting a pebble of truth here and there. Even the scholarly Lord Acton, the authority on history, could not know much compared with all that is knowable. A little stupidity and a little or a great deal of selfishness are very dangerous when joined

to a little or a large amout of knowledge. I do not blame the school for not endeavoring to impart enough knowledge of some sort. Its mistake is that the effort to impart knowledge has been so great that little time or place or power has been left to train into ability for the affairs of common every-day life, and into good behavior, and all manner of neighborhood good-wills and co-operations.

Training into Ability.

The school should not be so much a place for merely imparting information about the past and the distant, as a place for training the child into ability to make the best of local conditions and towards the development of good, unselfish character. I say nothing against the study of Greek or Greek History or Greek civilization for culture, but if these attempt to usurp the place of the study of conditions of one's own country and of subjects which could do more for its development and the uplift of its people, then "Let the dead bury its dead." Our duty and privilege are to learn all we can from the past, and to uphold education suited for making life useful and thereby joyous and happy for the present. We need more than an occasional look at the past for guidance, but the man who keeps his face to the past stumbles and leads others astray.

The school is to be a place where there will be more time for training and less need for telling. Those who like Latin so well, and it is a good subject for training the language faculties into exact, precise, and sometimes beautiful expression, should also remember its limitations. The perennial disputes regarding its pronunciation, which is so different in different schools, might be ended by substituting standardized phonographs for the living teachers. They would then have the further solace of a coveted uniformity which would be truly mechanical.

The school to be vital must be a place where children are trained into knowledge and ability to manage rural conditions and life here and now, and not merely to know of the conditions and ideals of a long dead past. Let us learn to think and live and labor for the future of our children who are here now. The school garden is a means of training, inspiring and nourishing the power of children into ability. That is why I commend the benefits of school gardens. They are becoming a means of education and will very soon prevail in the schools of all Canada.

Course of Study.

The school is only one of the institutions and agencies for formal education. It should not confine itself to the use of books for developing intelligence, training into ability, and bringing out unselfishness. The book is a capital agent with its words as the symbols of the ideas. It is suited particularly for those who are reaching maturity and are able to drink in ideas from the abstract and profit by them for after life. For the child, one of the best means is to guide him in doing things with his hands on tangible things, during part of the time.

I count myself among those who think that the school of the future will have a course of study providing for the development of the mind, body and spirit symmetrically, and therefore suited to the ages and powers of the children. Probably one-quarter of the time will be devoted to doing things with the hands with tangible things, including all forms of manual training, physical exercise, games, and physical culture; one-quarter to languages, particularly one's mother tongue, history, literature, songs and pictures; another quarter to arithmetic and mathematics, the twin science of numbers and quantity; and the remainder of the time to sciences which embrace the study of natural surroundings, of animals, plants, and minerals, of the weather, of the earth as a whole, and of physical forces and phenomena. To be effective, the whole course must necessarily be administered in such a way as to develop a fine sense of proportion and a keen sense of responsibility. That, in general, would be the frame work of courses of work and study for schools leading towards the improvement of conditions for rural and city life.

Manual training and household science and school gardens were not put in the school courses to satisfy women's councils or clubs, but to improve the schools fundamentally for the children and to provide for the preparation of teachers with new qualifications. The whole child goes to school—body, mind, and spirit—and the training of hand, and heart should go on harmoniously. We use these terms for convenience of explanation, but the child is one and indivisible. The training of these are means to develop his whole nature into ability, intelligence, and good-will for co-operation with his fellows. Those are vital to happiness, to satisfactions in life. They make for homes becoming more loveable, wholesome

places to dwell in. They form tastes and standards which tend towards conserving and developing the love of labor, the love of ideas, the love of truth, and the love of one's fellows.

The kind of a school I would like to see for rural life is one that spells ability, intelligence, and good will: For the body—power and skill; for the mind—grasp of truth and insight; and for the spirit—"Peace on earth, good will to men."

The Simple Life.

At the Macdonald College at St. Anne's last winter, there were 250 hens living in colony houses, one board thick, with the thermometer occasionally seventeen degrees below zero inside. When the water was frozen a man would shovel in snow or the hens would run out and pick it. They were fed on dry grain once a day, and were not given any hot mashes. They had to scratch for a living. About the middle of November they began laying eggs and laid over 10,000 eggs by the end of March. One of our neghbors, a wealthy man, heats his hen-houses with fuel. He had about 200 hens, which were fed with bran, hot mashes, flavored and perhaps perfumed. Nevertheless, those hens did not lay enough to supply his town house, which used seven dozens a week. His man came to our place regularly and bought from us the seven dozens of eggs, for which we charged him sixty cents per dozen. Our hens were educated hens, living by labor, under naturally rigorous conditions.

This illustration shows that unless the creature labors under simple conditions of life, with plenty of fresh air and wholesome food, it is not as productive as it might otherwise be. In our schools we must conserve the love of labor and ability to labor with the hands for the sake of the vitality of the race. We must conserve a love of truth. The less time we consume in merely imparting information in the schools about the dead past, the more time we shall have for training into ability for the application of intelligent labor for the improvement of the conditions of the present. There is a living past as well as a dead past. We must see that we bring into our schools the vital parts and leave the husks and mummies and fossils where they belong.

Results of Organised Effort.

When I began to advocate for the people of Ontario, education as a means of improving the rural conditions for dairying, the

exports of dairy products from all Canada amounted to $7,500,000. Then an organized effort was made to advance dairy education by doing things. As a result there were better labor, more knowledge, and more co-operation. Last year the exports amounted to $30,000,000. The land became richer, more beautiful, less weedy, and more productive, and the people became more capable and co-operative.

In this Province Manual Training as a branch of the education in the public schools was introduced by means of money provided by Sir William C. Macdonald. It trains the hand and eye to accuracy. Last year 20,000 children in Canada were taking manual training as a result of the Macdonald Movement. Out of this grew the Macdonald Seed Grain Competition. First $100 was given for prizes, then Sir William Macdonald gave $10,000.

The $10,000 went into the pockets of the children on Canadian farms, but the spirit that grew out of that effort goes on forever. A young man named George H. Clark was employed to manage the seed grain competition in order to encourage the selections of the largest heads of wheat and oats, and thus secure the largest plump grains for seed. This movement led to the establishment of the Seed Division of the Department of Agriculture, and the appointment of Mr. Clark as the Seed Commissioner of Canada, and the voting of $50,000 a year to carry on the work of seed improvement and securing of reasonably clean grass seed and clover seeds. It has been estimated that the value of the crops in 1906, of those who were directly affected by the seed grain prizes, was increased $500,000 in consequence. The obtaining of such a profit on the original investment of $10,000 is certainly high finance.

In the Northwest, with all its chances to grow grain, there was such carelessness in seed selection that seven years ago there were only about 350 acres of pure Red Fife wheat in the whole of that vast territory. In 1906 there were 34,000 acres of reasonably pure Red Fife, and the time may not be far distant when the whole land may be seeded down with pure seed.

The Jennie Robertson Scholarships.

I refer for a moment to the school for teachers at the new Macdonald College. We are about to arrange for a special class of forty teachers who have taught at least two years, and who will undertake to teach at least one year on their return from the Mac-

donald College to the Province from which they come. As already announced they will receive free tuition. In addition to the cost of their room and board for one session of eight or nine months, a sum for travelling expenses will be provided by the Jennie Robertson Scholarships offered by my wife. For a time forty teachers from Canada will each year receive the benefits of these scholarships.

Money Well Invested.

Let your ambition be not to be merely leaders in dairying and agriculture, but leaders in education. Show your magnificent statesmanship, even if you have to pay salaries to beat British Columbia and Manitoba, and improvement of rural conditions will surely follow.

These improvements for education will cost money. If five dollars per farm will do a little and not succeed, how much will you put in if you have the money?

If I were a general in charge of an army and it came to costing 10,000 men and winning, as against 1,000 and losing, I would throw the 10,000 in and go with them.

Ignorances, inabilities and want of good-wills all come from lack of education or from poor schools. These are the most costly of all the fixed charges upon property and human life.

The Macdonald College at Ste. Anne de Bellevue is a further expression of the conviction that money wisely invested to promote suitable education is well spent for the children and the future of Canada. The college and its equipment have cost a large amount ($2,000,000 will not cover it); and it will cost a great deal to maintain. Sir William has provided an endowment of more than $2,000,000. It will be a permanent headquarters for this better education, for the improvement of rural conditions and for the building up of a country by advancing and developing the intelligence, ability, and good-wills of its youth. It will doubtless cost the lives of many men and women who will joyously wear themselves out in its service. It will give them fine opportunities for losing their lives as seed grain is lost into the tilled fields in spring. "He that loseth his life shall save it." And if more money were available, when more tillage has been done, I would have no more hesitation in putting it and more men and more women into Macdonald College than I would have in putting in seed on well-tilled land for the sake of harvest.

THE CALL OF THE NATION.

J. A. MACDONALD.

The Globe, Toronto.

THE signs are multiplying that indicate the development in Canada of the consciousness of a nation. The growing idea of Canadian nationhood finds expression in a variety of ways. You hear it in Parliament. You meet with it in the press. It breaks in upon your somnolent meditations in church, and even where merchants most do congregate the spark of national aspiration disturbs the clod of commercialism and of individual or organized selfishness. In almost any representative gathering of Canadians, where men take themselves and their interests seriously, the national note is struck.

It is no wonder then, that in a convention of educationists, representing all the Provinces of the Dominion the dominant theme should be the conditions, the claims and the calls of Canada. The keynote was struck last night. It vibrated through the earnest words of welcome from the Minister of Education and the President of the University. It was echoed in the responses from the Provincial representatives. It found full-toned expression in the Presidential address on "The Nation's Needs." At every turn it faces us, challenging attention, giving point to your programme and purpose to your deliberations. The fact of Canadian nationhood is the organizing idea of this convention. It is the background of your best thinking. It is the master light of your best seeing. You may fail to solve some of your vexed problems, you may not do all you undertake for yourselves or for the profession to which you belong, but if you do something worth while for Canada, if you strike the national note more ringingly, if you make the tone of life more vibrant and its higher ideals more compelling, this convention of the Dominion Educational Association will not have been in vain.

It was your great good fortune to have your minds impressed at the very opening of this convention with a sense of the nation's

needs. Out of that sense of need I would venture to organize and to make direct and impressive the Call of the Nation. High over all other voices, more penetrating than the siren wooings of ambition and preferment, insistent as the stern voice of duty, there comes to you out of the very heart of the Canadian nation a call that must be heeded, an appeal that will not be put by.

You men and women from the schools of the country and the class-rooms of the college and university, it is to you this call comes. The great vulgar crowd is dull of hearing and slow of heart; the man in the street is lost in the noises and clamor of the Babel at which he toils; the man of the world has wasted the substance of life in his riotous living; the political cynic sits hopelessly in the ashes of what were once the fires of his soul; and the vision splendid of the millionaire's life, has faded into the light of common day. But you men and women upon whose altars the fires are kept burning, you who hold the things of the mind to be the things supreme, it is to you the nation turns at this crisis time of nation-making; and through the increasing tumult and stress of life is heard the Call of the Nation, and the burden of that message you who are called must speak again and interpret and make plain to the crowd. For, believe me, that high duty of interpreting the crowd to itself is the function of the teacher in the life of the democratic nation.

I said the "democratic nation." That word "democratic" suggests the dignity and the obligation of your calling. The fact of the democracy gives authority and power to the work of the teacher in the life of the Canadian nation. It is because Canada is a democracy that, whatever may be done with the problems of tariff and trade and transportation, the problem of education must not be obscured or misconceived or lightly solved. And it is because the needs of the democracy cut deep to the very heart of the nation that, even though a State Church may be outgrown and State-owned utilities not yet approved, there must be a public school, with its ever-broadening opportunities of education, not only free, but compulsory for rich and poor alike. A democracy that is uneducated is a democracy that is doomed.

But what do we mean by democracy? That overworked and much abused word may be made a fetish by inconsiderate radicals, a term of reproach by the remnant of old-time aristocracy or oligarchy, a cloak for their chicanery by political knaves. But if it is misunderstood or misapplied or its significance minimized

by you, and those who, like you, lead in the education of the people, then not only are the enemies of democracy given their opportunity, but more serious still, the safeguards of democracy are thrown down and its powers of recuperation destroyed.

Your students have not mastered the full meaning of democracy when they have learned the etymology of the word or traced the history of the movement. There is in it something more than the fact of political emancipation for the masses. When you have told how it came that the power which once belonged to the monarch passed over to the people, or when you have explained how the privileges of the political oligarchy that ruled England in the days before the Reform Bill gave way to the rights of the man in the street, or when you have made clear and distinct the idea that in Canada the power which energizes Parliament and works through the machinery Parliament may set up is not that which comes downward from the Crown, but that which comes upward from the Crowd—when you have done all this you have not compassed the whole meaning of democracy or discharged to the full the obligations resting upon the teachers of the people.

Democracy is more than privileges, rights, opportunities. It is duty, obligation, responsibility. The duty of studying the facts and conditions of life in order to discover and make effective the laws of life, which under the monarchy rested upon the King, and under the aristocracy upon the privileged classes, is by the democracy made to be the absolute and inescapable responsibility of the whole body of the people. It is not the King alone, it is not the Lords alone, it is not the Commons alone, it is the people who, under the democracy, must go into the great laboratory of life and study the mysteries, not of chemistry, not of physics—that were a simple thing—but of man and of society; and it is the people, each man in his own way and with his own apparatus, who must discover and apply the laws of life in accordance with which men must live, and must live together, in the democratic social fabric. That is the meaning of democracy. That is its high privilege, its splendid opportunity, its crisis-making obligation.

And, in view of the democracy, what are the dangers most threatening to the Canadian nation? I mention four, which, in view of your President's address, need only be mentioned to have their importance understood in this convention:

(1) First of all, obvious on the very surface of the Canadian

situation, is the very richness and range and variety of our material resources and opportunities. The area of a half-continent, and the abounding wealth it represents are factors in the problem of making a great and enduring nation, but they do not constitute greatness or ensure stability. The danger is that, under the glamor and pressure of the things of life, we shall miss the worth of life, and in the end lose the soul of life by which alone either men or nations live.

(2) Because of the materialistic drift of life there has come a threatened decay of our ideals. Whatever may be true of life under other forms of government, the decline of idealism in the democracy is the death-knell of true greatness in the nation. We may exhibit to the world all the signs of external prosperity, but if the shining of true and lofty ideals is dimmed, or dies out of the hearts of our people; if the word "Canada" is not made to stand for high sentiment and unstained honor; if the standards we set up are within easy reach, and if our national heroes have not only feet of clay but hearts of dust, all the forces in democracy will work together for the inevitable shame and decay of the nation.

(3) A third danger is that, in the name of democracy itself, there may come a warring of shoddy and selfish oligarchies, each contending for its own interests, each seeking special class privileges for itself, and all together constituting a tyranny as real and as intolerable as anything history can show. On the one hand, the full rights of citizenship under the democracy are endangered by a small but growing aristocracy, not of intellect or of service, but of commercial and industrial privilege, which by reason of unjust class legislation is enabled to control the opportunities of wealth, and to command more than its share of the good things of life. And, on the other hand, from the other extreme, danger is threatened by reason of a false notion of equality which, calling itself socialism, would interfere with the rights of the individual to the enjoyment of what he produces or earns, and would reduce the inequalities inseparable from liberty and excellence to the common place dead-level which is neither just nor free. Against the dangers of unjust but legalized monopoly on the one hand, and of irresponsible and communistic socialism on the other, all those who truly care for the honor and worth of citizenship in the democracy of Canada, must take an intelligent, a deliberate, and an unwavering stand.

(4) More dangerous perhaps than any other evil, because

more insiduous, is the tainted atmosphere of life and the false attitude to the problems of life which mark considerable sections of society. It is the taint of cynicism that touches the life sometimes of educated men. It is the attitude of indifference to public affairs on the part of men who ought to be leaders of the people. Worse than dishonesty in trade, worse than corruption in politics, worse, because more hopeless of cure, is that temper of mind which takes dishonesty for granted and which assumes a selfish motive or a sinister purpose in all service, no matter how magnanimous or seemingly altruistic. The misfortune is that too often it is the men of college education who play the role of cynic, and while the man from the ward may vote early and may try to vote often, the man from the university may not take the trouble to vote at all, and may even boast of his neglect and contempt for the first duty of a free citizen. There was a time when the undergraduates were taught to translate "*Cui bono*" as "To whom is this for a good." The politically wise and cynically superior college man to-day, looking over proposals made for the betterment of civic conditions or for the promotion of the public good, elevates his eyebrows and curls his lip and remarks, "Whose graft is this?"

In the light of Canada's needs, and in view of what democracy means for Canada, what has this nation the right to expect from its institutions of education?

(1) Canada has the right to expect from those who put their hands to the task of educating the coming citizens of this Dominion that they shall clearly understand and never forget that their work, whether in the pioneer school on the back concession or in the great university, has to do very directly and very vitally with the deepest, the most decisive, the most permanent interests of the nation. You cannot do your duty to the nation, you can do no part of that duty as it should be done, if your horizon is no wider than either your own or your pupils' personal affairs. The one unanswerable argument for public support of public education is, not the advantage of education to the individual as a money-earner or a pleasure-seeker, but the necessity to the state that its citizens be educated, disciplined in character, informed in mind, trained in useful service. The social obligation, the responsibility of training for citizenship, rests upon the school, and the burden of that obligation is made the heavier because of the nature and the needs of the democracy.

(2) The nation has the right to expect from the teachers of the people an adaptation of the instruments and the contents of education to the needs and purposes of the democracy. That means something more than technical training; something even more than the storing of the mind with facts useful to the individual in the making of a living. It means the trained in elligence and the poise of character necessary for the citizen in the discharge of his duty as a citizen of the democratic nation.

(3) The nation has the right to expect its institutions of education to distinguish between things that differ, and to put first things first, and that, too, with reference to the larger problems as well as the lesser. In the democracy the school, the college, the university, is charged to make clear the fact of moral distinctions among personal actions, to make plain the difference between doing the morally right and doing the morally wrong, and to make obligatory under all conditions, the doing of that which is seen to be the right and the not doing of that which is seen to be the wrong. And these distinctions, these differences, these obligations must be made to apply all round the circle of life—in business, in society, in politics, and for corporations and communities and nations of men, as well as for private individuals.

(4) And the nation has the right to expect from its teachers and its leaders in education, not only precept, but example in all this teaching of social rights and national privileges. You cannot awaken in your pupils or students either a love for country or a sense of duty to the State by singing patriotic songs or flying the country's flag, if you yourself really care nothing about the public life and public policy of your city or country or nation. You may speak sadly or sneeringly of corruption in politics, but your words will be empty as the east wind unless you give something of your own time and energy and thought to making politics clean. Your nationalism, be it never so true, will vanish into thin air unless it is incarnated in your life and character and made the atmosphere in which you do all your work. You may not go into politics, you may not stand on any political platform. That matters little. But it does matter that at this time in the history of your country, with the doors all open for currents of anti-Canadian thought and ideal to enter, and with undercurrents of sectionalism and mammonism running strong in our life—it does matter that you and all others who have to do with the creating and shaping of character in the schools of the nation,

should feel in every fibre of your being the thrill of opportunity and of peril awakened by the present crisis in Canada's progress along the lines of nationhood.

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE, FROM A NATIONAL POINT OF VIEW, OF THE CANADIAN ARCHIVES.

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(Summary)

PROFESSOR SHORTT said that one of the pressing needs of the day is the bringing of the masses of new people entering our country into touch with our national ideals and aspirations. Unless this is to be done in a superficial way, such as by the displaying of flags and the singing of patriotic songs, we shall have to make them acquainted with the social, political, and economic development of our country. To do this it is necessary that our public men and our teachers shall have a comprehensive knowledge of our past, and be in sympathy with our ideals. He spoke of the necessity for a storehouse in which to gather and preserve the materials out of which the history of the country is constructed. The gathering of these materials, is a slow process but a most necessary one, if we are to understand and judge the past intelligently and so build up a rational patriotism.

"The man who is not interested in what preceded him in this world," declared Prof. Shortt, "will have little interest in what will follow him; he who is not interested in his ancestry will care little about his posterity, and will have no conception of what is of permanent value. The man who does not court the muse of history is fit for stratagems and spoils, or, to put it in modern phrase, is the man who works a political pull and graft."

SCHOLARSHIP AND SERVICE AS UNIVERSITY IDEALS.

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There is a maxim of practical philosophy, handed down to us from the sages of ancient Greece, and more particularly emphasized by Aristotle, the wide applicability and essential soundness of which, impress me more and more deeply as time goes on. That maxim has been expressed in various ways, sometimes with exceeding brevity, sometimes with greater circumlocution; but the idea is this, that in all things we should avoid every one-sided extreme, whether in the way of excess, or in the way of defect, and should seek the golden mean; for in the golden mean all the highest and best things are found to consist.

Everyone who is at all acquainted with the spirit of the ancient Greeks, recognizes in this maxim an expression of their exquisite æsthetic sense; and it is not difficult to see how, explicitly or implicitly, they constantly made their own applications of it, in all the realms of thought and feeling and action. It was really their demand for symmetry and proportion in all things, moral as well as physical.

The student of Aristotle is also aware that much fault has been found, at one time or another, and from one standpoint or another, with this principle of the mean, as a postulate of the ethical life. It is said to be merely quantitative and mechanical in its nature, and hence not really a principle of the ethical life at all. The charge is also made, that, while claiming to be a maxim of practical philosophy, it is the most unpractical of all maxims, inasmuch as it provides us with no instructions as to how we are to discover this golden mean, in any given concrete case, calling for action. To tell us to avoid all vicious extremes, and observe carefully the golden mean, is about as definite and practical as telling us to do right and avoid wrong; and just about as serviceable, when we come really to the parting of the ways. Everybody knows he ought to

do right; the difficulty is to know what is the right thing to do in a given set of circumstances.

Nevertheless, though some wise people have made this criticism of the Greek principle, I cannot persuade myself that it reveals any very vital defect in the principle itself. If you ask Aristotle how we are to determine the location of this happy middle way, his reply is that the mean is determined by reason, by intelligence, or, as the wise man would determine it. And is not this, after all, the very essence of the whole matter? Principles of practical philosophy, like methods in education, do not apply themselves, but must be applied to the concrete circumstances as they arise. And their proper application requires the wise man, *i.e.*, the man of good common sense and practical sagacity. They presuppose a certain measure of sane judgment, and in default of that, they remain forever inert and fruitless.

I have introduced this familiar Greek maxim to your attention, because I believe there are few realms of thought and practice wherein its counsels are more needed than the realm of pedagogy; and few persons who need more frequently to be reminded of it than educationists. Unless I am a very inaccurate observer, the besetting temptation of educationists is that of mistaking the part for the whole; of becoming so enamoured of some special phase of education, or of some particular pedagogical principle, or of some device in method, that it seems to them to contain the quintessence of all pedagogical wisdom; and its application in the schoolroom to be the panacea for all the ills to which our educational work is liable. There is a strong tendency among teachers, I say, to lay exaggerated and one-sided emphasis upon some single principle or device, as though it were the sum and substance of all pedagogical wisdom; like the patent medicine, which, if one may believe the advertisements, possesses a versatility of healing virtue that is nothing short of marvellous.

As I read the history of educational theory, and of educational institutions, and especially as I listen to the voices that are still speaking, I am somewhat bewildered by the cries of "Lo here," and "Lo there"; I am somewhat puzzled by the manner in which our educational thinking swings from one extreme to another, the heresy of one generation becoming the accepted creed of the next.

For example, with regard to the training of the memory, and its true place in education. There was a time when memory seemed

the only power of the mind worth cultivating, and rote memorizing the whole process of education. As the extreme recoil from this position, there are those at the present time who are prepared to say that no child should ever be required to commit anything to memory until he thoroughly understands it; a position which is unsound in theory, and incapable of being carried out in practice.

Again, in the matter of moral discipline; centuries ago we had the one extreme; at the present moment we are living in the midst of the other. Then the rod was in constant use; and the school room resounded from morning till night with the cries of the victims; now, we have found out how to get along, for the most part, without resort to corporal chastisement; and this is one of the greatest achievements of modern pedagogy. But there are those who go further, and say, that corporal chastisement is essentially and wholly evil, and that it should once for all be absolutely abolished; a position which, in my judgment, is extreme, and therefore vicious.

Again, with regard to the relation between instruction and training in the process of intellectual education; between information and formation. There have been teachers who never seem to have suspected that their work included anything else than the impartation of knowledge. They thought of the pupil as a sort of receptacle, to be filled with learning. To get this receptacle filled was the great aim. Then there came a time when the idea of drawing out competed successfully with the idea of pouring in, as the true method of education. But the process of drawing out was erroneously conceived, and in many cases it meant nothing more than the simple converse of the former process. The pupil's mind came to be regarded, not as an empty receptacle, waiting to be filled, but as a full receptacle, waiting to be emptied. The child's soul is a great storehouse, full of ideas, if we can only find a way of getting those ideas out. And of course it seemed to many that the only way of getting those ideas out was by the question method; the Socratic dialectic, to give it its scientific name. Inspired by the vision of old Socrates, drawing his rectangular figures in the sand, and eliciting from an illiterate slave the proof of a geometrical proposition, many a teacher has hastily reversed his method, and applied himself, with much enthusiasm, but small discernment, to the work of drawing out ideas, instead of pouring them in. Under this new method the teacher is armed no longer with a funnel, but with a suction pump; and the "Socratic method" becomes the new shibboleth of pedagogy.

An eminent teacher, now deceased, wrote a book, in which he maintained among other things, the thesis that "telling is not teaching." On the contrary I maintain that telling is sometimes teaching; that the question whether you are teaching or not does not depend solely on the question whether you are telling or asking; and I know few things more pathetic than the patience and persistence with which some teachers, under the idea that teaching is eliciting, and with a mistaken notion of the real nature of the Socratic method, will waste hours of time and great stores of energy, in the fruitless endeavor to elicit what is not there to be elicited.

Many other examples might be given, of the tendency to run to extremes in our educational thinking. The battle between the humanities and the sciences of nature, for the chief seat in the educational synagogue, furnishes a good illustration; so also does the modern emphasis upon the doctrine of interest. No doubt one of the greatest discoveries of modern pedagogy is the re-discovery of interest, and its fundamental position in all educational work; but in the joy of this discovery many have overlooked the important fact that education should not only use the interests of the pupil, but should train him in the ability to apply himself to that which is not interesting, provided it be worthy of that applicat on.

With the view of calling attention to what I regard as the highest meaning of the Aristotelian maxim, and at the same time of applying it to the topic we have in hand, let me introduce one more example. Looking over the whole history of education, and considering especially the principal views that have been held with regard to the ultimate purpose of education, one may venture the following generalization,—that while ancient, Oriental education looked to the past, mediæval education looked to the future, and modern education looks to the present. Among the Oriental peoples of the ancient time, the great purpose in education was to conserve and perpetuate a hallowed past, in which, it was believed, every wise word had once for all been spoken, and every prudent thing once for all accomplished. To worship one's ancestors, to reverence what had been handed down, to commit it to memory, and to hand it on unchanged to succeeding generations, was conceived as the business of life and the purpose of education.

In the middle ages the aim of education was to prepare the soul for the eternal future. The life that now is counted for nothing except as a vestibule, or a sort of preparatory school, for the life

that is to come; and all learning, therefore, that had no obvious and direct bearing on this, was regarded as of little worth, or even as a sinful waste of time. The study of nature was neglected, and social claims and obligations were eclipsed by the supreme interests of the individual soul, as it prepared itself for an eternity of bliss.

In the modern period the attention of the majority is fixed upon the living present. We are apt to scout the past as ignorant and antiquated, and to give to the eternal future only a fragment of our thoughts. With the discoveries and inventions of modern days, making us better acquainted with nature, and multiplying a thousand-fold the motives, as well as the opportunities, for the accumulation of material possessions, and the enjoyment of present pleasures, the life that now is has taken on a new interest.

Nevertheless, will not a little careful reflection show that every one of these views is a one-sided extreme? They all suffer by an over-emphasis upon a single phase of the total truth. To be wholly absorbed in any one of these interests, the present, the past, or the future, to the exclusion of the others, is an impairment of your pedagogic vision, and a narrowing of your pedagogic horizon. We cannot afford to be either myopic or hypermetropic, in these matters. We cannot afford to over-emphasize either the past or the present, or the future in education. The end of education is neither to copy the past, to improve the opportunities of the present, nor to prepare the soul for the future; neither of these by itself, but all of them, and more than all. In the light of a true philosophy of education all the rich inheritance of the past, all the living chances of the present, and all the infinite possibilities of the future, become swallowed up in one great qualitative ideal, which transcends all distinctions of time, while it uses them all. This is the true eclecticism which does not content itself with steering half way between the extremes, nor with swinging over from one extreme to the other, and back again; but rather seeks to rise above them. The golden mean is not so much *between* the extremes, as *above* them, and *beyond* them.

Scholarship and service as university ideals, are indispensable, perhaps equally indispensable; and yet neither of these can fairly be taken, by itself, as *the* ideal of university work. We have heard a great deal, in the way of attack and defence, in regard to both. The Canadian universities have had an abundance of advice, with regard to the aims which they should hold before

them. We are sometimes criticized for being too utilitarian, and sometimes for not being utilitarian enough. Sometimes we are adjured to conform more closely to the spirit and aims of the universities of the old world, and sometimes the universities of the old world are adjured to conform more closely to the spirit and aims of the universities of the new world. Not long ago, a Canadian paper, eulogising Oxford, made the statement that, in comparison with the spirit and atmosphere of that ancient seat of learning, one of our Canadian universities (which need not now be named) reminded one of a boiler factory. On the other hand, there are those who take it upon themselves to lecture old Oxford upon her dreamy, quiet, existence, and to exhort her to wake up and emulate the busy, bustling activity of the universities of the western world, unless she wishes to fall hopelessly behind in the educational race. We of the Canadian universities are continually having two opposite extremes dinned into our ears. On the one hand we are compared (and there is no mistaking the disparaging tone in which the comparison is made) with the quiet, scholastic, otiose dignity and culture of Oxford, and told that we lack scholarship and high culture, that we are raw and crude and provincial. On the other hand we are quite as vociferously informed that all those notions about culture and fine scholarship are antiquated and quite out of place in the new world; that in a country like ours the pressing educational need of the hour is to train men who shall develop the unfathomed material resources of the nation; men who shall exploit its mines, its forests, its fisheries; men who shall direct its commerce, and be the captains of its industries. We are told that the humanities have held sway over the curriculum long enough; and that they should now be supplanted by the sciences, in harmony with the dictum of Mr. Herbert Spencer, who may perhaps be pardoned for his antipathy to the classics, inasmuch as in his autobiography he confesses that he never could learn Greek.

What are we to do? Whose advice are we to take? Shall we follow the example of the mercenary suffragist, who, on being offered a small sum of money for his vote, by the agents of one of the political parties, and on the following day a like sum, for a like purpose, by the agents of the opposing party, pocketed both bribes and spent polling day a-fishing? Or shall we rather take another leaf out of the note book of the Stagirite, who says, at the close of the Nicomachean Ethics, when discussing the question, how we are to deter-

mine the true function of the state in education, answers that it is useless to pay any attention to those who are giving us so much advice, for some of them are mere empirics, with no sound theory, while others are mere theorists, with no practical experience; and concludes that the only thing to do is to look closely into the whole subject for ourselves, to discover its foundation principles.

I propose to lay before you now two propositions, of whose validity I am fully persuaded, and to which I anticipate no difficulty in obtaining your assent. The first of these propositions is this—that the supreme and ultimate aim of education is identical with the supreme and final purpose of human life; and the second is this—that the university is the highest academic exponent of this supreme purpose.

My first proposition, then, is that the end of education, and the end of human life, are one and the same. If you could formulate the true and ultimate significance of human life, you would, *ipso facto*, have formulated the true and final goal of education, and *vice versa*. The real educational end is nothing short of the absolute *Summum Bonum*. For my part I find it impossible to rest content with any more circumscribed conception of the meaning of education than this. The goal of education is the goal of life. The process of education is the process of preparing for complete life, if I may use Mr. Spencer's words, with something more, I hope, than Mr. Spencer's meaning. Of course I am speaking now, you will observe, of the final and absolute end of education, that end upon which all lesser ends converge as means. The direct and immediate aim of the teacher at any given moment, is of course a very specific and concrete thing; to get his pupils to observe carefully some process in nature, or to estimate the significance of some historical or political movement, to find the flaw in a pretended syllogism, or the liability to error in a calculation of probabilities; to feel the beauty of a piece of literature, or to distinguish skilfully the exact force of an idiom. But the ultimate aim—if we are really educators, and not merely schoolmasters—is co-extensive with the ultimate purpose of life. Intensively and extensively the two are identical. So that, if you could define the ultimate significance of life, you would thereby have defined the true aim of education.

My second proposition is, that the university is the highest academic exponent of the true educational ideal. It stands at the head and constitutes the apex, of the educational system. It is the

natural leader in all educational progress, the natural interpreter of the educational ideal. From it should come the inspiration, as well as the guidance, in large measure, that shapes the policy and the methods of the lower schools.

Hence, in my judgment, it is of the utmost importance that the ideal of the university shall be of the highest possible character, and that no day shall be allowed to pass without a conscientious effort towards the realization of that ideal. It is of the utmost importance that the university shall be free from all narrowness, from all one-sided partizanship, from every vicious extreme. It cannot afford to be the champion of the humanities, as against the sciences, nor of the sciences as against the humanities. It must be the champion of both, and much more. It is to the university that we have a right to look for that true eclecticism which I have endeavored to define; that genuine eclecticism which, on the one hand, gives mple opportunity for the most intensive specialization in all the avenues of research, and the most complete devotion to the work of extending the boundaries of human knowledge in every possible direction; and at the same time, on the other hand, provides for the progressive and continuous appraisement of all these advances in knowledge, in the light of such a philosophy of human life as shall furnish a supreme standard of educational valuation. The university is the supreme synthetic agent in educational work. As its very name implies, it stands for the recognition of all the facts of the universe. Its function is to see all these facts, and to see them *sub specie aeternitatis*. Nowhere else, then, is breadth of view, sanity of judgment, and constancy of purpose, so absolutely essential as here. If the university wishes to retain a young heart, and be saved from stagnation and senility, it must keep busy on the line of discovery; while if it wishes to continue to deserve the high place which is accorded to it as the leader of the nation's intelligence, it must continually concern itself with the interpretation of final meanings, as well as with the observation of casual relationships.

The university must belong neither to the past, nor to the present, nor to the future, and yet it must belong to them all. It must concern itself neither with the concrete and particular, nor with the abstract and universal, to the exclusion of the other, and yet it must concern itself with both, and with their ultimate correlation. It must not be theoretical to the exclusion of all interest in the current

and hourly affairs of men, and yet it must not be practical in that narrow utilitarian sense in which the full dinner pail is the final criterion of values. It must interest itself in the actual affairs of men, but it must not for one moment be moved from its allegiance to the loftiest ideals by any contemptuous remarks which it may hear regarding idealism in general or educational idealism in particular. It must be conservative, in the sense that it will duly appreciate, and jealously guard all worthy tradition, no matter how hoary; and it must be progressive, in the sense that it will continually seek to blaze out new paths of progress, and eagerly welcome new truth, in every realm of thought, no matter from what source it may come. It must be conservative without philistinism, progressive without iconoclasm, and enthusiastic without fanaticism.

The university must have a genuine interest in all the subjects of the broadest possible curriculum; but after all, its deepest interest will be in the living personalities to whom those subjects are made the materials of an education. Its interest will be secondarily in the subjects that are studied, and primarily in the subjects who study those subjects; and it will shape its curriculum with regard to the needs of those personalities. It will endorse the sentiments of that teacher who, on being asked whether he taught Latin, replied with some indignation, "No, I teach boys." The university will give instruction in Latin, and all other good things, but it will *teach* men and women.

If I am right so far, there can be no great difficulty in making at least a theoretical and academic disposition of the question before us. "Scholarship and Service as University Ideals." Are these real university ideals? Yes, and no. Yes, in the sense that they are, both of them, objects worth striving for, quite indispensable, indeed, as aims which every true university must set before it. No, in the sense that neither of them by itself, nor both of them taken together, can constitute an exhaustive statement of *the* true university ideal.

The university, of course, will aim at scholarship. It will set a high value on learning, because it sets a high value on truth. It will aim to produce scholars, and it will aim not only to be the custodian and conservator of the learning of the ages, but also to enlarge continually the sum total of that learning. But it will not be content with scholarship, for it will recognize the fact that man is

more than intellect, and that a man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the learning which he possesseth.

The university will make service one of its aims. It will seek to be of service to men and women, and to turn out men and women who possess both the ability and the desire to be of service to others. It will not sympathize greatly with the professor who boasted that during an extended academic career he had never, to his knowledge, taught anything that was of the slightest use. The university will seek to be useful, but it will reserve the right to define the word "useful," and in framing its definition, it will have regard to something more than the size and the contents of the workingman's dinner pail.

When I ask myself in what way, and for what reason, scholarship is a desirable aim, I can find only one answer that is ultimately satisfactory. Scholarship is a worthy aim, only because, and in so far as, it makes a contribution to human good, either as cause to effect, or as part to whole. And human good must always be defined in terms of personal life, personal conduct, and personal character. Scholarship, then, is a worthy aim, because it is one of the ways of achieving personal character. Other things being equal, the more highly developed the intelligence, the more estimable the character. We might even go so far as to say that learning is not merely a means to character, but part and parcel of character itself; that the ideal man would be, among other things, the man of developed intelligence and ripe scholarship.

When I ask myself in what way, and for what reason, service is a desirable university aim, I find, as before, that my answer must move within certain clearly defined boundaries. To serve is to do something good or useful to others. But what is useful or good? Again we are thrown back upon a philosophy of human life. That philosophy of human life makes a distinction between what is good in the relative sense, and what is good in the absolute sense. And it finds the absolute good, not in anything which a man may *obtain*, but in something which he may *become*, not in anything that is extrinsic, but only in something that is intrinsic, to human personality.

Scholarship and service, then, may be regarded as ingredients in a true university ideal, and as such, essential to the complete conception of the functions of the university. But the university will decline to limit itself irrevocably by any form of words, or even

by any particular group of ideas, believing that it is of the very essence of the university spirit, that it shall continually expand, continually advance, continually find new shades of meaning in old formulæ, and new ideas which it may not be possible to express within the limits of any old formula. It will live constantly in the expectation that the old wine-skins may become too inflexible to contain the new wine of the kingdom of ideas and ideals.

PRODUCTION AND PROPERTIES OF LIQUID AIR.

J. C. McLennan, Ph.D.

University of Toronto.

(Summary.)

On the evening of July 12th a demonstration of the properties and manufacture of Liquid Air was given by Prof. McLennan, assisted by Mr. E. F. Burton. Prof. McLennan, in the course of a short talk on the subject briefly described the essential parts of the equipment used in the production of this substance. An adjournment was then made to the workshop where those present were shown the Liquid Air machine in action.

A series of experiments was also shown, illustrating the low temperature of Liquid Air, and showing the modifications which take place in the physical properties of different substances when they are cooled to the temperature of Liquid Air.

ITALIAN PAINTING—ITS ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT.

W. H. FRASER, M.A.

University of Toronto.

(Abstract.)

IN the discussion of the origin of Italian painting reference was made to the antecedent art of Greece and Rome, and it was explained that this art, though of supreme excellence in itself, exercised but a slight and indirect influence upon Italian art. Grecian art had passed over to Rome, and there had much declined before the Christian era. The earliest Italian art was almost wholly of a religious character, and three processes were in use—

(1) Sculpture, mostly very crude and used for the adornment of Sarcophagi.

(2) Fresco painting, chiefly used for wall paintings in the catacombs, and also to some extent in the early basilicas, and

(3) Mosaics, used for pictorial representations of a costly and permanent character in the basilicas.

So completely had the works of pagan art been destroyed by the barbarians and by the early Christians that little was left either for the inspiration or imitation of primitive Christian artists. Moreover, the spirit of these artists was in itself averse to whatever savored of paganism. Hence, early Christian art, although very crude, was on the whole an almost spontaneous manifestation.

Of the three arts above mentioned, that of mosaics was shown to be the most important in its influence on later Italian painting, since its progress and development far out-stripped that of the other arts of painting and sculpture, and in churches such as that of St. Mark's at Venice, led to the development of certain types, broad and strong in their outline, but lacking in detail, which were the principal sources as regards design for the painters of the thirteenth century. Another important contribution to progress was made in the thirteenth century by sculptors, such as Pisano, whose

revival of a style owing much to Grecian antiquity, strongly influenced the work of contemporary painters.

The modern era of Italian painting is commonly said to have begun with Cimabue in the thirteenth century, but he was but one of several who, following the types borrowed from mosaic art, began to make some visible improvement. Cimabue's *protégé* and successor, Giotto, is more properly styled "the father of Italian painting." He it was who began to paint things as they are, and to base his art upon a study of nature.

After the death of Giotto (1336) little progress was made by his followers for nearly one hundred years. Towards the end of the fourteenth century Starnina, Masolino and others, gave some indications of improvement, but during the first quarter of the fifteenth century, Masaccio initiated a new era, characterized chiefly by the introduction of the nude figure, the study and application of perspective, and marked realism. Here again an impetus was given to painting by the sister art of sculpture at the hands of Donatello and others, whose perfect representations of the human form gave to painters a model and an inspiration. The direct outcome of this movement was the school of the anatomical painters, Verocchio, Signarelli and others, who studied anatomy and applied its principles in their art, and who thus contributed a most important and final element to the development of fifteenth century art.

From this time onward the excellence of painters depended rather upon individual characteristics than upon the introduction of new principles. For instance, the work of Fra Lippo Lippi was the reflex of his joyous worldly spirit, as that of Michelangelo was the reflex of his supreme intellectuality, combined with extreme earnestness and dramatic power.

The concluding portion of the paper was devoted to the work of the leading artists of the latter part of the fifteenth century, and the first half of the sixteenth century, including Botticelli, Perugino, Raphæl, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo and others. Finally it was shown how painting tended to anatomical exaggeration and declined after the middle of the sixteenth century.

The subject was illustrated throughout by numerous lantern slides of the various works to which reference was made.

Higher Education

Minutes of the Higher Education Section.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10TH.

THE first meeting of the Higher Education Section convened in the West Hall of the University of Toronto at 3 p.m., under the presidency of Mr. R. A. Thompson, B.A., principal of the Hamilton Collegiate Institute. In the absence of the Secretary, Mr. W. Mowbray, B.A., of Upper Canada College, Mr. W. G. Anderson, B.A., of Toronto, was appointed Secretary, *pro tem.*

After a few preliminary remarks, the President read a paper on the "Ideal High School Teacher." An animated discussion followed, in which the following gentlemen participated: Professor Lang, of Victoria College, Toronto; Principal Schofield, of Winnipeg; Principal Burt, of Brantford; and Messrs. Stevenson, of Stratford; Brough, of Vancouver; Henderson, of Milwaukee; and Tamblyn, of Bowmanville, who deplored, with Mr. Thompson, the want of unity in High School work, due, in large measure, to the over-specialization of teachers, and the subordinate position accorded native ability by our educational authorities.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH.

The Higher Education Section met at 2.30 p.m. in West Hall with the President in the chair. Mr. George H. Locke, of Macdonald College, followed with an address on the "Interrelations of the High School and the College," which won the warm approval of the section, especially in its strong advocacy of the "accrediting" system of matriculation in vogue in the Middle West of the United States.

Principal Schofield, of Winnipeg, contributed a paper on "The Status of the High School," and Mr. Morris, of the Hamilton Collegiate Institute, on the "True Work of the High School."

The meeting then adjourned.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH.

The Section convened in the West Hall and was called to order by the President at 2.30 p.m. The following papers were read:— "High School Training as a Preparation for Life," D. Soloan, LL.D., Principal of the Nova Scotia Normal School; "English in the First Year of the High School," F. H. Sykes, Ph.D., of Columbia University. At the conclusion of the ensuing discussion, Mr. F. P. Gavin, B.A., of Windsor, Ontario, moved, seconded by Mr. C. M. Fraser, M.A., of Nelson, B.C., that "This Section recommends to the proper authorities involved the admission of students to the University on the certificate of the Principal of the High School or Collegiate Institute interested." Carried.

The election of officers for the next meeting of the Higher Education Section at Victoria, B.C., in 1909, then followed with these results:—

President—Prof. A. E. Lang, M.A., of Victoria College, Toronto.

Vice-President—Mr. T. A. Brough, B.A., of Vancouver.

Secretary—Mr. W. G. Anderson, B.A., of Toronto.

In his concluding remarks the retiring President expressed his gratitude to all who had contributed in any way to the success of the meetings, and especially to those who had read papers or delivered addresses.

The meeting then adjourned, *sine die.*

THE IDEAL HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER.

R. A. THOMPSON, B.A.

Collegiate Institute, Hamilton.

(Reporter's Summary.)

THE necessary qualifications for the Ideal Teacher were academic and professional training, and personal qualities, such as good health, sound morals, personal magnetism, energy, tact, vigilance, heart power, sympathy, executive skill, and common sense. Any person might take the academic and professional training, yet without the personal qualities his influence as a teacher would be negative.

The speaker regretted that so many students were permitted to graduate without having given sufficient attention to the study of the English language. The professional training of teachers in Ontario is in an unsatisfactory condition, and the outlook, in ideals and plans, problematic.

Mr. Thompson described various types of teachers—the self-seeker with his underhand methods; the iceberg, who gradually froze the intellects and buoyant spirits of his pupils; the tyrant who permitted no freedom in opinions or methods; the "know-it-all"; the slave of the text-book with belief in the infallibility of print; the optimist with correct ideals, but an enthusiasm that often led him astray; the "putty" teacher with the light veneer of all the properties but neither vigor nor initiative. These types should be avoided.

The true teacher accepts conditions as he finds them and strives to mould the pupil's character into something approaching the ideal. In concluding, he quoted Huxley's definition of a man with a liberal education, saying that it contained many of the indispensable characteristics of the ideal teacher.

THE INTERRELATIONS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE.

GEORGE H. LOCKE,

Professor of History and Theory of Education, of Macdonald College, Ste. Anne de Bellevue.

(Reporter's Summary.)

MR. LOCKE, who for some years was Inspector of the High Schools accredited to the University of Chicago, addressed himself particularly to an explanation of the "accrediting system," by which college entrance or matriculation examinations are abolished and the schools and teachers at work are examined instead of the students.

He described visits to High Schools by the representatives of the colleges, who satisfied themselves as to the equipment of the schools in libraries, laboratories, etc., the course of studies offered, the numbers of lessons or lectures planned for each subject, and the skill of the teachers. Schools deemed satisfactory in these respects were placed upon the accredited lists and the recommendations of the staff of such schools were accepted in lieu of the usual examinations for entrance.

Some surprise was no doubt felt when it was known that this system was not new, but had been thoroughly tested through some score of years. The statistics have proved that the colleges have had much better prepared entering classes on this system than when the old examination system was in vogue. The effect on the colleges, on the schools, and on the community were all described and much of the remarkable progress of high school education was ascribed to this system. It requires machinery, but the results of the expenditure are so gratifying and the freedom of the teacher is so very much enlarged, as well as the opportunities of the pupil, that the public sentiment as well as the opinion of the teaching body is strongly in its favor. It has been feared only by those who did not understand it.

THE STATUS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

F. H. SCHOFIELD, B.A.

Principal, Collegiate Institute, Winnipeg.

As Fletcher Dole so aptly said in that admirable series of papers published recently, the fundamental idea of a democracy is that every citizen must have a share in the government and must do his share in the production of wealth. He might have added the obvious inference that each should share in the wealth produced and in such rational and refining enjoyments as life affords. But if all are to govern, all should be taught to form correct judgments and discriminate between right and wrong in public issues as well as in private affairs, to control their own lives, to subject self-interest to the common good, to undertake some part of the public service. If all are to be producers of wealth, all should have such preparatory training as is absolutely necessary and *opportunity* to acquire a measure of skill. If all are to share in life's enjoyments, all should have opportunity to develop the capacity for enjoyment.

Thus the common school is the necessary corollary of democracy; for its purpose is to fit for work, for enjoyment, for service—in short, to furnish the education absolutely necessary to the realization of the democratic ideal. In one sense, the common school and the democratic form of government are doing similar work. Both are training institutions, the one dealing with the individual and the other with the community; and in the last analysis, the good of the community and the good of the individual will be found identical.

But if some education is absolutely necessary to the citizen of a democracy, the man with more education ought to be a more valuable citizen than the man with less; and so the development of the democratic idea compels us to furnish to those who will take advantage of it, at least the *opportunity* for education in advance of that provided by the common school and regarded as essential for all. This, it seems to me, is the ground on which the secondary school may fairly base its claim to public support. And such a secondary school,

demanded as it is by the needs of the individual and the community, is an extension of the common school and not primarily, nor necessarily, a feeder for the university.

Now, the university was originally an aristocratic institution, aiming to train the few who would think for and govern the multitude. To provide political and religious leaders was sufficient, and for centuries the university embraced but two faculties, law and theology. It is only recently that the spread of democratic ideas has awakened the university to the importance of developing the material resources of the country, and promoting the social advance of its people, and has led it to give recognition to applied science and sociological studies. Historically, secondary schools are older than common schools, for the former were designed as feeders for the university. The great public schools of England were mostly of this class; so were most of the academies which did such noble work for New England; many of our numerous proprietary schools and all the preparatory departments of our denominational colleges also belong to it. In Canada we have tried to combine in our secondary schools, the popular high school and the university preparatory school, and this attempt to graft a young scion on an old stem has resulted in a hybrid which is not satisfactory.

Some one has said that the domain of education, like ancient Gaul, is divided into three parts. On the lower and sunny slopes of the southern side lies the province of the common school. Through it run well-defined roads whose direction has been determined by the needs and developing powers of the little folk who must travel along them toward manhood and citizenship. Up in the highlands on the northern side lies the province of higher education. Across it run paths for those who travel on foot or with ponies, metalled roads for those who prefer coaches, and narrow gauge railways for those who wish to reach the heights by the quickest route. The engineers who surveyed these roads have tried to meet the needs of those who wish to reach the standing of professional men and specialists. Between these two provinces lies that of the secondary school, penetrated to some extent on its southern side by extensions of the common school highways, and to some extent on its northern side by approaches to the university thoroughfares. But the two sets of roads are not laid out on any common plan, and their intersections are somewhat accidental.

Hence arises the much-debated question: "Is the high school

a fitting school or a finishing school?" "A fitting school," shouts the university professor, looking down from the southern boundary of his province; "A finishing school," growls the average taxpayer, surveying the intervening country from the common school province; "Both," cries the optimistic theorist, shutting his eyes; "Neither," moans the high school teacher, lost in the mazes of this unsurveyed district.

The difficulties which have grown out of the attempt to make the high school perform a two-fold function are very real, and various plans to overcome them have been devised. In Great Britain we find secondary schools with such a variety of aims and courses that a high school system is impossible. In some continental countries, Germany for example, we find two distinct classes of high schools, one avowedly a feeder for the university and the other designed as a continuation of the common school, and a finishing school for those who enter it. In the United States the problem was solved in a very simple and effective way. There the leaders in education held fast to the democratic ideal; they saw that the high school would be "the people's college"—the finishing school for the great majority of the pupils who enter it; and they made it a natural and logical outgrowth of the common school, outlined its courses to correspond with the developing powers of the pupil, and gave them sufficient elasticity to meet his individual needs and the varying conditions of the districts served. And I venture to say that in no country is secondary education more effective, more thoroughly appreciated, or more widely taken advantage of, and that in no country has it exerted a more beneficial reflex influence on common school education or proved a better helper to the university. There the articulation between the common school and the high school is perfect; the university has so modified its requirements for matriculation that the articulation between it and the high school is complete; and so the educational system from foundation to apex presents a harmony and continuity which our Canadian system lacks in many particulars.

We were trying to cross the pathless high school jungle without a guiding star when I began work in it twenty years ago, and only lately have our falls and bruises and general weariness convinced us of the foolishness of the attempt. I have given some study to the iron-bound courses laid down for the high schools of the provinces of the Dominion, and in no one of them do I find the guiding principle

to be the idea of meeting the needs of the boy who is to be developed into a man, a citizen, and a worker, and for whom the high school is the final school except that of life itself. From Halifax to Victoria our high school courses are dominated by the idea of preparing candidates for teachers' examinations and for matriculation examinations—a narrow aim, a deadening aim, an aim largely at variance with the foundation principle upon which secondary education should rest. The attainments necessary for teachers are not always those most needful for young people going out to make their way in some other life calling; university authorities are not always authorities in education, and the requirements fixed by them for admission to college are not always those most necessary for admission to the farm, the shop, or the office. Even where we are allowed a little option in the matter of courses, the studies to be taken in them, and the books to be used are fixed by our provincial departments of education with little regard to the individuality of the pupil, the personality of the teacher, the special needs of the community, or the teaching power of the school.

But there are hopeful indications of a coming change. Those restless people of the west, who are sadly lacking in respect for institutions devised elsewhere for a generation that has passed away, demand it. Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia have high schools as yet unfettered by the demands of provincial universities, and can easily make needful changes in their courses. I hope to see a re-organization of the high schools of Manitoba within two years. Twenty years ago Ontario had reached the *ne plus ultra* point in secondary education, but even Ontario has had a vision of better things lately. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick are both striving to make their county academies and grammar schools meet more fully the needs of their people. This general awakening is a promise of better things. Let us lift our secondary schools out of the anomalous position in which they are now placed; let us give them the status which they ought to have as the finishing schools of nine-tenths of the pupils who enter them; let us arrange courses wider and more flexible than those now provided, giving plenty of options to meet as far as possible the needs and ambitions of individual pupils and the local conditions of school districts; let us extend all our courses to four years; and let us award diplomas to the pupils who complete them successfully. I am not an enthusiastic admirer of all the institutions of the United States;

but by holding consistently to the democratic idea in education, she has evolved one of the best high schools systems in the world, and here in Canada, where conditions are so similar, we will do well to learn as much as possible from what she has accomplished.

What authority shall determine our high school courses? In the United States the state authorities generally fix the requirements for admission to the high schools but do not determine the courses to be followed by all the high schools of the state. These are left largely to individual schools to be determined by local conditions. But as there is great unanimity among educationists as to the studies which should have a place on high school curricula, the courses, as agreed upon in teachers' conventions in the different states, show a surprising uniformity in their main features. To induce teachers to live up to them has proved a difficult task, and quite recently several state superintendents have issued outlines of courses to be followed in the high schools under their supervision, leaving details to be worked out by the local school authorities. This seems a wise and feasible plan for Canada. Let the provincial departments of education fix our high school courses in outline, but leave the details to the individual school, subject to the sanction of the inspector. The slight lack of uniformity which will result is not necessarily an evil. Of course such a plan entails more frequent, detailed, and thorough inspection than our high schools now receive, and, with competent inspectors, that in itself will be a great gain.

Under such a plan what studies are likely to find a place on our curricula? Teachers, parents, and pupils will agree fairly well on a certain amount of work in English, history, mathematics, and natural science, some latitude being allowed an occasional student. In addition to these compulsory studies, one or more options should be required from French, German, Latin, Greek, commercial branches and advanced science, with mechanic arts and domestic science added for the larger towns. Systematic physical training should have its place, and more time should be found for music and drawing than is usually allotted to them. In these stirring times of material progress we are in danger of sending pupils into the world to suffer hunger of soul, because we have not helped them to a more intimate acquaintance with literature, art, music, and the glad beauty of nature. All this need not make our work too complicated, for the smaller schools should not be allowed to undertake more than their

equipment and teaching power will warrant. Nor is there anything here in advance of popular demand. Some time ago I attempted to find what studies the parents of the pupils in the secondary schools of Manitoba would like their children to take, and the answers received to my circular represent in a general way the wishes of the parents of more than 2,000 pupils who had passed into the high schools or expected to do so after the next summer vacation. I found that more than ninety per cent. of them wished work in elementary science, and that eighty-eight per cent. of them wished instruction in some language other than English, French being the first choice of forty-six per cent., Latin of thirty-four per cent., and German of seven per cent. It was very gratifying to find that popular opinion endorses the position taken by our leading teachers as to the educational value of natural science and some language besides the mother tongue.

An analysis of the studies suggested will show that they meet fairly well the needs of all classes of pupils. The boy or girl who wishes a well-rounded training without reference to any particular calling can surely find the studies necessary for it; the coming business man can equip himself for his work by taking the fixed subjects, the commercial branches, and a modern language; the fixed subjects, some science, and some commercial work will meet the needs of the prospective farmer; mechanic arts, with science and a modern language offer the special training needed by the youth who would become a machinist or engineer; the fixed subjects, with one language and either advanced science or commercial studies ought to provide good training for the future teacher; students looking to a university course can find splendid preparation for it in the studies outlined; and if our university authorities, in some sane moment, would put Latin among their options for matriculation, practically every student could find a course leading to matriculation which would prove pleasurable as well as profitable.

How would the standing of pupils be determined? Written and oral examinations could be given at regular intervals and a record of the results kept in a register used for the purpose; these could be supplemented by the teacher's estimate of the general work of the pupil and by the results of the inspector's examinations. Probably the local authorities should decide who were entitled to diplomas, and present them. The diploma may seem a trifling thing in itself, but in the United States it has proved a great inducement to con-

tinued attendance and study. To complete the course and secure a diploma seems a far more important matter to the high school student than the completion of a university course will seem in after years. And in these matters the parent's opinion is apt to coincide with the child's.

What recognition should be accorded to diplomas so obtained? Those granted by schools whose efficiency had been tested and proved might well be accepted as evidence of fitness to enter our normal schools, and could be made far more reliable evidence than success in our July examinations can ever be. Our universities, theological and medical colleges, technical schools, law societies, dental and pharmaceutical associations might well accept such diplomas in lieu of matriculation examinations, so far as the work for their matriculation had been covered in the high schools. In Germany diplomas from good high schools are accepted as evidence of fitness for university work, and the experience of thirty years has convinced the universities that the practice is a good one. In the neighboring republic over thirty state universities and several hundred other universities and colleges accept diplomas from accredited high schools as evidence of fitness for matriculation, and the practice is growing in favor. The diploma is the result of tests and observations extended over several years; surely it ought to be better proof of the thing university authorities look for—ability to do advanced work—than any brief tests which may be given in a few hot July days. The matriculation examination encourages the mere memorizing of books and notes and ability to trick the examiner; the accrediting system lays emphasis where it ought to be laid—on capacity for work.

Think of possible absurdities which might arise as results of our senseless matriculation examinations. I suppose that Thomas Edison was never in a position to pass the matriculation examination of McGill University; yet there is evidence to show that he would have brought honor to it, had he ever been admitted as a student. It is doubtful if Hugh Miller could ever have passed the matriculation examination of Queen's University; yet he would have brought it no disgrace, either as a literary man or a scientist, had he been allowed to enter. One of the grandest men of our time, a man with a great brain and a great soul, could never have passed the matriculation examination of Toronto University; but no one will say that Abraham Lincoln could not have done the work of the

university successfully. If the grandest figure in our literary history should appear on earth again and apply for admission to the University of Manitoba as a student, the registrar would probably write him as follows: "Mr. William Shakespeare, Stratford-on-Avon. Dear Sir: Since by your own statement you have 'little Latin and less Greek,' and since you have given us no reason to suppose that you have any French, German, Icelandic, or science at all, the rules will not permit your admission to this university;" but were Shakespeare alive to-day, every university on the continent would join in a scramble to bestow on him all the honorary degrees in its gift. But still we cling to our old-fashioned matriculation examinations!

Think, too, what a spur to good work on the part of the high schools the accrediting system is. How they strive to win and keep the status of an accredited school! For the standing may be partially or wholly withdrawn if they fail to live up to their high calling. Some three years ago the University of Minnesota decided that it could not accept diplomas from the state high schools as evidence of fitness for university work in English, and at every state teachers' convention held since, the problem to which the high school teachers have given most earnest study has been: How can we improve our work in English?

What would be the result of such changes in the organization of our secondary schools as I have suggested? Would the average education of the community be improved? That is the ultimate test, and the facts seem to warrant the conclusion that the plan outlined will meet it.

One of the difficulties which teachers in the higher grades of the common school must contend with is the straggling of pupils, especially of the boys. I believe this would be checked to some extent, if our high schools offered more attractive courses with formal graduation and diplomas at their completion. I believe the same attraction would draw to them a larger percentage of the pupils who complete the work of the grades. The percentage received is somewhat small. In Winnipeg it is about seventy per cent; and in ten Canadian cities taken at random, commencing with Halifax and ending with Vancouver, the average is seventy-three per cent., St. John heading the list with ninety per cent., and Vancouver standing lowest with forty-five per cent. But in eleven cities taken at random in the northern part of the United States and extending from Portland, Maine, to Great Falls, Montana, the average is over

seventy-seven per cent., Portland, Great Falls and Winona being tied for first place with ninety per cent., and Cleveland being lowest with sixty per cent. Menominee, Wisconsin, was not included in this list. In that town every pupil who passed out of the eighth grade last June was found in the high school in September, and only two of them had dropped out in January. Winnipeg has one high school pupil for each 110 of its population; but Duluth has one in 100, St. Paul one in 90, and Minneapolis one in 45.

The straggling of pupils is a great hindrance to success in high school work; but I believe more attractive and elastic courses would reduce it materially. In Winnipeg we can hold only about twenty-five per cent., of the pupils who enter until the end of the third year; but in Duluth, Minneapolis, and St. Paul, they keep forty per cent., of them to the end of *a four years' course*, in Winona fifty per cent., and in St. Cloud seventy per cent. In ten Canadian cities the pupils completing a three years' course average thirty-six per cent., of those who enter, Halifax leading with fifty-five per cent., and Regina being at the foot with twenty per cent. In twelve towns of the United States those completing a four years' course average forty-two per cent., of those who enter, St. Cloud being at the top with seventy per cent., and Boston at the bottom with twenty-eight per cent.

I believe the changes suggested will increase the attendance at our colleges, and give students entering them better preparation for their university work. Of the pupils entering the collegiate institute of Winnipeg, only about ten per cent., ever go on to any department of the university; but in Duluth it is twelve per cent., in St. Cloud fourteen per cent., in Minneapolis twenty per cent. In nine towns of Canada the students who go on in some higher institution average twenty-six per cent., of those who complete a three years' course in the high school; but in nine towns of the United States the average is twenty-nine per cent., of those who complete a four years' course in the high school. All Canada has two college students for each 1,000 of her population; but the United States has three per 1,000.

The changes outlined would raise the scholarship of our teachers, and allow all the provinces to abolish that standing proof of the inefficiency of our rural schools, the third-class certificate. It would also increase the average age of those entering the profession. With increased age and improved scholarship would come better work, greater appreciation from the parents, higher salaries, and more

professional spirit. Our Canadian teachers might then become as ready to magnify their calling as are their fellow teachers in the United States.

The changes would enhance the value of the secondary school in the eyes of our citizens, and make them more willing to give it adequate support. It is largely his pride in the local high school and his belief in its efficiency which makes the taxpayer in the small towns of the United States go so deeply into his pocket to support the public school. In theory, the university is the keystone of the educational arch; but in fact the high school occupies that position for the average citizen. There it stands, open to his children—an ever-present proof of the opportunities which the democracy offers so freely to all. And the common school shares in his generous support of the high school. In Winnipeg the school tax is about three and one-half mills on the dollar, one-sixth of the general tax, or about one-ninth of the total tax; but Minneapolis gives its schools five mills on the dollar or one-third of its total tax. In St. Paul the rate is six mills, in Duluth eight mills, and in Winona over nine mills. Two years ago there were in Minnesota 159 towns which maintained high schools, and in forty-nine of them the general school tax was twenty mills or more on the dollar. These are facts worth considering.

As I have said, I think we are on the eve of changes in the organization of our secondary schools, and these changes should be made under intelligent supervision. There is no organized body which possesses to the same degree the training, the experience, and the knowledge of prevailing conditions so necessary to direct these changes as does this high school section of the Dominion Educational Association, and I would like to see it devise some machinery for the purpose. The changes will probably come gradually, but that makes careful, intelligent guidance all the more necessary. The first step should be in the direction of greater uniformity in the requirements for entrance to our high schools. That seems a matter of special importance to us in the west, in view of the increasing influx of people from the older provinces. The next step will be to lay down broadly outlines of courses which the secondary schools of all the provinces may follow without sacrificing the individuality of the school in the least. Such a change would be a long step toward common requirements for matriculation into our universities, a step toward inter-provincial recognition of degrees in arts,

law, medicine, pharmacy and dentistry, and a step toward inter-provincial recognition of teachers' certificates. It would help to abate that narrow provincialism which is still the greatest hindrance to the growth of a genuine Canadian spirit.

THE TRUE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

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This year the centenary of the Toronto Grammar School, now Jarvis Street Collegiate Institute, is being commemorated. Just one hundred years ago, by the Public Schools Act of 1807, the first real provision was made for the organization of a system of primary and secondary education in the province of Ontario. This act was the germ of the act which is now in force with regard to secondary education in this province. The Toronto Grammar School, the first to be established under the new act, was opened on June 1st, 1807. That date marked the humble beginning of the career and development of the educational institution which, with a formal change of name in 1871 to "High School," has supplied the facilities for the secondary education of the people of Ontario.

Ever since their institution the secondary schools have been regarded as forming an important link in our educational system. Of late years, however, their worth has been more fully recognized, and the support accorded them has been more liberal. This increasing appreciation and support is in a large measure due to the developing and maturing process now going on in the country. Following the struggle for necessaries, which engages a young people, comes the aspiration to higher things and the possession of the means to attain them. The course provided by the public schools no longer meets the demands of the masses of the people thirsting for the mental training and breadth of knowledge demanded by the conditions of modern life and civilization. This change in modern conditions has opened a field for the secondary schools scarcely dreamed of at the

time of their establishment, and has led to a revolutionizing of their curriculum, methods and aims.

The original Grammar School, based on old world ideals, was narrow and exclusive in its scope and course of instruction. Its prime purpose was not to be a popular institution, but rather a preparatory school to the new universities and colleges which were at that time being founded in Canada. It accordingly framed its curriculum to meet the requirements of these higher institutions, for which most of its students were to be prepared. In fact, it identified itself closely with the aims and culture of university life, and had little sympathy with or interest in popular education as supplied by the public schools of that time.

To-day the position of the secondary school has been materially changed. It looks no longer toward the university with its ancient classics solely, but toward the elementary schools, toward the boy of the present and his surroundings. The trend is away from the past, with its accumulation of facts in large part unsuited to present day needs, toward the present and practical. But this has not been the revolution of a day. It has taken Ontario a hundred years to reach this stage, and the end is not yet. As stated before, the change of front has been largely brought about by the ever increasing popular demand for a higher and broader culture than the public schools can give. With the increase of wealth and leisure the desire of the people for higher education has grown. We are a democratic people; the only distinctions we recognize are those won by merit and industry. There is no other country in the world where the chances of all are more equal in the race for success in life than in our own. Parents of to-day recognize this fact. Ambitious for their children's future, they are not satisfied with giving them the education with which they set out in their career. They accounted themselves well equipped for the battle of life when they had received an education such as the public schools of their childhood afforded. But times have changed. The phenomenal advancement of the last fifty years has brought with it a more complex and highly organized system of society than that into which they were born. This means that more preparation must be made by the children of to-day to enable them to meet with success in this more intricate social organization. Alive to this fact, parents are demanding for their children something more than the public school can offer. The outcome has been that the high school has undertaken to supply

this demand, and has identified itself more closely with the interests and aims of the public schools. It has been aptly called "the Poor Man's College."

Our high school, as we have it to-day, is then, an essentially democratic institution. It is largely the creation of our new world civilization. It is practically a free school, supported by the people, and devoted to their interests. Colleges and universities, though they too are bending in some degree to meet popular demands, must always be more or less exclusive and aristocratic in their student body, and in the influence which they exert. Sons of humble parents, as a rule, will be barred by the prohibitive cost of such a course from entering college halls. In our modern high school the son of the poorest citizen has the same opportunity as the son of the wealthiest. The rich and the poor sit side by side, and it is not a consideration of their parents' money or social or civic standing which ranks them in their class, but their own talents and industry.

In the old Grammar School most of the students were looking forward to the university—its course provided only a means to an end. Such an institution could never be truly great. It was subsidiary to and overshadowed by the university, for whose success it was sapping all its own vitality. To-day the great majority of the secondary school pupils do not attend university. More and more students are taking advantage of the high school course for the foundation of a broad culture which it affords, without any thought of proceeding beyond its range of study. The course is satisfying a growing desire for knowledge for its own sake, and for the increased efficiency it affords in other than professional callings. In ever increasing numbers those who intend to enter commercial life, or to follow industrial pursuits, are taking the course. More apprentices than ever before, in seeking their first position in store or factory, place first among their qualifications the fact that they have received an efficient high school education. In addition to our great professional class, practically all our merchants, bankers, and manufacturers, together with most of their trusted employees, are, or will in the near future be, high school graduates. This means that the leading spirits of every community in our land will be high school trained. The influence for culture, morality, and good citizenship which the high school can exert, if properly organized, may well be imagined.

It is in its relation to the social and civic life around it that the

high school has its highest value. The greater number of its pupils come from the homes of the workers, the real nation builders. Wealth and aristocratic surroundings are not always conducive to thrift and earnest direction of effort. The men who forge to the front in our land are generally the sons of plain folk, educated in the public schools of their communities, who by native talent and energy, have overcome the difficulties which are associated with a humble origin, and have won for themselves positions of honor and distinction. In giving a liberal course of instruction to such men as these, in broadening their view, and raising their ideals of life, the high school has a great work before it, a work which will largely increase their usefulness in shaping the future of our country, and in contributing to its advancement.

Happily, in Canada, the race for wealth has not become the curse it has to the people to the south of us. Abject poverty on the one hand and fortunes of staggering proportions on the other are here the exception. What national wealth we have is more evenly distributed. Money has fortunately not yet created any marked class distinctions among us. Our immigration laws, too, have been more stringent, and as a result, though our development has been slower, we have on the whole a sturdier and more intelligent people, a people which sets a high value on culture, not wholly from the hard pecuniary advantages derived from it, but also from a recognition of the fact that it adds immeasurably to the real pleasures of living and increases the usefulness of the individual among his fellows. In such a country an institution like the high school is eminently fitted to the needs of the people.

The high school of the near future will, I believe, exert a more potent influence over those forces which direct the destiny of our nation than any other of our educational institutions. Its influence, through its graduates, will enter nearly every household in the land. Already in the better settled parts of our country every city and town and many of our villages can boast of its high school. In Ontario alone, more than one hundred and forty have been established, with an attendance of about thirty thousand pupils, and a staff of more than seven hundred teachers. The number of pupils and teachers has almost doubled in the last twenty-five years.

The fact that it associates without show of partiality or favoritism students from all stations in life, gives the high school an added value. Every class in our social scale has sterling qualities with

which it is beneficial to bring the others in touch. The cultured manners and the refinement which students from more favored homes bring with them have a marked influence over those who are lacking in these qualities. The thrift, strength of will, and frugality of the sons of the poorer classes cannot fail to leave its impress on the character of students from homes of wealth, who, to their benefit, will learn something of the self-denial and earnestness of effort. This co-mingling of all classes on a common footing leads to a better understanding and appreciation of each other's peculiarities and praiseworthy traits of character, and goes a long way in later creating a harmony of feeling and a unity of purpose in the corporate life of our municipalities.

This Association of pupils of all classes in our secondary schools has a deeper significance when we bear in mind that the high school age, from twelve to eighteen, is the most impressionable age in the growing boy or girl. It is the period when childhood with all its childish interests is gradually being left behind, and the young mind begins to feel a sense of responsibility, and to reach out after the more mature ideals of manhood and womanhood. It is the age when the child is not sure of his ground, and has a selfish interest in watching sharply the actions and doings of his comrades or elders. Such being the case, much mutual benefit must be derived from the associations of the class-room, where the weak points in the character of one pupil may be the strong ones in that of another.

As regards its courses of study, the modern high school must have breadth and freedom, and should include in its curriculum subjects of general interest only. It is not its function to provide technical education. The technical school serves a different purpose; it is closely in touch with industrial life, and requires a good deal of costly apparatus of special kinds to make its work effective. It is the object of the high school to provide a broad and general range of knowledge, all of which will not be of direct use in any calling, but which will broaden the outlook on life, give the student a wider and more mature judgment, and form a basis for future development and acquisition of knowledge in any of the walks of life. After all, it is not the knowledge element, but the training and development of the mental powers that counts for most. The mind may soon be unable to recall much of the mass of information acquired in the period of school life. But the acquisition of this knowledge has served its purpose in the mental training which it has afforded, and which

qualifies the graduate, when taking his place in the world, to readily interpret facts and phenomena, and solve the daily problems with which he has to deal in his new environment.

The old grammar school spent its energies in discovering and coaching clever boys, and starting them on the way to college. Those who showed capacity of a lower grade or of a different sort, received little attention or encouragement. The high school which gives its best efforts to college preparation wrongs the public which maintains it. We recognize the fact that there are other careers just as honorable and noble, and as directly useful to humanity as those which a college training can open to a young man. It is indispensable, then, that the curriculum of the high school be broad, that as many avenues as possible be open to the youthful mind, in order that when the graduate is ready to choose his calling he may not be ignorant of the great field of possibilities which life has spread before him. The secondary school is unique as the place for discovering a boy to himself.

Again, it is in the secondary schools that all the public and many of the junior high school teachers of our country receive their non-professional training. If liberality of thought and breadth of view are desirable anywhere, it is in our teachers. Our high schools can do much to promote this end by providing prospective teachers a broad and well-balanced curriculum, which will fortify them against narrowness of aim and view, infuse them with an ambition toward higher attainments, and form a basis for future experience and study.

Before closing I wish to say a word or two regarding the high school's work along the line of ethical and moral training. The need for higher standards of morality in public life is one of the most urgent needs of our age. Every newspaper cites fresh instances of men who have betrayed the trust reposed in them by the state or corporation. Every paper is full of the advertisements of clever but heartless sharks who make a livelihood by preying on an unwary public. The boys of to-day will be the men of to-morrow. What can the high school do to promote integrity and honesty of life and conduct? In the first place it shares this work with the home, the church, the Sunday school, and other organizations working along moral lines. Each has its own best method of accomplishing its purpose. I think we are all agreed that the best results are obtained in our schools, not from any formal ethical teaching, but from

judiciously making applications along lines of right living wherever in the course of the other work of the school an application may be suitably made, and where the pupils may realize the full force of the argument from the concrete example. Teachers of literature and history have most ample opportunities for the discussion of moral questions with their pupils. Success in this work, however, must depend largely, if not wholly, on the character and personality of the teacher. A teacher of strong moral tendencies, who gets in close touch with his pupils and makes them feel that he is in full sympathy with all their interests, whether it be in the class room or on the playground, can, without uttering a word along moral lines, become a powerful agent for good. If, on the other hand, he lacks the proper attributes of character, if his own life is not in harmony with what he attempts to teach, he may moralize till doomsday, and in the end, because of his insincerity, do more harm than good.

Our modern high school has, we see, great possibilities, but with these come also great responsibilities. To realize its greatest worth it must be quick to see and prompt to meet the needs of its student body; it must be a living force in close touch with the public life about it. It must be a creator of public sentiment, using its influence to foster and strengthen all that is good in our national life, and to discourage and uproot wrong tendencies. We shall expect its course of instruction to impart a fair amount of general knowledge, which will broaden the horizon of life and give the young graduate a good asset when entering on any career he may choose; and at the same time to give him a liberal mental training, which will stand him in good stead in meeting and coping with the perplexing problems which will daily confront him; to instil high ideals of life and conduct; to inculcate habits of obedience and self-denial; to inspire with the laudable ambition for success in life; to make good citizens, and if need be, worthy rulers.

THE HIGH SCHOOL AS A PREPARATION FOR LIFE.

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The topic assigned me by the programme committee conveys in a few words the vague popular conception of the aim of not only the ideal high school, but of the public school in general. Popular conceptions are often, no doubt, misconceptions. In this case, however, I am not sure but the ideal of the thoughtful teachers of to-day is identical with that of the public; for, nowithstanding that each of us claims the privilege of interpreting the terms "preparation" and "life" in accordance with his own intellectual, moral, social and religious axioms, almost all of us will, nevertheless, admit that, when challenged to justify our calling as teachers or to defend any principle of school administration,—whether it be curriculum of studies or rules of discipline—our first and last reply is couched in terms which set forth our conception of the school as aiming to prepare youth to do its part fittingly in the world. The presumption is that the interests and activities of the school are, or should be, determined by the world in which we live. The teacher is above all things else a student of life; his constant endeavor is to set forth the knowledge and activities of the school in their bearing upon life in its material, moral and other relations. It has come to pass, thus, that the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake has been superseded as an educational aim. So much has been accomplished, however largely our practice may as yet fail to come up with our purposes.

Educational aim, it would thus appear, has come within measurable distance of an acceptable definition. It is, at any rate, definable in generally acceptable terms. It should not be considered strange, however, if, with our conflicting views of life and life's purposes, of success in life, there were still considerable dispute as to the content of these terms, and, therefore, conflict as to the means by which the school shall best constitute itself an interpreter of life and a preparation for its realities. Life, indeed, means something so very differ-

ent to the philosopher, to the artisan, to the theologian, to the artist to the man of affairs, that, the nearer we approach that stage in his career where the pupil is to part company forever with his teacher, the greater we find to be the difference of opinion as to how the pupil's time and energies shall be employed; as to what "faculties" shall be most exercised, what knowledges and facilities most cultivated. To state authoritatively that the high school period should be one of preparation for life is by no means to settle the questions of high school practice, method and curriculum.

Within the common school, opinion is in a somewhat more settled condition. Here, indeed, educational theory and practice have progressed even beyond that point in our educational development from which the public school is viewed as a preparation for life. To-day, the thoughtful teacher of the common school grades tells us that it is not so much as a preparation for the remote period of adult life that she regards the school period as constituting in itself life—a life capable of a perfection of its own. The school, she declares, will prove itself to be a preparation for adult life in the active world in proportion as it practices its young people in the art of living fully their proper life through the successive stages of infancy, youth and adolescence. Education *is* life; is a part of the biological process.

The doctrine is by no means new. It was the gospel proclaimed by Rousseau. It is the keynote of kindergarten theory and practice. And now science comes to the support of philosophic insight, and affirms the identity of education and life as a biological fact. Kindergarten and elementary education are, thus, in a fair way of becoming established on an unassailable, scientific basis.

Can we say so much for the outlook in high school and college? To put the questions in another form: Are high school and college activities determined to-day in view of existing social, political, moral, industrial and artistic conditions, or are they still timidly chosen out of deference to a past whose schools fashioned men for tasks no longer set; for a world now past and gone; for a life simple and sufficient for the times, but impossible and worthless in an age devoted to the amelioration of man's lot through mastery of the material and physical as well as of the intellectual and moral? Or, leaving aside all consideration of the college and its fitness or unfitness to fashion the men of action of to-day, let us frankly ask ourselves whether the high school stands on a foundation of its

own, or whether it is only, as yet, a semi-detached part of the collegiate structure? Do high school administrators undertake to solve the problems of life irrespective of traditions imposed by the classical college? We think they should.

We sometimes hear the high school spoken of as "the people's college," and, sometimes, in a lucid interval, "the people" are to be heard asking how it comes that collegiate boards of classical colleges should be permitted to dictate the programme of studies for the people's schools. Not that they would repel any interest in popular education manifested by the guardians of select learning: such would be mere churlishness; besides, in a democratic community, all classes have a right to a hearing. Nevertheless, the friends of an efficient popular education owe it to themselves to undertake the regulation of "the people's colleges"—that is to say the high schools—in the interests of the great body of the public that support them and attend them, far more than in the interests of those few who use them as a highway to the peculiar learning of the arts college. High school programmes of study and high school methods constitute a problem to be studied in its bearing upon general needs and general efficiency, and not so largely as heretofore in its relation to the demands of the matriculation boards of institutions whose courses of study badly need revision and enrichment.

There are, it appears, certain studies and certain methods of study whose hold on the popular imagination is fixed with the grip of death. Time was in the history of human progress when no substitutes for classical and mathematical studies were forthcoming. These are the tasks, we are told, that fashioned the great intellects of the past. Without undertaking to deny them their proper value in the past, or their present great technical and special value, we have still a right to ask how many intellects they have stifled and discouraged; and whether those great minds that are cited in proof of their disciplinary value may not, in many cases, have become great in spite of rather than in virtue of that discipline.

Unquestionably, the making of a course of study and the detailing of methods for a high school that will be in keeping with our civilization and the forms of our intellectual, social and material activity are no trivial undertaking. That the average educational administration shrinks from it and is content to copy traditional procedure is not remarkable. To join the forces of Reform would

mean to adopt the strenuous life: to throw in one's lot with Tradition costs in nothing except, perhaps, in conscience. The time is, nevertheless, approaching when the task must be fairly faced. High school education must be re-organized and administered as a preparation not so much for collegiate studies as for life, if, indeed, it be not interpreted, like the common school, as life itself, as a part of the great biological, spiritual and social process. There is, as yet, however, no occasion for precipitate action. A period of protracted experimentation must precede the ultimate solution of the high school problem.

Thorough-going revolution in any part of the social organization is necessarily slow of accomplishment. Conviction reaches the popular mind only through repeated and varied demonstration. In education everyone of us has probably found himself temporarily in a state of mind on certain questions where conviction seemed impossible. It was futile to try to decide whether this or that subject should be allowed to lapse from the programme; whether this or that aim should determine the method of procedure. The fact is, we lacked a definite educational philosophy. Worse and more fundamental, we lack to-day a settled and definitive world-philosophy. And education, so purporting, will be spared many humiliations if its partisans will stop and consider that present-day aims are not ultimate and definitive, but that educational effort is, at the present stage, largely experimental. Educational hypotheses are shifting with our changing views of life's purposes, opportunities, and responsibilities; and pedagogic theory is likely to remain in a fluid state for some time to come.

In the meantime it is the office of the educationist to propound ever and anew an educational philosophy built upon his own synthetic world-philosophy, to reduce this to simple principles, and to test these in educational practice. Better renewed and repeated failure in this task than to give up in despair and to allow educational practice to relapse into those outworn forms belonging to a period when scholarship was an end in itself—when the student lived for study, instead of studying to live more abundantly.

The common school has, we affirm, for some time past prided itself upon its aim to secure to the pupil his full heritage of life. It has taught the public to accept and to believe in it as, within the limits of its action, a preparation for life's privileges and enjoyments, its responsibilities and its tasks; nay, even to regard the school

as supplying a fuller measure of life than would otherwise be obtained; aiming, as it were, to convey the child out in the broad world; conceiving the school as no longer circumscribed in its vision and its activities by four walls and a roof. In evidence of all this we note the increasing willingness of the public to accept those late additions to the programme of studies which, isolated and partially effective as their treatment still remains, are seriously intended to bring the school into closer relation with modern life. We refer to manual training, household economy, nature-study, drawing, music, and that limited study of social and political conditions which passes by the name of civics. Unfortunately, these new studies stand to be discounted in the popular estimate in the near future for the very reason that framers of courses of study, examiners and teachers, swept into the current of traditional school practices, have permitted them to be treated as isolated "subjects;" have kept attention fixed too closely on a schedule of school tasks, and too little upon the pupil himself, in his various biological, social and moral-religious relations. It would seem, indeed, that the recent promise of a common school reformed in accordance with its aims is still a considerable distance from general fulfilment, As in the high school, so, not uncommonly, in the common school, subjects of study are still preserved in separate compartments, to be taken out periodically and locked up again in isolation when the allotted time has expired. Traditions of routine and isolation are still so potent as to fasten themselves upon each in turn of the newer activities which in their initiation were hopefully regarded as embodying a vital unifying principle. The very machinery of the school remains unaltered, and this fact in school, as in an industrial concern, is significant. New machinery costs; but without new and improved machinery, it is unlikely that the crowded common school with its average teacher—neither philosopher nor genius—has the power within itself to maintain order, continuity, and an acceptable output of formal acquirements without obliterating genuine educational values.

Framers of courses of study may insist upon the enrichment, through varied and interrelated activities of the programme, and consequently, of the life of the pupil; but it is hardly to be hoped that the teacher with no philosophy of life or of education to guide her, no wide experience to draw upon, no extensive learning to inspire her, will administer the proposed new interests except as superadded "subjects" to be dealt with after the manner of the merely

formal studies, within text-book limitations and in accordance with examination requirements. Worst of all, the time given to the innovations is often spent to the great detriment of those formal acquirements and facilities which are indispensable in life, and with danger to that unity of consciousness which is the basis of character.

Let us now point out some of the obstacles that prevent the high school from realizing its aim as preparatory to life in its fuller sense. Probably the first one that would suggest itself to the overworked high school teacher in the average under staffed school, is that of reconciling the seemingly conflicting interests of the various classes of students, who demand assistance in the accomplishment of immediate and diverse aims. There is, for example, in almost every high school a group of students who, following in the wake of generations, seek only to be invested with those kinds of knowledge necessary to satisfy the entrance requirements of college faculties. Their demand for special and peculiar knowledge, backed as it is by the authority of the highest seats of learning, the state-supported school does not dare to refuse. There are, again, those numerous aspirants to classified and scheduled knowledge of a wider though, popularly considered, less ambitious type, namely, those pupils who desire to pass the state tests leading to admission to license to teach. Again, there is the largest class of all, made up of those who have not as yet decided on a career, and who would, therefore, choose a course of study contributory to general culture or to industrial or commercial efficiency. For which of these three classes can it be asserted that the high school of to-day affords, except in a very narrow sense, a preparation for life? In the case of aspirants to collegiate careers the curriculum is fixed by collegiate requirements; and certainly it can hardly be maintained that, except in a very indirect way, matriculation tests call for much knowledge of or acquaintance with—not to say, experience of—modern life. The voice of discontent has already been raised, and high school students who have passed on to the colleges only to find that there, too, the mockery of traditional scholarship is set up over the philosophy, science and art of life, are the persons loudest in their indignation at the perversion of the proper functions of the high school.

Collegiate preparation remains virtually what it was generations ago. It has not changed with the times or expanded with the growth of human interests. Far from constituting in itself a fitting life for the youth it professes to benefit, it does not even concern itself

with the affairs of the pupil except in so far as academic learning can be made to appear his affair. "Preparation for life" is postponed. Promises are, indeed, made of "preparation" and of opportunity for spontaneous activity once the college is reached: how truly these are kept, let each college reply. Briefly stated, within the collegiate high school, youth and youthful interests, vocation and avocation, youthful impulses, youthful ethics, are too commonly viewed as regrettable incidents rather than as golden opportunities for the educator. Hints of special aptitudes for scientific enquiry, for mechanical construction and design, for social organization, for civic service, for leadership, for literary or artistic endeavor, pass unheeded, or perhaps furnish occasion for disparaging comment, such impulses being regarded as interfering with the activities called for by the traditional collegiate requirements.

It is, in short, not too bold to assert that the standard set by college entrance examinations is a measure almost solely of the candidate's facility in certain formal tasks, and not of his intellectual and moral development. Herein lies the greatest obstacle to the development of the high school as a school of life. The old hierarchy of knowledges still holds sway over human imagination. Certain knowledges there are which are more respectable, nay, higher than others. Pseudo-psychology and metaphysics constitute a politer learning than the study of our civic institutions and our social order. The grammar of ancient tongues is a nobler study than biology or agriculture. Higher education has come to mean, popularly, the study of select subjects rather than the continued and profounder search after those principles that interpret the material and moral order in which we live and move. We cannot, therefore, be surprised if we find it to be largely the case that traditionally reputable subjects like the classical languages (which in our country are seldom pursued to the literary stage) are chosen for study by young people whose scholastic careers are to end with the high school, and that the methods of scientific, historical and literary study are simply those that for centuries have been pursued in the study of the dead languages. In other words, text-book conning and the memorizing of unverified principles are practised to the exclusion of all effort to cultivate the pupil's power of independent observation, induction and inference.

To pass from the intellectual to the moral sphere of youthful activity, we find little development in progress in the high school.

As in the matter of physical training, so in that of training the moral and social powers, almost everything is left to chance. Not infrequently the highest honors of school or college are bestowed on young persons belonging to the class of the unsocial or to that of the morally undeveloped. Education, modern philosophy asserts, is a socializing process. That it should be admits of no question; but in the educational institutions that are, the principle is unheeded. Success at school continues to mean success in the narrow range of tasks prescribed by the curriculum; and within the school there is neither time nor place to set forth the duties of young people in relation to the moral and social order in which they live. Even good manners —those outward and visible manifestations of inward moral perception—receive scant and grudging attention; while such considerations as those of vocal utterance, or accurate and fluent speech, pass unheeded so long as the traditional instruction in rhetoric and written composition is handed down to successive classes. No wonder that the speaking voice of the average Canadian is becoming a reproach to us through its growingly nasal and guttural qualities, when the attention of teachers is so seldom directed to the importance of cultivating in themselves and in their pupils that first essential to a becoming self-respect, a well-uttered and accurately fashioned English.

Let us here and now recognize that as teachers we are to a considerable extent responsible in the matters of the voice, the language, the morals and the social qualities of the young people committed to us to be educated. Surely we ought not to require the framing of a new curriculum and the imposition of regulations by official authority before we take the initiative in discharging our obligation. No work accomplished for our pupils will surpass in ultimate value our achievement in this domain; for there are higher human intelligences than the mathematical, scientific and philological, and among these are the moral-religious sense and the perception of social order. These are the higher values in education, and upon these the school of the future will insist. We sometimes hear the advocates of ancient forms of learning decry the modern ideal of "efficiency" in education. It may well be that immediate utility is not a satisfactory test of the educative value of a study; but we are here discussing not so much school studies as a direct appeal to the moral and social elements in youthful nature; and we have little fear but the veriest reactionary in school curricula will admit that efficiency in respect of what we here recommend is a desideratum in education.

ENGLISH IN THE FIRST YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

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Columbia University.

THE problem I have to do with to-day is one that will confront every high school teacher on the opening day of school in this and all subsequent years. What can the teacher of English do for the boy or girl at the outset of his high school course?

The early years of the high school offer an opportunity, unusual for a Canadian teacher, of a free consideration of his problem of education. The acts of conformity which in the later years of the high school course impose mandatory duties upon him, are less strenuous. The provincial examinations loom still at a safe distance. He can for a while, if he will, be a teacher independent in material and method. In the first year there is the freedom of teaching.

At this initial stage, we can look at the basic principles of the subject. There, if anywhere, we must see clearly and organize effectively. And from the basic ideas applied at the outset all subsequent study of English work must develop.

As my first point I plead for the organization of English study. In the sense that the teaching of mathematics or Latin is an organized study, English, except in formal grammar, is not organized. The teaching of literature is not organized, and the teaching of composition, I might almost say, is not organized. In the two great departments of English, we have still to secure the progressive steps in the orderly development of the subject that constitutes the economy and efficiency of any instrument of education. And our correlation of material of English to the pupil's interests is still only imperfectly realized in the teacher's mind, and imperfectly carried out in his practice.

The organization I plead for, can be secured. For English has a unity. English is not a series of subjects, reading, literature, composition, etc. It is one subject, with various phases. It is one art with various media of expression. Its unity, its vitality must be guarded, like the human spirit itself. For English is our very spirit,

our very faculty. Our language is the very means of our thinking at all, the only communication between life and life, and our literature, is the fountain of our ideas and of our ideals. Other studies may give us information; other courses may develop this aptitude or that. But English is the very centre and essential substance of education. It must reach the essential human in the child, or it is nothing. Such a subject must be the pre-eminent subject throughout the public school. It will remain the prominent subject, with all but exceptional pupils, throughout the high school.

Hugh Miller tells us of his schooling, that he had entered upon the highest form of the dame's school, but "all the while the process of learning," he said, "had been a dark one, when at once my mind awoke to the meaning of the most delightful of all narratives—the story of Joseph. Was there ever such a discovery made before? I actually found out for myself, that the art of reading is the art of finding stories in books; and from that moment reading became one of the most delightful of my amusements." That was the point where Hugh Miller became educated, where his English became vital—the point where his spirit woke up, where he heard the call to a new world of thought and feeling and aspiration. After that nothing could stop his progress. What Hugh Miller found out for himself by accident of genius, every child should learn by reason of good teaching. The teacher who can awaken his pupil to love good reading is, indeed, a teacher of English.

But is organization really needed? some one asks. Have we in Ontario not the best possible English curriculum in the best possible high school system? Let me put a concrete case. In this province, in a secondary school system in many ways unsurpassed, what is for most pupils—in the last years of their high school course—the literature studied? They have spent their year on 2,140 lines of Tennyson—half that some of his poorest work, "Enoch Arden"—and one play of Shakespeare. This presumes careful reading, no doubt. In the high schools of the United States, pupils of the same age, at the same stage of their work, following the prescription of the college entrance requirements, were examined on, for careful reading, a great oration—Burke, "On Conciliation with America," two great essays—Macaulay's "Addison" and his "Dr. Johnson"; the finest poetry—the minor poems of Milton; and Shakespeare's "Julius Cæsar." Moreover, they were examined for general reading on Addison and Steele's "Sir Roger de Coverly Papers," Coleridge's

"Ancient Mariner," George Eliot's "Silas Marner," Irving's "Life of Goldsmith," Scott's "Ivanhoe" and his "Lady of the Lake," and Shakespeare's "Macbeth" and "The Merchant of Venice." The American requirement is not twice as much, or three times as much, but over eight times as much. Which system is right? Which system do you prefer? Which most nearly mirrors the healthy literary interests of a youth of promise? I should like to ask any group of members of this association to say what books in their opinion a boy (or girl) during his seventeenth year could—with due regard to other claims upon him—be expected, as a developing intelligent being to read. The list would make even the American list look small.

The results of English instruction in the high schools leave us dissatisfied. And the emphasis that has been put upon it in the past years is now found placed on other subjects—on subjects of science particularly. We teachers of English must bestir ourselves, revise, amplify, revitalize. We should be debating courses of study and methods. We must lift up the dead hand of regulation a little, and let the vital play of life and the wonderful appeal of literature be felt in our handling of this great subject.

The new schools of education of Toronto and McGill Universities are bound to stimulate such inquiry and experiment.

As the first step in organization, we should realize what are the essential phases of English. In the last twenty or thirty years various aspects of the subject have had special emphasis and special attention. Many here have seen Grammar in its palmy days. Some have studied literature by deriving all the words in sight. All of us have passed through the era of "correct English." We could mark off each of the few decades of English study with its respective dominant phase of instruction. Each one tried, enthroned, and dethroned. It may be merely illusory, our belief that we ourselves are now approaching a final statement of English work. In the 1920's they may speak as disrespectfully of us—that seems incredible—as we do of the purists, etymologists, grammarians, who ruled ten, twenty, thirty years ago.

What makes us believe that we are approaching a final statement of English is that we have come in these late years to a fresh viewpoint. We have come to consider the central fact of the whole question—the child himself. Earlier teachers taught subjects—grammar, correct English, etymologies, etc. The pupil was not

considered. The child's world, its personality, its interests, its growth—these were not related to the subjects taught. In these later years the spirit of Rousseau and Froebel has pervaded education, and has reached even the high school. We know the child as a bundle of forces latent and active—with a psychology of its own, demanding to be studied. We seek humbly to place ourselves where the child really lives, to give him at the right time the training that will strengthen him, the food that will nourish him.

English is, as I have said, one subject, and the stalk that is growing at the first year must thicken and toughen, spread and flower, bear fruit, year by year. English develops not by adding subject unto subject. It must develop in accordance with the developing powers of the pupil. It must be a part of that development, as a child's speech must be a part of his natural growth.

If we look, then, where the child really lives, what do we find that concerns the problem of English? The testimony is abundant in every home. But we can best see the bearings of child testimony in the childhood of genius. For genius writes large the experience of average humanity, and the records are kept. The biographies of men and women of genius will yield the teacher a mass of testimony concerning his problem. As the river goes back to its springs, the ultimate destiny of a great character can be traced back to his childhood. He showed there his dominant qualities, he read the books that made him, he led then the life that moulded his after thought. And these men and women of genius are simply life in large type, their experiences are not unique, they are typical, they are the average mind in some aptitudes magnified and more legible.

Especially does it seem to me that teachers of English can get help in the biographies of men and women of letters. For the records have there been most carefully preserved, the relation studied between the childhood and mature life. Wordsworth could say of himself

> "My heart leaps up when I behold
> A rainbow in the sky,
> So was it when my life began,
> So is it now I am a man,
> So be it when I shall grow old
> Or let me die;
> The Child is father to the Man!"

These fortunate ones found the way, pursued the path. We seek to bring our pupils some little distance on the way the greatest went.

LITERATURE.

The childhood of literary genius shows us first the immense stimulus and formative power of literature, both oral and printed.

Take Sir Walter Scott. It was fortunate that in his childhood the lore of tradition had not yet given way to the lore of books. History, legend, ballad poetry were still told by word of mouth, and the story told has for the child ten times the power of the story read. Into Scott's retentive brain they poured legend, and ballad and Border story.

From early life he delighted in history, especially for its striking and picturesque incident. On collections of old songs and romances, he tells us, "he fastened like a tiger."

He devoured fairy tales, read Shakespeare with rapture, and above all fairly found himself in Percy's "Reliques." He was then thirteen years of age—the age of the first year of the high school. "To read," he said, "and to remember was in this instance the same thing, and henceforth I overwhelmed my school fellows, and all who would hearken to me, with my tragical recitations from the ballads of Bishop Percy. The first time, too, I could scrape a few shillings together . . . I bought a copy of these beloved volumes, nor do I believe I ever read a book half so frequently, or with half the enthusiasm." (Autobiography).

Note the process: The child's instinctive reaching out for romance and incident—the choice of material; the easy, unconscious memorizing of delightful material; the reproductive impulse expressed in dramatic recitation; the desire to own books that have become precious for the joy they can give. There is the best part of an English course evolved out of the natural instincts of a child.

[The paper similarly treated the child life of Wordsworth, Ruskin, Keats, Dickens, Rossetti, George Eliot, Tennyson].

What conclusion can we draw from this? First, *that the power of early reading is immense.* Second, *that early reading can, if wisely selected, touch those vital feelings which are the awakening of the child's soul.* Third, *that if our own school readers do not call forth the interest of the pupil, the school readers are badly made.* When the child loves his own story books and hates his reader, it is time something was

changed. The proposed National Readers may accomplish something. There is no more hopeful sign in English education to-day than the revision of the school readers—a revision that admits nothing but literature—classic literature, even in the primer, and nothing at any stage that the child cannot possess and treasure. So potent is the power of the true school-book that I would vary the old saying about a nation's songs. If I were permitted to make the school books of a nation, I need not care who should make its laws. A publisher once told me, he thought the same for himself.

Further, we must note the connection between reading and the dramatic instinct. The child wants to tell the story or act the story that it loves. Scott declaim's the old ballads of Percy's collection. The Rossetti children act "The Lady of the Lake." Dickens told a comic story and sang a comic song when he was so small that he had to be put on a table or a chair to be seen. He had his toy theatre as Goethe had his puppet show and Stevenson had Skelt's Juvenile Drama, "his budgets of romance." The play instinct is indeed one of the most potent forces in a child's life. And yet when a child wants to play we turn him out into the schoolyard. But suppose we could harness that howling cataract in the schoolyard and use its driving power for the ends of education inside the school room!

The study of the childhood of literary genius shows, then, the power of literature of certain kinds. Now it shows a second great fact. The children who loved to read loved to write. There was the response of the instinct of imitation and the play instinct. The creative impulse to write was called out, and fostered by the literature the child heard and read.

[The paper developed this idea in the child life of Scott, Ruskin, Tennyson, Stevenson, Thackeray, Rossetti, the Bronté sisters.]

These are the two essential subjects of English education—"Literature and Composition." Literature, for its ideas, its nutritive and formative power,—to keep alive curiosity, imagination aspiration; composition for its exercise of mental initiative, the cultivation of the do-instinct, the development of independent intellectual activity and personality. These are the essentials. All other subjects of English study grow out of these two chief subjects.

All the English you teach should have as its aim, either literature—i. e., ideas and ideals expressed by others, or Composition—

i. e., our own ideas expressed in speech or writing. They are a duality in unity.

Methods in Literature.

The experience of the childhood of literary genius is full of value for the school room, but its application needs regard to the differing conditions. We are dealing with a class of thirty or forty children; they are average children, and we are dealing with them under the time limitations of the school periods and school life. The average child will have less interest in literature; he will be sluggish in receptivity, narrow in sympathy, and have little initiative for self-activity. You have to explode things under him before he moves mentally. Genius may find itself out, *but the average child must be taught.* Then, too, the material must be selected with regard to its adaptability to lessons as well as its value as literature. We must get the utmost concentration and power that we may penetrate to the dim recesses where the average child lives. Literature, as a school study, must be organized, just as mathematics, or Latin is organized.

How shall literature be organized? First by choice of appropriate literary material.

The literature studied must be rich in *ideas*—in intelligible ideas, germane to the child's life, at the time he meets them. And these ideas must be so presented that they have dynamic power, by their very nature and expression, to touch the child nature. It must give, for instance, not an idea of courage merely, but the concrete human image, that the child can visualize, or realize dramatically:—

> "Said John, Fight on, my merry men all
> I am a little hurt but am not slain,
> I will lay me down for to bleed awhile
> And then I'll rise and fight with you again."

or—

> "Sink me the ship, master gunner, sink her, split her in twain,
> Fall into the hands of God, not into the hands of Spain."

Those are truths of action. There are also truths of thought. At times the poet reaches up through his material to great eternal

truth. Wordsworth in his "Daffodils," goes out and beyond the mental picture to the eternal influence of beauty—

> "For oft when on my couch I lie
> In vacant or in pensive mood,
> They flash upon that inward eye
> Which is the bliss of solitude.
> And then my heart with pleasure fills,
> And dances with the daffodils."

Teaching that poem you are teaching life. And the business of the literature teacher is not literature but life. There are the beautiful myths of the ancients; the stories of Homer; the fairy stories of the Celts; the legends that have gathered about King Arthur; the shrewd wisdom of life epitomized in the fable literature of Æsop and La Fontaine; such are some of the sources of the true Readers for the teaching of English. Please remember that the authorized readers may or may not be good. If you must use a reader, supplement its selections by appropriate material. Perhaps you will make a better book, yourself. And the publishers will print it. The Department will authorize it. Little children will love it, and you will live happily ever after.

If you were making an outline of first year high school English, would you follow that of the best book written on "Methods of Teaching English":—First year, "Ivanhoe" and two or three of the following of Scott's novels; "Waverley," "Rob Roy," "Anne of Geierstein," "Old Mortality;" "Silas Marner," "The House of the Seven Gables," "The Last of the Mohicans," selections from Irving, "The Lady of the Lake." Or would you follow the outline of say the new syllabus (1905) of the New York City high schools, where a suggested course for the first year is "The Prisoner of Chillon" and "Mazeppa," and Scott's "Ivanhoe" in the first half-year; Selections from Browning and Selected Essays of Emerson for the second half year. I cannot account for the selection of Emerson, except that New York is trying to rival its rural suburb, Boston, where they have Emerson in words of one syllable for the kindergarten.

The first plan is faulty because it omits, except the "Lady of the Lake," the most vital element of literature—poetry. And the prose chosen, admirable in quality, is about all of vast length. The

practical teacher is painfully aware of the difficulty of teaching such prose literature, as the pupil is of studying it. The New York City plan is better, but not good.

I venture to believe that the best result will come when we have a specific body of poetry for class study and a body of prose fiction for general home reading. And the kind of poetry chosen should be determined by its particular appeal. We should certainly have romantic literature ballads like "Jeanie Armstrong," "The Heir of Lynne," "Scots wha Hae," "Jock o' Hazledean," "Dundee," "Ride from Ghent to Aix," "Hervé Riel," "Ballad of the 'Revenge,'" "Light Brigade," "Forced Recruit," "Private of the Buffs," "Ballad of the East and West," "Burial of Sir John Moore," "Mariners of England," "Battle of Ivry," "Horatius," "The Ancient Mariner." There should also be a bodyof pure lyric poetry—such as "Songs from Shakespeare," Wordsworth's "Reverie of Poor Susan," "Daffodils," "Solitary Reaper," "Skylark," "Cuckoo;" Byron's "Isles of Greece," Shelley's "Cloud," "Skylark;" Songs of "The Princess," "The Brook," and others that will easily occur to your mind.

These poems with few exceptions can be dealt with in a lesson or two. Every teacher knows the advantage of lessons with unity. To do something every day—do it clearly, fully—end it up, then on to the next step—that is the ideal of a lesson. The short poem allows that lesson unity.

And organize that material, first with regard to ideas, so that we shall place, day by day in the child's mind ideas of dynamic power on life and nature—ideas of courage, endurance, daring, love of country, love of home, friends, beauty, comfort, teaching, joy of nature.

To this lyric and ballad poetry, should be added the larger field of complex life in the drama. Include at least one play of Shakespeare, and use the play instinct to the full, in the rendering of scenes. Discuss the motives of the characters with the pupils as this is their first introduction to the psychology of the social life they are growing into.

Prose literature must also be included. It is easier reading. The child can be left almost to himself. Prose too is closer to his own normal life, thought and speech. For the first year or two it should be mainly romantic fiction. Short stories like "Rip Van Winkle" and the "Legend of Sleepy Hollow," but more certainly one or two novels like "Waverley" or "Ivanhoe." The lesson unit should

be enforced—one day's class work for theme, or characters, or main action, or minor actions, chief incidents. The classwork should be brief—just a few questions carrying the class a few chapters on in the development of the study. The treatment as far as possible is to be oral discussion with a convincing sense of the reality of the human experience chronicled. For fiction, like poetry, deals with universal truth.

But the stress should be on poetry. It has the ideas, the dynamic force. "Good poetry," said Arnold, "is formative." Poetry is not read more because people do not learn to read it. They cannot, many of them, read literature in which ten times more is suggested than meets the eye. That is why Browning especially is a closed book to most. Our school study of poetry must remedy this deficiency.

Out of literature grows reading—the expression of that literature understood. Imitation is the chief process in learning to read. *Poetry must be read aloud* by the teacher with an ear to its musical suggestion. Good poetry touches the subtlest chords of human thought by its music. Sound has infinite possibilities of suggestion. The teacher who merely reads aloud with sympathy of heart and voice, I account a good teacher of English. Among the most vivid recollections of my own public school days are the memories of certain parts of "Hamlet"—the ghost scene—and Tennyson's "Geraint and Enid" read aloud by the teacher. It wasn't expected of him; the regulations said nothing about it; possibly the inspector, had he dropt in, might have objected. Yet there in the midst of childish years shine those readings—"Hamlet" and "Enid." And the teacher who read, just passed away, was the most esteemed, the most loved, the most influential among all public school teachers I know of.*

By reading aloud, by public recitation, we experience the peculiar power poetry has of touching our sub-conscious nature. We feel, by reading aloud, the deep, vibrant personality of Shakespeare, or Tennyson's pathos, Shelley's aspiration. It is especially by his music of verse that we touch the soul of the writer.

I am sorry the pupil's recitation and declamation are no longer in vogue. They are, we admit, apt to encourage artificiality and romantic flights. We have cast our end-of-the-era realism over the romantic temperament of youth, and scoff at schoolboy flights.

* Samuel McAllister, late Principal of Ryerson Public School, Toronto.

I regret the passing away of the good old times when the Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold, and Horatius held the bridge, when the deep and dark blue ocean rolled, when one joined the innumerable caravan in the school declamations. Those times bred the poets and orators of America—perhaps of Canada.

Out of literature grows the *developing study of literary form*, in this grade,—the meaning of the lyric, the ballad, the drama, the novel; also the *developing study of expression*,—the primary figures and verse forms. All this means organizing the study of literature —the most un-organized subject in the curriculum.

Out of literature also grows memorizing of literature. Literature is most effective when memorized. It is then applied internally, as the doctor might say. It develops the pupil's language. He grows toward the measure of the authors he knows by heart. Thought has a strange reproductive power. Plant a great idea in the mind; let it stay, even uncared for, and lo! when you return it has sent out shoots of thought in all directions. Your mental texture is enriched permanently. Scott and Macaulay memorized easily and much; John Bright regularly, year by year, learnt by heart one of our longer English poems. As the boy continues to memorize, his own diction will become tinged and suffused and transmuted. He will have a perfect standard of speech in the memory of the words of great men, and that great blessing—the consciousness of his ability to speak before men without being ashamed.

Composition.

The second fundamental subject is composition. The spirit, and material, and method of composition teaching, I have sought to embody in a little book with which some of you are perhaps familiar; which has won a cordial reception in the United States as in Canada, because it stands for something in composition that many of us believe is vital to true composition teaching. The idea is not universally accepted. You will find regulations telling you "correlate your composition to your literature." Rather correlate composition to life, the child's life. It is the distinct effort of the child's intellectual activity seeking expression. It is not theme work imposed on the child, it is not, in its essence, correctional, not analytic. It is creative—a movement of the child's personality from within out. Even in its most rudimentary stages, it is a creative process—the seeking after the form and expression of thought.

[The paper developed the principles of composition teaching: the expression of daily experience, observation, reflection, imagination, enriching the mind by varied material of story, battle, myth, history, industrial processes, orations; the uses of models as compendious hints for treatment of material].

Theme correction leaves the teacher little time. The drudgery of theme correction! is the bitter cry of the composition teacher. (1) Make it less a drudgery by getting more interesting themes for the pupils. Make a rule for their writing—brief but interesting. (2) Make it less a drudgery by using oral composition. Make a card catalogue of stories. Take the monthly page of miscellaneous stories in the *Ladies' Home Journal*—give a story to each of the pupils in the class. Have him learn the story and stand up next day and tell the story to the class. Seek above all in theme correction to establish the habit of self correction. Make the child a constant critic of his own speech. By mutual exchange of exercises, make him the critic of his neighbor's work.

But the teacher must keep in touch with his pupils by steady reading of their work. For that he must have free hours in school-time. I appeal to head masters present to arrange the schedule that the burden of composition teaching may be lightened.

Out of composition—oral and written—grows grammar. We must teach grammar. In the lower high school we must study the instrument of all expression—the sentence; its parts and their functions.

We may get along without grammar in conquering patent errors and vulgarisms of the class-room. We may suppress errors by authority. Do not say:

> Let me *lay* down; say, let me *lie* down.
> I *done* it; say I *did* it.
> We *seen* him; say, We *saw* him.

Do not say:

> Divide it *between* the class; say
> Divide it *among* the class.
> *Those* sort of books; say *That* sort of books.

I cannot but think that ten minutes' drill of this nature weekly, and the habit of the teacher immediately to correct errors of speech

made in the class recitations, would do more to kill the chief vulgarisms of common speech than all the formal grammar taught to-day in our public schools.

But such a system of instruction is not, strictly speaking, education at all, though a very useful military drill for junior pupils. Dogmatic teaching would help with the more barbarous errors of language, but it would scarcely help with the subtler errors. A Toronto alderman I overheard at dinner yesterday saying "It's not for you and I to dispute him."

Here the essential relation of preposition and object is involved yet disguised. No amount of training on individual instances would compare in efficacy for the regulation of the pupil's speech with rational training,—with the recognition of the principle involved —that is, the establishment of a habit of grammar; and that recognition enforced by exercises. The ear may suffice to recognize the errors "I seen," "I done," etc., but no amount of ear training possible in the school would suffice to guide the pupil in more complex constructions of language. For that, there must be a fundamental knowledge of the sentence—its parts and their functions—the forms of etymology, the laws of syntax.

But its method should not be merely analytic or merely inductive. It should be constructive—a phase of composition, teaching, working, through both analysis and construction. I plead for an extension throughout the teaching of grammar, at this early stage, of what I shall call composition-grammar.

In dealing with the imperative sentence or the interjection, for example, imagine the ceiling fall, or a fire break out, a storm bursts—make the likely commands or exclamations. Keep the teaching vivid, personal, near to actual life; use the child's insatiable desire for self-activity. In analytical work, use sentences and passages that have a good content of thought. For purposes of grammar "This road leads but to the butcher's" is as good as "The paths of glory lead but to the grave." But their total potential effect is universally different. We can, too, enliven the abstractions of grammar by the humor of the schoolroom—the curious and amusing definitions that come up again and again in children's answers, which should be noted down and used for illustration and criticism.

Lastly out of the unity of the subject in the child's mind comes the necessity of the unity of teaching. The pupil should have for his English of the first year one teacher and only one. To that

teacher is committed the opportunity, the duty, the responsibility, the glory of achievement.

How mighty is the field of endeavor of this English instructor! In his literature classes, he leads on to the mightiest literature the world has ever seen. In his grammar classes, he studies the organ of all literature and all expression. In his composition class, he is training a power of first rate importance in practical life, a power which the world has cherished throughout the ages as man's highest gift.

Surely Gœthe's message in Carlyle's words is for the teachers of English—

> Here is all fullness
> Ye have to reward you—
> Work and despair not.

Inspection and Training

Minutes of the Inspection and Training Section.

THE Inspection and Training Section met in Room nine at two p.m., Wednesday, July 10th.

On motion of Dr. McIntyre and Miss Cameron, Dr. Soloan was elected to act as chairman in the absence of the President, S. E. Lang.

The chairman then appointed B. J. Hales, B.A., LL.B., Principal Normal School, Brandon, as Secretary.

On motion of Messrs. McIntyre and Hales, the Section adjourned to meet at once with the Primary Section.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH.

The Inspection and Training Section met in Room nine at 2 p.m. with Dr. Soloan in the chair.

The following addresses were then delivered:

President's Address, read by Dr. McIntyre.

"The True Function of the Normal School," A. Melville Scott, B.A., Ph.D., Superintendent Schools, Calgary, Alta.

"The Relation of the Normal School to Inspection." T. E. Perrett, B.A., Principal Normal School, Regina, Sask.

The meeting then adjourned to meet in joint session with the Primary Section.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH.

The Inspection and Training Section met in Room nine at 2 p.m.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing term:

President—David Soloan, B.A., LL.D., Principal Normal School, Truro, N.S.

Secretary—B. J. Hales, B.A., LL.B., Principal Normal School, Brandon, Man.

After the election of officers, Professor Abbott, of Toronto University, read a very interesting paper on "Why Teach Psychology to Teachers-in-Training, and what kind of Psychology do they need?"

The Section adjourned.

NORMAL SCHOOL PROGRAMMES.

S. E. Lang, B.A.

Normal School, Winnipeg.

The programme which has been arranged for the Department of Inspection and Training will occupy the time of two sessions, and the intention is to meet jointly with the Department of Elementary Education at two of its sessions. This arrangement of our time will give an opportunity to deal with the chief fields in which we are interested; the work of the normal school, the work of inspection, and the work of the elementary school. The reason for the existence of this Section, formed as it is of two groups of workers will be dealt with in the course of the convention in the address by Principal Perrett, Regina, on "The Relation of Normal Schools to Inspection and Training." Inspector Moshier is to deal with a subject which is of deep interest to all inspectors and normal school men, namely, The Rural School Problem. This problem must be one of perennial interest to all the members of this section, an important part of the work of the normal school being to supply the rural school with teachers, and an important part of the work of the inspectors being to look after the rural school. It is probable that in the course of the discussion of the rural school problem, we may find time to deal with related problems in connection with urban elementary schools. The other two addresses are closely related to each other: that by Dr. Scott, of Calgary, dealing with the broad question of the "True Function of the Normal School," and that by Dr. Abbott, of Toronto, with a very important question of detail; namely, "The Teaching of Psychology in the Normal School."

The whole question of a suitable programme of studies for normal schools seems sufficiently important to warrant my offering a few remarks upon it.

We are all aware of the great difference of opinion which exists in educational circles with regard to the relation between the so-called academic and the so-called professional studies in the normal

school. Generally speaking the normal schools on the other side of the line carry on academic courses of study parallel to those of the high school. This also is true of the old country and of Europe. In our own country, generally speaking, the practice is to separate as completely as possible the academic from the professional work; so that the whole time of the teacher-in-training is devoted to the theoretical and technical side of the preparation of his calling. In actual practice it is convenient, at times, to depart somewhat from this principle and upon occasion to give instruction in the normal school upon certain academic subjects.

It has been found advantageous and indeed necessary occasionally to give the students-in-training specific instruction in certain branches of study, or practice in certain branches of art, in which they are found to be deficient on entering, and an acquaintance with which is necessary to their work as teachers. Local circumstances may at times make it necessary to deal in this way with deficiencies in the scholastic equipment of the entering students. Nevertheless, this is to be looked upon as an exception to the general plan.

The programme of studies in the normal school must of course be very largely determined by the requirements of the elementary schools. I say very largely, because in nearly all of the provinces there is no provision for the training of teachers for secondary schools. In such cases the normal school, while its chief business is to provide teachers for the elementary school, must also have the high school in mind. It is obvious then, that a considereable portion of the time at the disposal of the normal school will be devoted to a consideration of the subjects to be taught in the elementary school. It will be necessary for the teacher-in-training, who brings with him to the normal school a certificate that he is well acquainted with these subjects from the standpoint of the student, to go over them again from a quite different standpoint, the standpoint of the teacher. This review of the elementary school studies is not a mere re-examination of a set of facts already gone over. It is not a mechanical process of brushing up facts partially forgotten or only half learned. The review of elementary school studies which the teacher-in-training is required to make, is such a new view as is necessary to an understanding of the position which these subjects hold in the hierarchy of studies, their relation to the whole world of knowledge, and hence their educational value with reference to certain educational

aims. This review involves an inquiry into the nature of the subject matter of school studies rather than a detailed step by step repetition of the facts and principles thereof. For example, it asks regarding grammar, not how such and such a sentence is to be analyzed, or how this or that word is to be classified, but rather what is the nature of grammar, what is its relation to other subjects of study, and what place has it in the programme and why?

Another great division of the normal school curriculum may now be mentioned. There are certain fields of knowledge, some of them practically new to the prospective student, into which he must enter. There is the field of mental science, for example. It is generally admitted that he must know something of physiology and hygiene, as well as of mental science. There is probably no normal school in the country in which these subjects are not taught. It is generally recognized that an acquaintance with them, more or less extensive, is not only desirable but necessary. It is recognized, too, though not so generally recognized, that the prospective teacher should know something of biology, and of economics, as well as of the history of education, and that he should round out his knowledge of mental science by devoting some attention, not only to psychology, general and individual, but also to logic, ethics, and æsthetics.

The normal school student does not as a general thing bring with him to his professional studies any great amount of knowledge upon these subjects. He is aware that there are such subjects and it is probable that in the course of his reading and reflection he has formed some slight acquaintance with most of them. It will be admitted, without argument, that all of those mentioned, and probably others have a very direct bearing upon the teachers' work. It will be found necessary to refer to these various fields very frequently in the course of the discussions that are carried on in the normal school. It will be necessary to devote a certain amount of time to direct instruction in each of them.

Owing to the brevity of the normal school term, it becomes necessary to deal very carefully with the problem of the amount of emphasis to be placed upon each of the branches mentioned. It seems, at first sight, an impossible task to furnish forth the teacher-in-training with anything but the merest smattering of them. Indeed, a full academic year of nine months is little enough for all the

purposes of a normal course. With our short terms of four or five months it becomes necessary to select with the utmost care from each of these fields, the fundamental, the outstanding facts and principles which may be made immediately available for the teacher's use. I may say, expressing a personal preference, that taking into consideration the fact that every school boy knows something about physiology and hygiene, the greatest amount of emphasis, the largest share of time, may fairly be given to logic, psychology and ethics. Of these three I am of opinion that the first requires far and away the greatest amount of time, and will prove to be of largest advantage to the teacher in his every-day work. I take it that psychology and logic are related to each other in the same way as anatomy and physiology. As long as we are studying the structure, as one may say, of mental processes, we are in the field of psychology. Logic on the other hand deals with meaning, significance, value, and may be regarded as investigating the functional side of mind. I lay stress upon the study of logic, as a necessary part of the equipment of the teacher. Educational theory must, in the future, more and more seek to build upon logic. The emphasis will not be placed upon old mechanical tricks of the formal syllogism. If the laws of intellectual education must be established upon a logical basis, the student must undertake a serious study of this science as investigating the origin and development of knowledge.

It should not be necessary to insist upon the need of the study of the laws of ethical development to which the human race in general gives expression. We are constantly saying that character, not mere intellectual power, is the finest product of our schools. Every means should be taken to impress upon our teachers the fact that mere intellectuality is as filthy rags compared with moral character. The teacher should be acquainted with moral as well as with mental science, and the normal school should see to it that this subject receives its proper emphasis in teacher training.

So, with the assistance of the sciences spoken of, and keeping close at the same time to the recorded experiences of teachers everywhere, the normal school must continue its effort to build up into more and more systematic form, a steadily accumulating mass of pedagogical facts; in other words, to make out an educational theory as a rationalized endeavor rather than a mere routine.

Another important department of the work of the normal school includes, of course, the work in observation and practice of teaching

under expert criticism and guidance. Here is a large field for difference of opinion. There is no difference of opinion as to the need of observation and practice and the value of criticism; it is all a question of emphasis. One might be inclined to say at first sight, that what the teacher requires chiefly is practice followed by criticism and then more practice and more criticism, until as many as possible of his faults are fined and refined away. Personally, however, I feel inclined to lay greater emphasis upon the value of observation of school-room work and teaching, with frank discussion and criticism between instructor and students. A certain amount of practice teaching by the students is good and necessary. It gives the instructors an opportunity to call the learner's attention to gross faults in manner and method, but it is the easiest thing in the world to carry practice teaching in the normal school to inordinate lengths. What the normal school student requires is not to be trained down fine in mechanical execution of tasks according to a fixed and final model. That course of procedure is likely to destroy initiative and originality. It discourages the beginner from developing his own personality, and makes rather for imitation and formality.

The amount of emphasis placed upon mental science, upon special method, and upon practice teaching, respectively, will depend upon the previous knowledge of the teacher-in-training. If the teacher-in-training has already had a year or two of experience as a teacher, it is obvious that what he requires chiefly is not practice, but a study of the mental and other sciences mentioned, and plenty of observation and discussion of school room procedure. It is equally obvious that the mere apprentice without any practical experience whatever as a teacher, and coming straight from the high school, is to be treated differently. He needs plenty of practice work along with a knowledge of the salient and most immediately available facts of mental science.

This leads me to say that when the high school comes to its own, and certificates its graduates without the assistance or interference of any outside authority, it will be of very great help to the normal school in the selection of candidates for the teaching office. We should no longer depend upon the hit-or-miss plan of a literary examination which has over and over again proved ineffective as a method of selection.

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

A. Melville Scott, B.A., Ph.D.,

Superintendent of Schools, Calgary, Alberta.

I am pleased to meet the men responsible for the training of Canadian teachers, the men who in a quiet and unostentatious way are doing more for the future of our country than the self-important and much-heralded politicians whose grave utterances on all subjects from the price of school books in Ontario to the All-Red Route connecting the British Empire, are fondly supposed to determine the destiny of Canada. Without belittling the office of the statesman, I should like to elevate in the opinion of the public the office and function of the educator in so far as this is possible, for it must be remembered that education, like virtue, is its own reward, and the other rewards, both honorary and pecuniary, are not always accorded.

What is the true function of the normal school? It is not my purpose to try to discourse learnedly to you on the best programme of studies, the proper correlation of subjects, the most suitable length of term, or any of the various phases of this subject more familiar to those engaged in normal school teaching; it is not my intention to bring to you the opinion of educators, past and present, known and unknown, on the training of teachers; rather let me approach the subject from the standpoint of the consumer, the purchaser of the finished product, the employer of teachers after they have been trained.

The consumer determines very largely, in the case of manufactured articles, the process of manufacture and the appearance and make-up of the finished article—the same style of carriage is not offered to the habitant of Quebec and the Western Ontario farmer, though made by the same firm; the wishes of those engaged in the actual work of ploughing the soil, planting the grain, and gathering and threshing the wheat are carefully consulted by the men in authority in firms manufacturing farm implements, and much of the success of many firms has arisen from their evident desire to

meet the wishes and needs of the consumer. Obviously, the teaching profession and the manufacturing industries are not similarly situated, and the comparison must not be carried too far, but is there not a sense in which the school superintendents are justified in saying to the normal school:—"We want such and such a class of teacher, can you undertake to produce and furnish them to us?" And should not the normal schools try to keep in touch with the inspectors, superintendents, and others who have mainly to do with the teachers after they leave the normal, in order to be able, as far as circumstances and the limitations of brain power and general culture will permit, to cultivate those qualities which make for the highest efficiency in after life? And, though the previous training may be very different in different provinces or in different parts of the same province, are there not certain fundamental qualifications necessary to successful teaching, which the normal school may rightly be expected to cultivate or, if necessary, to implant and develop?

My attention has peen particularly called to this aspect of the question by reason of having teachers from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario, Saskatchewan and Alberta all engaged on the staff of the Calgary schools. With different natural gifts, having passed through a variety of forms of secondary training, and having been subject to the peculiarities of examinations and examiners in different provinces, these teachers have all received normal school training and are working side by side in the cause of education in the newest province. What are the qualities common to all which make for efficiency in teaching, and what common heritage, if any, have they received from the different normal schools?

That which teachers offer for sale and school boards purchase on the educational market may be termed efficiency in teaching. Knowledge cannot be bought and sold, nor can mental and intellectual power; the personality or individuality of the teacher remains his or her own, but that for which school boards pay is efficiency, judged by some standard more or less fair, and were it possible to measure the efficiency of teachers by accurate mechanical appliances as in electric machinery, or by monetary methods as in mercantile pursuits, where a man's efficiency is judged by the volume of business he can bring to the firm, bank, railroad, or other corporation—were any such exact method of determining the teacher's efficiency

available, we would see something of the same range of salary in the teaching profession as in other callings.

The efficient teacher is what the normal school is expected to furnish, and if the stamp and seal of any normal school is put upon a teacher, it is right to expect a fair if not a high degree of efficiency. What are the elements of true efficiency, and in how far should the normal school be held responsible for them? Analyzing, we might enumerate as follows, including only the essentials:—

I. Thorough knowledge of the subjects to be taught.

II. Power of control, leading to effective and satisfactory discipline.

III. Ability to teach, not merely to teach an isolated lesson but to follow out the various steps of a given subject in logical sequence and with due regard to their relative importance; ability to teach, not merely to give a lesson or even to impart information to one or two wide-awake pupils, but to arouse, hold, and constantly incite the whole class.

IV. Power of inspiration, power of arousing the enthusiasm of pupils, of developing character through self-culture and self-activity.

CONSIDER THESE IN DETAIL.

I. Knowledge of the subjects to be taught. Probably as much poor teaching arises from inaccurate and insufficient knowledge as from any one cause, and yet, except indirectly, the normal school cannot be held responsible for any teacher's knowledge of the subjects on the school curriculum. This must rest with the teacher, since not even a first class certificate, a University degree, or any other diploma which may be obtained is a guarantee for years to come or even for the time that a teacher can, without preparation, teach seven different lessons on as many separate subjects in the course of one day's work. There must be constant work and continual study on the part of the efficient teacher. This should be impressed on normal school students by example as well as precept, and impromptu lessons in psychology, methods, nature study, etc., should have as little place on the normal school time-table as impromptu lessons in literature, history or Latin on the high school programme. It is not edifying for students to see, as I have seen, the attempts of the normal school teacher to lecture without adequate preparation, nor is it inspiring for students to listen to the

reading of notes prepared years before or the telling of stories given by way of illustration so often that they become recognized landmarks in the progress of the subject. The best teaching done by the best teachers in the country should be that done by the normal school instructors. Example is stronger than precept.

II. Power of control and ability to maintain discipline. Perhaps one of the wisest and best things a normal school could do would be to discourage students who do not possess this power from entering the teaching profession. Something can be done to develop it, something can be done to instruct students how to keep control, but it is doubtful whether the best normal school can convert the teacher weak in discipline into one who controls easily and well.

IV. Ability to teach.

Judging from personal observation and experience, the ability to teach a particular lesson and to pass examinations as required are the things most rigidly and particularly exacted from candidates who would enter the teaching profession. And, since example is stronger than precept, as has been already stated, the teachers of this province and the whole country are not entirely to blame for the idea prevalent at one time and not yet completely eradicated, that the teacher's whole duty is performed to his or her pupils if all pass the required examination in a fixed time, and the shorter the time the better for the teacher's reputation. It is not my intention to discuss the subject of examinations, nor to find fault with the teaching and illustrating of the principles and methods of teaching by requiring that special lessons be taught, but rather to advocate that the broadest basis and the most comprehensive of the teacher's work be imparted to normal students by inculcating general principles and illustrating how these will determine all methods of teaching.

For example, suppose a student has a good knowledge of arithmetic or grammar but has never taught, add to this knowledge the general principle of proceeding from the known to the unknown, along with the fact that in true education pupils must think and must see and understand for themselves, and a very small amount of illustration of method should equip this student for successful teaching of these and other subjects.

If a personal reference be permitted, I should like to state the underlying principles, as nearly as I can formulate them, which shaped and influenced my own teaching from the time I began to realize what teaching meant.

1. Every pupil should be kept at work or busy during school hours, and, by proper handling, each one should be made to enjoy his or her work; not by making it easy or introducing games or other artifices, but by developing in the pupils the love of accomplishing, by cultivating in them the pleasure of doing things for themselves.

2. All pupils must do their own thinking and must in no case be told what they can be led to discover for themselves.

To these might be added that the teaching should be done without reference to any possible examination, and mainly with the view of developing the powers of the pupils.

The teacher who is not too indolent or neglectful to do the work to enable him to live up to these principles every day in the year, if gifted at all with those powers of comprehension which open to his gaze the mental processes of his pupils, is far better equipped for his duties in the teaching profession than if he had note-books filled with all the lessons he would ever be called upon to teach, even supposing he consulted them faithfully.

IV. Power of Inspiration.

This is the highest power in the teacher's possession, through it the enthusiasm of pupils is kindled and permanent impression made on their lives and characters, the possession of it is one of the surest guarantees of a teacher's success, lack of it means failure in the higher purposes of education. Every good teacher has felt the inspiration of the lives and words of others, and every good teacher possesses the power of inspiring others in some degree. Every normal school should be full of inspiration, every member of the staff and the very atmosphere of the institution should be charged with inspiration as a thunder cloud is with electricity, so that it would be impossible for students to spend a term in the school without catching a large measure of this marvellous power which will enable them to become true teachers, and to get a glimpse of the wonderful unseen forces in the school-room whose influences are often greater and more lasting than the actual teaching imparted.

It is this wonderful power of inspiration which causes fond memories still to linger round the name and personality of the late Professor George Paxton Young of University College, of the late Principal Grant of Queen's University, of the late Principal Sheraton of Wycliffe College, and a host of others, and it is this power of inspiration which first roused many a young man to a realization of his own powers and ambitions under the guidance of some wise teacher.

With this power of producing inspiration, a normal school is the educational birthplace of the great majority of the students passing through it, and a great source of educational strength; without it the same normal school becomes a mere wheel in the educational machine which, by its annual or semi-annual turns, sends out another hundred or more certified teachers to become smaller wheels in the same machine, where they continue to turn until worn out or till they drift into some more congenial occupation.

While there is a great work in the normal school in explaining and illustrating methods of teaching, in instilling the great principles of education, in training students in discipline and school management, and in all the more or less mechanical features of the school work, the great function of the normal school is to inspire its students with the true meaning of their high calling to the teaching profession, and to inspire them that they will become centres of inspiration for all the pupils in all the schools where they may be called upon later to teach.

The teacher may be likened to an electric storage battery charged with inspiration as an accumulator is with electricity. After the process of manufacture which takes place during the period of public and high school life, coupled as it usually is with numerous examinations, the student is sent to the normal school as to the manufacturing laboratory to be "formed" and "charged," ready to give out the steady current of living inspiration. Happy are those so constituted that they afterwards possess within themselves the power of re-charging when run down, but most of us are like the batteries and require a charge from an outside source from time to time. Where should teachers look for this but to the normal school? Oh, for more power of inspiration in the normal schools, more realization of its importance, more of the character, more of the genuineness, more of the hard work, more of all the qualities that go to make the great teacher, the ever-living source of inspiration.

This is the true function of the normal school, to be the centre and source of inspiration for its students. When the inspiring power is gone the usefulness of the school is past.

THE RELATION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL TO INSPECTION.

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ONE of the dangers to-day in education is that each factor may become almost an end in itself and gradually grow out of harmony with other factors, and this is particularly true in normal school work. To avoid this, all processes of school work should be as closely related as possible, and those engaged in training teachers should especially be in close sympathy with all the world's activities in so far as these make for education. Too close attention to any phase of work makes those engaged in it selfish and inclusive and narrows the general view of the whole problem.

At present more than ever is there danger of our training school growing away from the general and varied needs of the world. We are too apt to consider the pupil's head and forget he has also a heart and a hand. The normal school, while apparently to train teachers, should not keep the teacher so much in view as the children to be taught. Training schools should look through and beyond the teacher to the greater problem of the public school. Being in daily contact with teacher-pupils, (with the possible exception of a model school), the normal school teacher is prone to keep in view only the development of those directly under his care. Teachers trained in this atmosphere are apt to have their ideals so colored that their instruction has throughout a distinctive teacher color, and in their schools their work with pupils is much like that which was used in their professional training. They seem to forget that but a small proportion of their scholars are going to be school teachers, and if this is not forgotten still the process in teaching is practically the same in all schools and at many times. In the normal schools considerable attention is given how to teach and how to impart knowledge, and this purely giving of knowledge is not the work of a public school; the energy in the latter should

be towards helping the pupil to acquire knowledge. The information given by one teacher in one school for one year may readily have very little value in the lives of the pupils, but one faithful year's work in helping a pupil to acquire information and to apply it will do much to make him self-reliant and confident in almost any line of work he attempts. Too frequently the normal school fails to see the true product of its labor. It has to rely upon various unauthentic reports, generally in the nature of criticism and these but rarely offering any suggestion that would help improve the conditions. These criticisms may come from various sources,—the world of labor, industry, commerce, professional life, and even the university. Each of these worlds has its particular needs, which makes this age one of specialization, yet the time for special lessons is not in the public schools. Still in the elementary grades we can, more or less, uniformly educate so that each pupil may at a later time with equal facility receive his vocation instruction. The normal school must find the highest common factor of the world's greatest activities and use that as a base for instruction, and to find this basis there must be close relation between those activities and the normal school.

The faults in education, where they exist, in a general sense, might in many cases be attributed more justly to the training schools than to the public schools. A course of study may be never so good in itself, but unless the proper direction be given to its use and application, unless it becomes the realized self of the pupil but little educational benefit may follow, and this directive purpose should be a guiding principle in the normal schools. Most teachers receive their ideals both in end and in method from the training schools, and the broader and truer the conception of education the more important will be the work of the teachers. Men can rarely become cosmopolitan in their views and doctrine without mingling with their fellows. They must establish relationships with the outside which will give them a more correct knowledge of the needs of the outside. The product of our schools is practically in the present day the result of the normal school and if that product can be improved it is through its agency. If the University is compelled to do high school work, if labor finds education creating a distaste towards it, if business finds that the boy has to unlearn a great deal, if professions are not supplied with the material they require, then normal school work should be modified. The work of the training schools has been great and the beneficial influence has been much felt, but

as conditions are changed and are changing, so much, the school must modify its instruction to meet and supply these growing demands. They should even go further and if possible forestall these changed conditions.

There is practically only one way for the school to meet these demands and that is for the school to be of the world without being worldly, to meet the men of the world, to see the world's needs and in turn to reveal these to its students, and all this for the purpose of giving a proper perspective and direction of the work to be done. If we know clearly what to do, we can soon find a way to do it. It is comparatively easy to train teachers along one line and for the same kind of work, but this pre-supposes that conditions are all alike, and that results are expected to be similar; but we find many varied conditions—settlements with different purposes, different state of civilization and different stages of advancement and while one form of procedure is good in one district it may be hurtful in another. There is a tendency to instruct for the city and graded schools, and to forget the problem of the rural, ungraded and foreign schools. We sometimes attempt to graft upon a district the form of education for which it is not ready and by so doing make our work more or less unpopular. Education as it means growth is popular. Every person and every community desires to grow, but it wishes to grow towards its own ideal, and to merely say that this ideal is not the highest, is not the surest way to change that ideal. To a certain extent give the people what they want. As a rule they want what they need, and the more they receive the more they want. We must work with the material we have and should not try to hasten our work too quickly. There is no sense in putting on the roof before we finish the foundation. It is not sufficient to say that the teacher as he is trained to-day will adapt his teaching to his environments. Many of our teachers start out with little more equipment than youth, inexperience and a few methods, but without preparation for dealing with life's broader problems.

To a certain extent I have outlined certain thoughts along normal school work. How may the inspector become a factor towards its more efficient operation? The inspector from the nature of his work, from meeting with all classes of people and teachers, from being a man more in the world, should have a truer idea of the needs and possibilities of an education. There are many inspectors and few normal school teachers. The problem of one inspector is not that of another.

The inspectors' ideals are views molded by practical experience with and observation of the results of given lines of training in contrast with the too frequent book and reading ideals of the normal school. Few inspectors work in the same way, each, and justly so, has his own view of what can and should be attempted and done in the school; and as in normal schools the instructors are prone to become narrow, so too the inspectors from different causes sometimes become local and unprogressive. Each inspector has good and strong points, which are lacking in other inspectors. If inspectors could be brought together to compare ways of working and discuss plans and problems in an informal manner, the best of each man might become common property. The greater the unity in our work the stronger will be the results. It happens that frequently an inspector can only guess at the plan and method given teachers at the training schools, and sometimes these views do not harmonize with his own. If no attempt be made to see together, the teacher is not in an enviable position. The mutual understanding and co-operation of normal school and inspector, to form a satisfactory basis for work; the school fitting the teachers according to these principles and inspectors helping and directing along the same lines, will surely bring good results. The inspector sees the needs of the teacher, sees the weaknesses in a general way of some of the methods and of a certain emphasis that may have been given in training. The inspector knows his district and knows best what school work is most adapted to its needs. He also knows about how much education any district will stand at certain times. He knows the temper and condition of the people with their immediate possibilities. He *knows* these, where the normal school is apt to *guess* at them. In many places there is practically no communication official or unofficial between the two factors, training and inspection. The normal school does not inform the inspector of what it is trying to do. The inspector does not tell the normal school how the work is being done. Closer relationship might be established by giving a little more work to each body, training and inspection. At present each party has sufficient to do. If we add work along some lines we must lessen the burden in other directions. The best work is not done where there is too much to do, yet if more intimate relationships are desired, the details of a plan can be worked out readily.

That this may be practical I see no reason why the inspector should not take an active part in the training work. Some time spent

in such work every one or two years in connection with the normal school staff cannot but be helpful to all concerned. The freshness and the buoyancy of the man on the outside, together with his practical views and directness do much to broaden and hearten the men on the inside. The inspector may be engaged in the larger normal schools, where, at any time, work mutually helpful can be found, or he may be in charge of smaller training schools. In the former case the exchange of views presents no difficulty; in the latter case some representative of the normal school staff should visit and take some of the work of the inspector's training school. The two elements should meet for mutual benefit. As the inspector may be brought into normal schools, so should the normal school go out to the inspector, and not alone to one but to as many of them as possible, not merely as a visitor, but it should actually do some of the inspectors' work. It is surprising how difficult it is for a normal school teacher to inspect a rural, ungraded school in the fullest sense, in the average time that would be taken by an inspector, that is when he both teaches lessons and judges the lessons taught. If anyone is doubtful let him try it. It is important to both these elements, training and inspection, that have to do with teachers that each should understand the other's work, both in extent and nature.

The time spent by the inspector in the normal schools gives him an opportunity to do considerable reading and keeps him in touch with modern work and thought. The time spent by the normal school man in the field of inspection, gives him the practical view and will prevent him from attempting or suggesting the impossible. The interrelation of work will do much to combine the practical and the theoretical. Every inspector should be actively acquainted with the training school work and every normal school teacher should have some experience in inspection. This mutual understanding of work can be supplemented profitably through the medium of teachers' conventions, where both normal school teachers and inspector take active part. With the progress in all lines of work, the normal school should make its progress along the same sound business lines as is noted in all other phases of development. The school work needs to be useful and here the inspector gives most assistance. The useful can be made beautiful and here the normal school can do most.

Reports from the inspectors showing the results of work attempted from the suggested plans, showing the conditions we should try

to meet, making suggestions as to strength and weakness of plans followed, are very helpful, as guiding agencies in determining the nature of the training work. Unless there is mutual understanding and co-operation it is almost impossible to form any estimate of the result of the course of study in general, or even of the results from some particular method of training in a single subject. The relation to exist between inspector and normal school is not necessarily that of supervision, but rather of mutual assistance, that one may learn of the other and profit by that knowledge. It does not require any elaborate scheme to strengthen this relation. The mere recognition of the principle of unity in work, and the authority to work together will practically unite the work of inspection and training.

Let the normal school be a place of reference to all interested in education. Let the normal school gather its information from all sources. Let it be as progressive as possible, have its course of study as flexible as is necessary to meet conditions and unite all educative agencies. This will not need machine work, it will not destroy the individuality, but rather it means that all individualities are concentrating their energies in one direction, which is to produce the best form and method of education possible. We do not wish all to think and work along one groove, but to find the best plan and let each develop that to the utmost of his own personality. This will prevent a great amount of educational waste.

While this relationship is particularly to be desired, it is of great importance also that the normal school makes its work recognized by persons in other walks of life.

We do not want any secret or star-chamber methods in our training work. We simply desire to so train teachers that as a result of their work the boys and girls of the land will be able to discover and follow their life's work more intelligently and cheerfully, less blindly and grudgingly.

*WHY TEACH PSYCHOLOGY TO TEACHERS-IN-TRAINING AND WHAT KIND OF PSYCHOLOGY DO THEY NEED?**

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For two classes of men and women there is no real problem in connection with the training of teachers: the first is composed of those so gifted that they seem to be teachers by nature—no method of training will harm such unless it be absolutely wrong, and indeed, they may survive even that treatment; the second is composed of those who can not be made teachers by any kind of training.

The problem of the training of teachers arises when one faces the great mass of men and women whose mental aptitudes, at least so far as we are now able to recognize and determine them, are equally adapted to many different lines of activity. For such the great question is what kind of training will do most to equip them for the work of teaching in our schools?

This question, stated thus in the abstract, need not, however, be approached altogether in this way, for there are certain very definite limitations to the conditions under which we in Canada *can* approach the problem. We are not given the boy of eight, ten or twelve years of age and asked to plan a course which will fit such a one to teach at, say, the age of eighteen or twenty. Rather, young men and women come to the various training institutes at sixteen, eighteen, twenty or even later in life, having behind them such training as our high schools, collegiate institutes, colleges or universities give, and the normal school or other institution is asked in one year

*This somewhat peculiar subject was selected on the advice of Dr. D. J. Goggin, Secretary of the Dominion Educational Association. He felt that as this subject was being discussed by teachers of Psychology in Normal Schools, and elsewhere, as well as by others interested in the training of teachers, its discussion at the Dominion Educational Association meeting might be timely and helpful.

—that is in eight or ten months—to give them such special training as they need to fit them to approach the work of teaching.

We may, however, make the question still more definite, so far as psychology is concerned for there are certain subjects which *must* be given to would-be-teachers. It is pretty generally accepted in Canada that such students must have opportunity to observe recognized teachers at work and to do a certain amount of teaching themselves under the observation and criticism of such teachers; they must get lectures on methods of teaching and on school organization and management, and they may or possibly must find time for physical culture, manual training, household science, music, sanitary science, etc. When all this is fully provided for, there still remain three subjects which generally, if not always receive recognition, namely, History of Education, Science or Philosophy of Education, and Psychology. For these three subjects six hours a week (i. e., six forty-five to fifty minute periods) were provided in the Time Table of the Ontario Normal College last winter: the History and Science of Education were allowed three and Psychology was allowed three hours. Whether this be less time than is generally given to these subjects or whether it be more, need not now occupy our attention, for it seems ample for the purposes which they serve and, what is perhaps more to the point, the *capacity* of the average student at training institutions will not demand more. Our question thus becomes the following: All other recognized subjects being provided for, is psychology worth three hours a week, or in all approximately seventy-five hours a year, on the time table of a normal school or other teacher-training institution, and what can be done in that time for, let us say, students who have not taken the subject before?

An alternative question would, of course, arise if psychology be found to be of little use to such students for then these three hours a week would have to be otherwise and more profitably provided for.

I have taken the liberty of putting the problem of the place of psychology in the curriculum for teachers-in-training in this very definite form, for one hears the objection of "No time" so frequently raised when this subject is under discussion that it seemed wise either to preclude the possibility of this criticism being offered on the present occasion or at least to limit the possibility within certain definite bounds. That is, the present discussion assumes that three hours a week or roughly one-eighth of the student's time

and not more than this be devoted to psychology and the "no-time" critic must show that this is too much for its usefulness or what is perhaps more to the point, that these three hours a week could be more profitably spent in studying some other subject. As has already been indicated, it is not at all clear that more than about this time can be devoted profitably to psychology unless the lecturer go into very great detail by way of illustration, or something along the line of individual laboratory work or seminary work be introduced. There is, of course, more of interest and value in psychology than can be given in the suggested time, but the capacity of the student and true educational work set certain evident limits to the amount of any subject which should be attempted in a year's work. In three hours a week a fairly detailed outline of general psychology may be given with sufficiently full experimental demonstrations and applications to the work of the teacher.

With this as introduction we may now turn to the first part of the question we are to discuss, namely, why teach psychology to teachers-in-training? That is, in effect, of what value is psychology to teachers?

This question should not, however, receive too narrow an interpretation, for education, and so the work of the teacher, may be said to take two directions according as it fulfils the end of culture or that of utility. The distinction between these ends is not, however, to be sought in the nature of the subjects taught nor indeed in the way in which they are taught, but rather in the attitude of the student to what he studies. The same subject may to one man serve the highest culture while to his neighbor in the class-room its value is estimated wholly from the standpoint of its utility: he asks the question, What good is it? How will it help me to teach, to preach, to manage a business or what not? All subjects may, therefore, be *culture*-subjects when they are studied for the sake of information alone or of the general outlook they give one on the world or life, and all subjects may serve the end of utility in so far as they are studied for the sake of the immediate aid they may be in obtaining a livelihood, in doing this or that.*

*In making this distinction we do not overlook the fact that culture and utility need not at all be opposities of which one or the other may be taken but not both. However easily some subjects may become cultural and however naturally others may be utilitarian, it is still true that it is only the attitude of the student that can determine which end they actually do serve in a given case, and indeed there is no reason why they may not in many cases serve both.

The utilitarian side of education, then, tends to make expert workmen, men and women well informed in the deeper aspects of the work they do: the cultural side of education tends to give these same workmen breadth of outlook on life and history from as many sides as possible; it tends to make men and women who are more or less interested in, and who can converse intelligently upon, topics other than those of the daily work. In other words, it tends to make people who can do more than "talk shop."

Now, in the training of teachers, so far as I understand the problem, it is too often assumed that the student is to get most, if not all, of his culture before he comes to his normal training, and, therefore, that the time he spends in the training institution shall be filled practically altogether with the kind of instruction which is supposed to be of immediate aid to him in the work of teaching. Recognizing fully the limitations of time in the year devoted to normal training, it is still true that this is a very lamentable error. Some tradesmen may get along with very little information beyond their own work—no professional man or woman can, and of all professions this may be said with greatest truth of teaching.

Consequently when we ask, Of what value is psychology to the teacher? we have in mind two distinguishable questions: First, of what value is it for general culture? Second, of what direct service is it in the work of teaching?

It is, however, not worth while attempting to classify the points mentioned below directly under these two questions for there is no place in all the round of human activity in which the highest culture and the purest utility stand more closely related than in the work of the teacher. We may proceed accordingly to the discussion of the question of the value of psychology to the teacher without making any sharp distinction between culture and utility in the points brought out.

Psychology is of value to the teacher *in the first place*, because it deals with those well-nigh universal and ever recurring problems of the soul, mind, ego, personality; of thought, knowledge, belief; of will, freedom, necessity, responsibility; of the aesthetic, the beautiful, the ugly, etc.

It is not the specific function of psychology to solve these problems nor to discuss the details of their history, but a course in psychology can hardly be given without coming close to the fundamental facts of experience on the basis of which these questions

are raised and from the investigation of which they must be finally solved, if, indeed, they are susceptible of solution at all.

The teacher is not a metaphysician and he need not be taught metaphysics but he should have some rather definite idea as to what these great problems are and how they arise, and it would be well if he had a sound basis of fact on which he can stand if he fail to reach a satisfactory solution of them. There is no way more accessible and from the point of view of time, more direct, which leads to this desirable end than that found in psychology properly presented.

But here one may well enter a plea along the line of the teaching of psychology. The *psychological* history of these great problems, especially as it has developed in Great Britain, should always be sketched in connection with the discussion of the problems. If this be not done the strong probability is that the teacher will fail to touch the real difficulties of the students and will simply give them another theory to place beside the ones they have already met in a more or less indefinite way. This practice is certainly to be condemned from a strictly educational point of view, for it must have the air of dogmatism to the student, however it be meant by the teacher and instead of real understanding of the solutions taught and appreciation of their value, it leads invariably to pure memory work, the very thing against which all educationists of insight must protest most strongly.

In the second place, psychology is of value to the teacher in that it is calculated to give him a sound introduction to and a clear idea of scientific method and the general relations of the various groups of sciences to each other.

Students follow scientific method in studying physics, chemistry, biology, physiology, etc., as well as in the higher work in literature, history, etc., but in no one department can they get more than such method as used in that one science and then, generally speaking, they get it only in practice and hardly ever realize the meaning of the method they follow—i.e. it is not definitely pointed out and discussed.

In teaching psychology, the very fact that it is, in its strictly scientific aspect, a recent development—it is not yet more than about fifty years old—almost compels one to discuss scientific method in an explicit way. This method is equally applicable to every science, for, since science can investigate only those facts of which someone

is conscious or of which men as a whole are conscious, the methods which are employed to investigate facts of consciousness themselves must apply equally to every science. Each science may go farther in the details of the methods but the general principles remain unchanged through all. The discussions to which reference is here made concern themselves with such processes as scientific analysis, definition of terms, experiment, etc. These same topics may be studied under the name of logic if they be studied in themselves, but a psychologist can hardly avoid discussing them in his work to-day without serious loss of clearness.

This is hardly the place, and if it were, there is not the time necessary to say what might well be said on this particular subject. There is, however, probably no part of the teacher's general culture which is designed to exercise so potent an influence for good in the work of the school-room. The insight into scientific method gives one a wholesome spirit in one's outlook that must be beneficial not only to the teacher but, perhaps, quite as much to his pupils.

In the third place, psychology is of value to the teacher in that it gives him a detailed knowledge of the actual operations occurring in himself and the pupil in the process of teaching and learning.

We cannot here pause to discuss the contribution of psychology to our knowledge of the thought-process. It is true that these significant discoveries by the use of experiment are as yet but few years old and the works of Kuelpe, Watt, Ach and others dealing explicitly with them are not readily accessible to the English reader since no translation of them exists* This fact of itself, however, offers no possible basis of criticism of the conclusions reached below, since, no matter how reached or by whom, the knowledge of the facts of consciousness is calculated to be of use in the directions indicated.

The scientific knowledge of the thought-process must be the only ultimately valid basis on which to construct our theories as to methods of teaching. All merely empirically-established methods have value in that one can state that such procedure has been found to give good results, but on the basis of use alone one may only conclude that such methods are better than certain other methods and not that these methods have a firm psychological foundation. In teaching and learning it is exactly as with the

*In my evening experimental lecture on "Recent Investigations of the Thought-process," the methods used in these researches were illustrated and some of the more important conclusions reached discussed in outline.

processes of nature—man uses them to advantage only as he knows what the facts and laws are. His knowledge is not calculated to change what has *actually* been done, it can only change what man has *attempted* to do. Hence, the more useful a method has been found in relation to a certain end, the more valuable will such a method be if that end be sought, but such experience can never establish that, were the facts of consciousness clearly known or scientifically understood either the end or the method would be highly esteemed. This might be illustrated fully from the history of physical science, for almost every great discovery has brought with it the condemnation of old practices and the introduction of new and more natural "methods."

Then, too, the exact knowledge of the processes taking place in teaching and learning is calculated to give the teacher a deeper sympathy with his pupils in practically every relation. For example, we know quite well that clearness of statement alone is not sufficient for the understanding of an author's works; to catch the standpoint of the author is even more essential—indeed the clearness of statement is only appreciated when the standpoint is realized. This means in practice that the teacher is led to realize in much more than the ordinary theoretical way that the standpoint of the boy or girl must be reckoned with, and that to use this well is at least half the art of teaching.

In the fourth place, psychology should both interest the teacher in and equip him for doing valuable work in the investigation of the psychological problems of general interest which arise in the class-room.

It seems to me that this side of a teacher's value to the community has been too often quite overlooked and hence no effort, or at least very little effort has been put forth to train him for this work or to compel him to realize the existence of such a duty. A teacher should do more than instruct the boys and girls who come to him, he has a duty also toward the community at large and especially toward those who lay down the courses of study and who largely make the conditions under which these are to be carried out in practice. This duty the teacher takes up in conventions and his voice is then heard in advice to or censure of the government and its officers, and doubtless good may be done in this way, but, after all, it is neither the most profound nor safest way of reforming the educational system. Majorities may move politicians but they

convince no one on a rational or scientific basis; they may be the club which the teacher in distress will use but they are not the educator's natural weapons. These can only be facts or the knowledge of facts reached in a thoroughly scientific way.

One reason at least, if not the great reason, why the teacher's voice is not more carefully heeded and, indeed, listened for, is that the average teacher's observation of the facts is coupled with an almost complete lack of critical analysis in his report on them and in his estimate of the defects of the school system. For this condition the teacher himself can hardly be held accountable, for he is the result of a system of training which largely left out of account the very things needed for such a case. A teacher cannot be supposed to be able to do such careful critical work unless he has had some training to equip him for it. For this there is nothing more fundamental than scientific psychology.

On the basis then, of these four aspects of the value of psychology to the teacher, I hold that no subject can take its place on the curriculum for teachers-in-training and thus the above points are the answer to the question why teach psychology to teachers-in-training.

The second part of the subject still remains to be discussed, namely, what kind of psychology do teachers need?

The answer to this question has, of course, been to a certain extent presupposed in the former discussion, for whatever method or phase of the subject be given these outlined results should be reached; nevertheless, the above references are not so specific that any competent teacher should not be able to accomplish what is suggested if he be only reasonably exact or scientific in his presentation of the subject.

It must also be borne in mind that the subject is being discussed on the assumption that students have had no previous knowledge of psychology, or at least that any knowledge they have is largely of an unsystematic character.

In the first place it may be laid down as a fundamental principle that applied psychology, genetic psychology, child psychology or so-called educational psychology cannot be successfully taught until the student have a thorough foundation, even if that be only in outline, in scientific adult psychology. All of these secondary phases of the psychological investigation, at least as they are ordinarily presented, lack the very properties which psychology can and ought to have for teachers-in-training. It is nothing but a

huge mistake to give such students, on the supposed grounds of utility, a kind of psychology which lacks in its general cultural advantages practically everything which strictly scientific psychology possesses, and which, by way of compensation, brings hardly one advantage which could not easily be had in connection with the more fundamental study. In other words, scientific adult psychology leads on naturally to the discussion of child, genetic, and applied psychology while one cannot be supposed to really understand these latter without that critical analysis and definition of terms which this basal psychology gives.

One other point is worth raising in this connection, namely, the nature and place of the science or philosophy of education on the curriculum for teachers-in-training. When this subject is discussed without the definition of terms used, as this may be drawn from scientific psychology it must surely become a kind of anomaly. If psychology be not recognized as the only natural or secure foundation for the discussions undertaken under the name of science or philosophy of education, where can one possibly look for such a foundation? It seems practical, therefore, to have one man give both the psychology and the science of education, for a large part of such discussion must be of the nature of applied psychology, or, failing that, it should be placed beyond peradventure that whoever lectures on the science of education shall at least be thoroughly conversant with the results of scientific psychology. Much time could be saved by making sure that the teaching in psychology and science of education were made consistent and to this must be added the by-no-means insignificant fact that only by so doing can either have its full educational value for the student.

The objection that Scientific Psychology is too difficult for beginners may be met as follows :—At the Normal College, Hamilton, for the session 1906-07, I lectured to a class of some two hundred students. The result of the Christmas and May examinations with certain other work prescribed during the session was the following :—

13	University graduates (men) averaged.....	78.7	per cent.
37	Non-University graduates (men) averaged....	74.5	"
34	University graduates (women) averaged.....	72 43	"
103	Non-University graduates (women) averaged..	71.7	"
187	Students graduates averaged	74.33	"

Being summarized this shows that

47 University graduates averaged..... 75.56 per cent.
140 Non-University graduates averaged..... 73.1 "

This statement shows clearly that those who came to the study without previous University training evidently succeeded in grasping it, so far as examinations reveal the facts, practically as well as graduates, many of whom, by the way, were also with previous training in the subject.

Elementary Education

Minutes of the Elementary Section.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 10, 1907.

THE Elementary Section of the Dominion Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University Building, Wednesday July 10th at 2.30 p.m. In the absence of the President, D. D. Moshier, B.A., B.Pæd., Inspector of Schools, Sarnia, was appointed to the chair. He opened with a very instructive address on the Rural School Problem in Ontario. Among those who participated in the discussion were President McIntyre, Dr. Soloan, Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, and the General Secretary.

The Section adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 11, 1907.

W. A. McIntyre, President of the Association, occupied the chair. Mr. C. F. Errett, Principal Manual Training School, Brantford, read a suggestive paper on "Practical Manual Training," which was discussed at considerable length.

Mr. A. T. Cringan, Mus. Bac., Normal School, Toronto, followed with an address on Music in the Public Schools. He illustrated his remarks with a class of pupils. His work was thoroughly appreciated and many questions asked.

J. P. Hoag, B.A., Inspector of Schools, Brantford, Ont., followed with an address on "Foundation Work in Primary Education." This led to a very spirited discussion.

The Section adjourned.

FRIDAY, JULY 12, 1907.

President McIntyre in the chair.

The first paper was an address on "Home Economics," by Mrs. Adelaide Hoodless, Hamilton, Ont. On the conclusion of her paper Mrs. Hoodless had to answer a number of pointed questions from those present.

Miss Agnes Deans Cameron followed with a paper on "Sunny Vancouver," after which Miss Jessie Semple, Supervisor of Drawing, Toronto, gave a most inspiring address on the teaching of Drawing. This was supplemented by black-board work, and an exhibition of pupils' work.

The following officers were then elected: Miss Jessie Ptolmey, of Winnipeg, President, and Miss Susie Younghusband, of Winnipeg, Secretary.

The Section adjourned.

THE RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEM IN ONTARIO.

D. D. Moshier, B.A., B.P.Æd.

Sarnia, Ont.

It will be granted that Ontario has already done excellent work in the solution of school problems, with profit not only to herself but also to others of her sister provinces. Fitting is it, therefore, that new questions, associated with educational improvement in keeping with the general advancement, should now come to her for solution.

The school questions of to-day, unlike those of a generation ago, are directly and almost solely concerned with efficiency. That does not imply that the problem now before us is simple in character. The units our fathers had to deal with, were clearly differentiated classes. The ideals of each were well known. Opposing leaders could readily understand each other's position. This simplified the work of finding a satisfactory basis for an agreement.

Now it is different. The units to be dealt with are legion, and largely self-centered. They cannot be studied to advantage at a distance nor at second hand. He who would attempt to do so, or act on the assumption that he has done so, will probably make serious blunders. Nor will the misunderstanding be all on one side. When the errors are known, charity may be a missing link in the consequences.

The question of increasing the efficiency of our rural schools would not be very difficult if they could be managed like some great industry in the control of a single capitalist with unlimited means, but that is impossible. The situation is more like that of a joint stock concern with as many shareholders as there are shares, and every man an active partner. In such a business the manager and directors have the double task of developing the business itself and keeping the shareholders in sympathy with a policy of progress. The best laid plans may be vetoed by the shareholders unless they have the ability to grasp the full significance of a business proposition, and, at the same time the willingness to increase the immediate

outlay for more profitable futures. To fail in securing the intelligent co-operation of those who furnish the capital, will mean stagnation or worse, if worse there be.

The Ratepayers.

Precisely similar difficulties are to be met in connection with the improvement of our rural schools. The support of the men who furnish the captial is essential. Those men are the ratepayers. Their sympathetic support is essential to the teacher. Cramming may be successfully carried on in an atmosphere of "armed neutrality," but knowledge requires fellowship for growth.

This is particularly true in elementary education, and most of all in communities where the affairs of each are more or less the concern of all, and where as a result general antipathies often seek personal manifestation towards the only available representative (no matter how innocent) of the thing disliked. For the highest efficiency the teacher requires not only general appreciation of his own work but popular approval of the system he represents.

Given, however, a system which meets with popular approval alike in its practical value to the individual, its relationship to the national spirit, and its harmony with the ideals of a self governing people at every point of contact, and, slowly but surely men will come to realize that for the outlay required, the school yields the best results of any national or municipal undertaking.

In justice to the rural ratepayer it must be said that he has often been misunderstood and sometimes subjected to very unwise treatment. He has been censured again and again from the platform and through the press, and upbraided as a parsimonious and short-sighted individual who is holding back the wheels of progress.

Now let it be admitted (he concedes it frankly himself) that he is not perfect. At the same time let it not be forgotten that scolding has no educational value either within the school room or without. It remains, too, for the believers in wise, old-fashioned reproof to be sure of their ability to furnish the genuine article before using it too freely in the present instance.

Let us get at the point of view of these men, or at least of those whose attitude we most regret. Many a strong, able-bodied man sees a young lady still in her teens, earning a larger daily wage in the school than he does on the farm. It is somewhat difficult

to make this man or his employer believe that the young lady is insufficiently paid. Say what you will, each man compares his strength with hers, and all too often when the comparison is limited to force of character and strength of mind, the inevitable conclusion bodes ill for much improvement in the teacher's salary.

This is but one of many similar comparisons made almost daily throughout the country. You may say that it is so weak that it is unworthy of mention within these walls. So would it be, were it not that these halls demand the truth as it may be revealed from a knowledge of all the facts. So would it be, were it not true that the genius of government, as it has been said, is to be found in the ability of power to put itself "in the other fellow's skin." It is, therefore, highly necessary for us to know what is going on in the mind of the man with whom we have most to deal, and the one thus far indicated is unfortunately typical of a large number of men.

There is, however, another class of ratepayers. It is to be hoped that their number is increasing. Their observation at close quarters is to the effect that they have been able on the farm to provide for their declining years, a competency and a home they could not have had in the teaching profession. Men of force themselves, they know the value of strength in the school room. They dread the influence of weakness at the teacher's desk. Like Emerson they care not so much what their children study, as by whom they are taught. These men are in sympathy with every well-directed effort to improve our schools. Their influence is most beneficial. They are the most valuable asset we have in our rural school work to-day. Where they are in the majority, or where they exercise a controlling influence there will be found schools that will compare favorably with those of any other country in the world. They deeply deplore the lack of that active interest and general demand for excellence in elementary education, which would always consider that cheapest which was best; and what was common, or inferior, as dear at any price.

Such men do not underrate the value of law in forming public opinion and improving conditions; but they recognize its limitations. They understand that there must be teachers outside the school room as well as within. Therefore they have great faith in the value of a living moulding influence as the forerunner of legislation. Exercising such an influence themselves, they ask for help along that line, and as far as possible it should be given.

The Trustee.

The trustee is also to be considered. He is of course a ratepayer. He is elected for three years, often against his will. The position is probably the least desired of any public office in the municipality.

It is the duty of the trustee to choose the teacher, decide upon the amount of salary to be paid, make provision for its payment, maintain the school house, premises and equipment in a satisfactory condition and settle all disputes between parents and teacher regarding discipline. The proper performance of his duties would require about as much time as the ordinary township councillor devotes to those of his office. The latter is paid for his services, the former is not. The trustee serves like a patriot; or grudgingly, as of necessity. That it is ever done in the former spirit, is worthy of mention; that it is so done, every good school in the land bears witness.

It is difficult to see why rural school trustees should not be paid. If the office were looked upon as affording a training for a higher one it might be different. That is possibly the condition in urban centres where the section and the municipality coincide in extent, but it does not apply to rural schools. At the present day a man's time on the farm is far more valuable than it was some years ago. That fact alone should suggest the advisability of paying trustees for their services. It is supported, however, by the further considerations that the office would thereby be made more desirable, better men would be chosen, services would cease to be given unwillingly, the school work would receive more attention and better results would be secured. A definite percentage on their outlay during the year would probably be the best method of payment.

Trustees have often been unfairly censured. Miscellaneous condemnation seldom produces desirable results. Certainly it has not in this instance. Every inspector has doubtless known many excellent trustees. In fact he has known about three good trustees for every good teacher. We have been looking for the trustee to make the school, and it is true that the success or failure of our school work is largely in his hands. At the same time it is also true that the school more than any other force must make the trustee. Some teachers always have desirable trustees; others never have them. The inference needs no comment.

In an ideal system, trustees would possess high qualifications,

would in fact be able to make an intelligent examination of the teacher's work. That condition cannot be realized. It would be very difficult if not impossible to prescribe any educational qualifications for trustees which would produce beneficial results. It is by no means certain that even ex-teachers make the best trustees, unless they have been liberal-minded and progressive. A little learning in school lore as elsewhere, is a dangerous thing when clothed in its favorite garb,—a little power. Often men who are scarcely able to read and write make the most progressive trustees. The question of requiring some educational standard for trustees does not give promise of desirable results from any practicable solution.

The choice of trustees is in the hands of the people, and it must be left there. Nor can any great limitations be placed upon their choice. Probably the best thing that can be done to raise the standard of choice is to increase the importance of the office.

Township school boards have been suggested as an improvement. The suggestion is not new. They have been tried. As far as the writer has been able to learn the schools improved under their direction, but they were so unpopular that they were abandoned for section boards. That was possibly due to the fact that the township board was composed of so few members that the majority of the sections felt they were unrepresented. In a transition from section boards to township boards it would probably be necessary to have as many members as there were sections, and one member from each. It would further add to their importance, raise the standard of choice and completely unite the school and municipal interests, to have these members constitute the municipal council for the township and give to them the additional power of appointing one or more of their number as the representatives of the municipality in the county council.

Taxation.

Closely associated with the problem of improvement is the question of taxation. For years the school funds have been raised partly by a general rate uniform for the township; and partly by a section rate varying from section to section. Previous to 1906 the township rate was required to be sufficient to provide at least the sum of $150 for each section. That amount has been increased

to $300 except in townships where the average section assessment is less than $30,000. This change gives greater uniformity in the school rates, but there is need of further improvement. An excellent feature of the act of 1906 was the almost complete uniformity of taxation for school purposes it secured in townships having an average section assessment of $30,000 or more. That act in other essential respects was so far in advance of public opinion that it has been repealed. But though repealed it still lives. It sowed some good seed which is living and bearing fruit.

The problem of securing uniform school taxation would yield to easy solution in a municipal system where the same body of men constituted the township council and the township school board, as already described.

Under the present municipal and trustee systems the solution is to be looked for in the township grant. It has doubtless been found difficult to fix upon any definite sum for the township grant which would not be too small in some municipalities and too large in others. In theory the fixing of a minimum grant should meet all difficulties in the latter case, but in practice it does not.

If the township grant were to correspond with the teacher's salary up to the average salary of the teachers in the municipality the following results would be secured:—

(a) The amount of the grant would vary in different townships almost automatically and in proportion to the wealth of the people.

(b) Sections paying less than the average salary would be stimulated to raise their salary to the amount of the township grant, and each increase would raise the average.

(c) The apparent tendency it would have to decrease the high salaries is only apparent. Those paying good salaries with a low township grant, would not decrease them when that grant was increased.

(d) A principle would be put in operation which would tend to keep a fixed ratio between salaries and qualifications, an ideal condition.

(e) The section tax would almost disappear, thus increasing the uniformity of school taxation within the township.

(f) There would be but little difference in the school rates for adjoining municipalities on account of the small variation in the average of the teachers' salaries from one township to another.

Indirect Taxation for School Purposes.

The question of indirect taxation for school purposes may yet be a living question. At present it is probably very remote, and besides it is too broad for consideration in this paper. It would be a fitting subject for discussion at a future meeting of this Association.

Teachers.

The problem of providing efficient teachers for all rural schools is one of the most important educational questions of the present day. It is only necessary to state that nearly twenty per cent. of our rural teachers do not hold even third class certificates, and that more than ninety per cent. of our third class teachers are employed in country schools, to show that there is great need for improvement. Unfortunately in many cases the trustees and people think a teacher with a third class certificate is good enough for them. To remedy this, there is need of vigorous, well-directed and persistent effort on the part of inspectors, teachers and all lovers of good schools. The educational work to be done outside of the school will thus be seen to be so important that it may fairly claim the best efforts of the most gifted in the land.

A serious phase of the question of qualifications is that all our third class teachers remain with us, and at the same time we are losing a large number of those holding first or second class certificates. The call of the great west has been heard in the school room, and Ontario is being drained of material she can ill afford to lose.

A manifest aim of the act of 1906 was to stop this loss. Had it met with popular support instead of protest, we would in a few years have been able to keep our best qualified teachers at home, and those leaving us would have been limited to the surplus, if any, and that made up of those we did not want. We are practically spending money to provide teachers with normal training for the western provinces. It is indeed an ill wind that blows nobody good, but this westward-blowing one, like others from the east has the power of making us realize that there is something the matter inside. About the only consolation in it for ourselves is that we are unconsciously acting in a patriotic spirit to the federation; and it has been said that man is at his best when he is least self-conscious of the good he is doing.

It is now proposed to cease issuing (with few exceptions) any certificates below second class with normal training. This will have the effect of increasing the average length of service, and consequently of decreasing the number of new teachers required each year. If the permanent character of these certificates is made to depend upon a certain number of years of service, there will be a marked decrease in the number of teachers leaving this province at the close of each Normal School term.

If found practicable, it might also be well to make provision for a gratuity to teachers at the end of a certain number of years of service. It is possible that a small annual contribution from the teachers, to be supplemented by a like amount from the government—the whole with interest to be returned in equal portions to the teachers entitled to it at the end of a fixed tontine period—would give excellent returns for the government grant.

Conclusion.

There are many excellent features in our rural schools as at present constituted. One of the best of these is the comparative absence of a spirit of boasting. Equally praiseworthy is the agitation for improvement—the manifestation of the presence of that spirit of unrest which is the herald of a better future. Our rural conditions are favorable to the development of the highest types of manhood. Our people look for the day when those conditions will continue to exercise their beneficial influence throughout the whole period of secondary education, furnished in the country apart from the undesirable influences of even temporary urban residence, and strengthened by daily contact with the best of all schools, the home.

PRACTICAL MANUAL TRAINING.

CHARLES F. ERRETT,

Principal of Manual Training School, Brantford, Ont.

THOUGH my subject appears a simple one, yet I approach it with some diffidence. Manual training is so relatively new, has so many aspects and possibilities, and conveys such opposite meanings to different classes of thinkers, that it is not easy to see clearly its proper place and function in the school curriculum, and narrowly to define its most suitable forms for school purposes. I recall how a year or two ago I felt piqued at an editorial statement in the *Globe* to the effect that manual training was a subject not yet properly evaluated for educational purposes. As an enthusiastic manual training teacher, I was chagrined that any educational authority should question the value of a subject of study of such obvious purpose and efficiency. Since then, however, with wider opportunities of studying the position of the handcrafts in their relation to other school subjects, and with my enthusiasm rid of some of its prejudice, I have been able to see more clearly, and find that the criticism was true enough. Its reason and significance I think worth considering. In what I have to say about it, I hope to speak as an enquirer rather than with any degree of authority, which will make my paper more acceptable to you who have this subject at heart, too, and wish to see its permanent establishment.

At the outset it seems necessary to postulate that manual training should be practical, for, though that seems the most obvious requirement of the new subject, and though that has been the uppermost thought of its advocates, yet that conception is not in the minds of those who direct most of the work to-day. Our educationists have such inbred regard for the cultural values of studies, and abhorrence of the utilitarian, that they eliminate these elements wherever they can. Their phase of the manual training problem is, how best to transform manual training into an academic subject of study applicable to every grade of pupils, at every stage of their progress.

To my mind this is a gross misconception. The pressing problem is, rather, how best to develop the subject so that it will have wherever presented the highest worth as a preparation for service.

Failure to realize the need for practical teaching led to the importation into Canada of the Sloyd system of educational woodwork, a system frankly avowed as arranged for school purposes, purely educational, and as suitable for girls as for boys. Though this training had the added faults of rigidity and inadaptability, yet it was heartily championed and I am sure is influential still, its essential qualities being present even where its name is tabooed.

At the present time, our work is exposed to another danger quite as hostile as the influences of the pure educationist. I refer to its exploitation by the art teacher. In many places it is expected of the manual training teacher that he will prepare in his laboratory models capable of being decorated in other class rooms. Frequently the manual training itself is a minor art, bent iron, clay modelling and copper work, for example.

I recently visited an important manual training school in an American city, where a determined effort had been made to make use of the practical work for artistic educational purposes. There I found the teachers a unit in their opposition to such an extraneous influence, even in the guise of correlation with art. One master reflected his thought of the kinds of work usually available for this process by the sarcasm, "When you correlate nothing with nothing, what do you get?"

The attempt to fasten on every class in every school some little patch of hand-work is a misdirection of effort, antagonistic to the success of any manual training propaganda. To illustrate,—in the most recent report of the Ontario Education Department, it is deplored that manual training fails to reach the fifty-eight per cent. of our school children, who attend country schools, and it is suggested that these pupils bring clay to school to fashion into shape, or rushes to weave, or samples of wall paper to use in constructive work. Now, while I grant the educational efficiency of hand-work taught by spontaneous efforts of live teachers, yet I question the advisability of insisting on any regular course of purely educational work, leading nowhere and developing no useful capacity. Such a system it seems to me, takes as little account of a child's ultimate requirements as of his ordinary out-of-school activities.

This leads to a question of the validity of the theory struggled for by many manual training propagandists, that there should be a continuous system of hand-work from the kindergarten to the technical school.

If there were forms of training available that would follow one another naturally, and produce definite and valuable results, I would readily agree to the proposition, but, so far as I have seen it, a great deal of elementary hand-work is in no sense contributory to practical manual training, and merely replaces the old drawing and writing by subjects of no content value.

An element of danger of another sort is the teacher who is confused by psychological phrases, the bug-a-boo of the old model school, who does not know what he should teach, or how or why. Recently a manual training supervisor told me that it was not for such as we to decide the educational values of subjects. That was a matter for philosophers to deal with. We should teach as we were told.

Let me tell you the result of these scholastic influences on the effectiveness of our teaching, as it is trenchantly formulated in the report of the recent Massachusetts Commission. This is what it says of manual training, in a State where conditions have been more favorable to reasonable development than in our own: "It has been urged as a culture subject, mainly useful, as a stimulus to educational effort—a sort of mustard relish, an appetizer—to be conducted without reference to any industrial end. It has been severed from real life as completely as have other school activities. Thus it has come about that the overmastering influences of school traditions have brought into subjection both the drawing and the manual work."

To return to our postulate, should manual training be taught as a practical subject, should it be regarded as a definite factor in vocational preparation? I think this can be answered easily enough in the affirmative. As I pointed out before, its utilitarian aspect led to its introduction, and to all but teachers, its chief worth still lies in its possibilities of fitting boys for service. Even to teachers it must appear that the practical forms of manual training are quite as educational as the other, that rightly taught they are quite as full of cultural elements.

Moreover, it cannot be expected of the subject that it should take the place of any cultural studies, of which we already have

many, eminently fitted and properly evaluated for educational purposes.

But the chief reason for frankly regarding manual training as a practical subject is that its great and obvious value lies in its efficiency in preparing children for the callings they are likely to follow.

A teacher imbued with this conception of his work will have little confusion in selecting those forms of hand-work which directly contribute to his purpose, and little difficulty in using these to the greatest advantage. For example, among the elementary forms, what is called constructive work, the cutting and folding of cardboard or paper will be of service in a very minor way indeed, bent iron work will be of no practical value, nor, so far as I can see, will clay modelling. For, excellent as these things may be to the theoretical educationist in their proper places as modes of expression, they serve no purpose as forms of practical manual training.

On the other hand, writing, drawing, sewing, gardening, furnish admirable opportunities for elementary practical training, are readily available, readily taught, and each essential in preparing a child for right living.

In any case the elementary manual training should be controlled by the teacher, should spring spontaneously from the opportunities present, and should not be the development of any prescribed course. Even the educationist may well stop to consider whether some of his educational hand-work is not merely an addition to a child's already innumerable and superabundant physical activities.

If I were a teacher in a country school again, I would let the girls care for a garden, while the boys built a fence, or a tool house, and I would take care to teach them all correct gardener's or carpenter's methods. I would not ask them to bring scraps of wall paper to crimp into valentines, or broken goblets to convert into things of beauty.

When boys are old enough for it, bench work in wood is the most valuable practical training available. This you will readily admit if you consider how many men have to handle wood-working tools to a greater or less extent, and too, that the fundamental tool operations in all trades are similar to those in wood-working. Besides, in wood-working there are at hand abundant opportunities for developing precision, patience, and thoroughness, habits that will stand a lad in good stead, whatever his occupation may be.

It will be quite proper for the teacher to inculcate such habits as these, along with a readiness to work with various faculties at once. The artistic, cultural or educational elements with which this work abounds need not be sacrificed at all, but the teacher should keep in mind that its definite and primary purpose is utilitarian.

There are other forms of manual training usually taught to more advanced classes than the wood-work, wood-turning, pattern making, chipping and filing, and blacksmithing. These are usually taught practically, the courses of work being commonly derived from engineering schools, whose practice is a direct reflection of that of modern shops. Still, these courses of exercises are often open to the criticism that after passing through them a young man is incapable of applying in any individual project the principles he has acquired, and so allows much of his knowledge to fall into disuse.

Let me repeat, the chief value of such a course of general practical training as has just been outlined, is, that it prepares a boy who will ultimately enter some industrial occupation to meet shop tasks and problems with thought and knowledge as well as skill, and forms in him certain qualities of earnestness and persistence, requisite to his employment. It develops in him, too, the habit of solving difficulties by intelligent analysis, bringing to his aid lessons drawn from whatever source.

To be practical, manual training should be governed by these requirements, and there is little likelihood that the teacher who loses sight of them will ever realize the worth of his subject.

It is most important that we clear our vision. We have been seeing through mists of enthusiasm, or of unformed scholastic theory. Some professional propagandist has been showing us the way with his lantern. Philanthropists have pressed on us their gratuitous symbols of truth. Let me urge a plea, that we look for ourselves, intently and with open minds.

We shall see, I warrant you, that manual training occupies a sphere of its own, a large one, I grant, but not that of other studies at all. It is a source of delight to one who views education broadly that this is so, that in our country children may acquire a training, wide in its opportunities for cultural attainment, and with rapidly increasing possibilities that make directly for service, and useful citizenship.

MUSIC IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

A. T. Cringan, Mus. Bac.

Normal School, Toronto.

The subject which I have been requested to discuss with you to-day is decidedly comprehensive in its scope. I have experienced some difficulty in deciding just what should be included in a paper suited to an Association such as yours, and what to omit. Your worthy secretary, however, very kindly assisted me in the matter, by suggesting that I deal with the problems which require to be solved by public school teachers and trustees in their efforts to establish the teaching of music on a sound basis in their schools. I shall assume that, at the present stage of educational development in Canada, it is unnecessary to say anything in support of according the teaching of music a recognized place in the curriculum of our public schools. In past years it was necessary to advocate the claims of music to be recognized as a subject of real educational value, but now there exists a widespread desire to extend the benefits of an elementary musical education to the young people throughout the Dominion. And why not? We have outgrown the old ideas which were wont to be held on this subject. People who used to tell us that the boys and girls of Canada were not gifted with musical voices, or the artistic temperament, to the same extent as the boys and girls of older countries, have had to re-adjust their ideas on the subject to a considerable extent. The truth of the matter lies in the fact that, in the past, we have been so busy developing the natural resources of our country, that we have had little time to spare for the development of the latent artistic faculties, undoubtedly possessed by our young people, at least to an equal extent with those of European countries. When this has been developed, what are the results? Visiting teachers have during recent years informed us that the best examples of school music which they have heard in the American continent have been heard in Canada. And, when the boys and girls have left their school days behind them, and have continued their musical studies in connection with one or other of

the many choral societies, now happily to be found in a large majority of Canadian towns and cities, what has been the result? A few months ago we sent a sample down to New York to show what we can do in the higher realm of choral music, and the critics were compelled to admit that no such singing had ever been heard in New York. One of the leading metropolitan critics said that the Mendelssohn Choir was in a class by itself, and could only be compared to the Boston Symphony Orchestra, which is recognized as the finest organization of instrumentalists in the world. An ex-president of the Manufacturers' Association, who was present at the first concert given by the Choir in New York, expressed the opinion that this was the greatest advertisement of Canadian resources that had ever been made in the United States. The raw material of which such choral organizations are made must be prepared in the public schools. If children are permitted to pass through the public schools without having received the musical training to which they are entitled, it will be found that a large percentage will be permanently incapable of singing even the simplest song, or hymn tune. But, if the study of music be properly introduced in the earlier years of school life, it has been proved beyond question that the proportion of those who cannot be trained to sing, may be kept as low as two per cent.

Let us now discuss some of the problems to be faced in connection with the teaching of music in public schools. The nature of these problems I have had ample opportunity to learn from the many enquiries which have been addressed to me during the past twenty years. In order to make this paper as practical as possible I have selected a number of the questions most frequently asked in connection with this subject.

To whom should the teaching of music be entrusted?

Should special teachers of music be engaged to teach this exclusively?

Should the regular grade teachers be expected to teach music with no other training than that given at the Model and Normal Schools?

Or, is it necessary, or advisable, that this be supplemented by expert supervision?

What system shall we adopt? Shall it be exclusively Staff, or exclusively Tonic-Solfa?

What is this Tonic-Solfa system anyway?

Is it not simply a makeshift which has to be discarded when the staff is introduced?

After these problems have been disposed of we have still to face the most vital question of all, namely:—In what should the teaching of music in public schools consist?

Shall we confine our studies to the theoretical branches of music? Or shall we leave theory severely alone, and teach singing of songs and reading of notes only? Or, again, may we not happily combine theory with practice?

In the short time at my disposal it will only be possible to discuss very briefly, the problems which have been outlined. The question as to whether it is advisable to engage a specialist to undertake the entire responsibility of the music teaching, depends for its answer on local conditions. In some localities an attempt has been made to have the subject taught entirely by visiting teachers, but, the advantages of this course are largely outweighed by its obvious disadvantages, which are numerous. Musicians who are trained teachers are remarkably few. In his daily work the average musician is engaged in dealing with individual pupils, and a piano, or other musical instrument, is usually employed. In the schoolroom the conditions are entirely different. Pianos are not found in the schoolroom, and the teacher has to deal with classes of pupils who are accustomed to strict discipline, and who very quickly discover whether a visiting teacher has the necessary teaching power to enable him to secure, and retain their attention. If a specialist is to succeed, he must be a *teacher* first of all, but, should he be less of a teacher than a musician, his chances of success are small.

The regular teacher is apt to look upon the visiting teacher as an intruder, and one cannot blame her should she take advantage of the temporary relief from responsibility to attend to other matters having no connection whatever with the lesson of the moment. The pupils observe this, and reason that if the subject is, apparently, not of sufficient importance to engage the attention of their teacher, they can scarcely be expected to put forth their best efforts.

Should the regular teachers be expected to teach music with no other training than that received in the model and normal schools? To this question it is not possible to give a direct answer of general application. Within recent years the normal school term has been, in some provinces, extended to a full academic year which renders it possible to make the course of instruction in music, as in other

subjects, much more thorough and comprehensive than in former years. Were all normal students required to give evidence of having acquired an elementary knowledge of music, it would be practicable to arrange the course of instruction in such a manner as to include studies of a more advanced character, and, also, to give more time to the study of modern methods of teaching the subject. This, however, cannot be accomplished until the teaching of music is made more general in the public and high schools in which the students receive their early training. On enquiry it has been ascertained that a large proportion of normal school students have had no musical training whatever before entering on their normal course. This fact necessitates the adaptation of the course of instruction to the majority, consequently, the teaching, during the first half of the year, has to be devoted to the most elementary branches of musical knowledge, and the entire course can seldom proceed beyond the studies prescribed for fourth form pupils of public schools in districts where the subject is taught throughout the grades. Still, there is reason for congratulation in the fact that many students do succeed in overcoming this disadvantage, and acquire sufficient knowledge of music to teach it successfully in the classes under their care. The training received at the normal schools should enable the majority of normal graduates to teach music satisfactorily if their efforts are supplemented by an occasional visit from a competent supervisor.

No other can do the work so well as the regular teacher who is in daily touch with her pupils. The benefits to be derived from daily instruction or recreation are absent when the music is not under the control of the regular teacher. The benefits of relaxation consequent on the introduction of a favorite song during the course of the ordinary school studies are considerable.

In large centers it has been found practicable to engage special teachers of music to direct the work of the regular grade teachers, but in towns and villages this course is found to be too expensive. In order to provide for expert supervision of the work in the regular grades, I would recommend that one teacher be encouraged to specialize in the teaching of music, by attendance at Summer schools or otherwise in order that she may qualify to aid in overcoming the difficulties encountered by the regular teacher. This plan has been adopted with successful results in several districts in Ontario where the cost of a special teacher of music would be prohibitive.

The question of what system of teaching to adopt is an im-

portant one. The controversy which at one time was vigorously waged between the advocates of Staff and Tonic-Solfa systems has resulted in a better understanding of the merits and advantages to be found in both. It is now generally conceded that the pupils should have a fair understanding of the Staff before leaving school, and it has been proven beyond dispute that the Tonic-Solfa system provides the best foundation on which this can be built.

The argument is sometimes urged against this course that it involves the use of a notation which has to be discarded when the transition from Tonic-Solfa to the Staff has to be made. It is also argued that two notations are quite superfluous, but the advocates of the Staff only frequently overlook the fact that the complexities of the notation require, not *two*, but as many as *fifteen* different notations for so simple a matter as the major scale. In the Tonic-Solfa notation a single representation suffices for the notes of the scale in any of the fifteen keys in which it may be written. This principle of simplicity of representation is characteristic of the Tonic-Solfa notation throughout. None of the characters employed in the notation have more than a single meaning, and individual musical effects are invariably represented by the same signs. The difficulties inseparable from the complexities inherent in the Staff notation are relegated to the higher forms, and the beginners, in the Tonic-Solfa system, are enabled to concentrate their attention on the problems connected with music itself, and not on notation. This is important if we would seek to inculcate a love for music in the minds of our young children and train them to employ their ears and voices intelligently. If we succeed in getting them to sing well in tune, and to recognize musical sounds when they hear them, there will be little trouble encountered when mere notational difficulties have to be overcome.

We now come to the consideration of the most vital problems of all, namely, What shall we teach? The only answer which I can give to this question is that the principal object of all our instruction in music must be tuneful singing. To accomplish this, voices must be carefully trained in order that correct habits of voice use may be formed, the ear must be cultivated, and the power to recognize the finer points of true intonation thoroughly developed. Without this, no ability to read music readily, however desirable in itself, is worth the time spent in its attainment. Mere note-hitting is not singing. Let us cultivate the power to sing sweetly and in tune,

and make this the basis of all our instruction in music. Without this there can be little of interest in the music lesson for either teacher or pupils.

[The above was followed by a demonstration of methods of cultivating the voices of young pupils in class, and also, of the application of the Tonic-Solfa system to the Staff, in which Mr. Cringan had the assistance of a number of boys from the third form of the provincial model school. This was followed with deep interest by the audience, and, in answer to questions, much additional information of interest was given by the lecturer.]

HOME ECONOMICS.

MRS. ADELAIDE HOODLESS,

Hamilton.

AT the opening meeting of this conference on Wednesday evening your President said (if correctly reported) that—"the greatest educational agency of all is the home, and the greatest danger lies in the lessening of healthy home influence." I venture to say there was not a dissenting mind in the audience, yet in looking over the programme of this important educational conference, how much time do we find devoted to this "greatest of all educational agencies," or to consideration of subjects directly concerned with the training of the "agents?"

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University, N.Y., says,—"The first question to be asked of any course of study is: Does it lead to a knowledge of our contemporary civilization? If not it is neither efficient nor liberal. In society as it exists to-day the dominant note running through all our struggles and problems is economic—what the old Greeks might have called political. Yet it is a constant fight to get proper teaching from the economic and *social* point of view put before high school and college students.

They are considered too young or too immature to study such recondite subjects, although the nice distinctions between Greek moods and tenses, and the principles of conic sections, with their appeal to the highly trained mathematical imagination, are their daily food. As a result, thousands of young men and women, who have neither the time, money, nor desire for a university career, are sent forth from the schools either in profound ignorance of the economic basis of society, or with only the most superficial and misleading knowledge of it. The public school exists because it is thought good citizenship cannot be secured *without training*, and yet we stop short, as a rule, of giving the student the habit of truly social action, and a consciousness of the social-economic interdependence of modern life upon which good citizenship must be based."

Coupling Dr. Butler's theory of education with H. G. Wells' statement that "the government of the home has more to do in the moulding of character than any other influence, owing to the large place it fills in the early life of the individual, and during the most plastic stage of development," we are surely justified in an effort to secure a place for home economics in the councils and educational institutions of the country.

"The greatest need of mankind is a knowledge of himself, of the means of making the best of himself, and of serving his fellow man efficiently. He needs to know the laws of nature that he may work with and not against them, that they may help and not hinder him. It is this side of education taking perhaps one-fifth of the time, but ever present in *idea*, the science of better living conditions in order that the human race may enter into its heritage of fuller organic life that is meant by home economics" (Mrs. Richards, Mass Inst. of Technology). Power must be underneath whatever is to survive.

The social environment, in whatever form, plays a large part in the school of life, and the social constitution of the home invariably shapes the conceptions of life, just as its conduct shapes manners and bearing, and its moral tone begets moral predisposition. The effect of home influence constitutes a second heredity almost indistinguishable from primary heredity, a moral shaping by suggestion, example and influence. The traditional constitution of the home is modified by each generation. Much of our social chaos is due to this mixture of tradition and changing conditions. Man has not yet become reconciled to the independence of woman, and woman has not yet learned the best way to use her independence.

Education has been organized according to a man's mind; system, based on certain standards, has been applied to every phase of occupation—commercial, professional, mechanical—with which man is directly concerned, but, that "greatest educational influence of all" the home has been left to haphazard knowledge, traditional instinct and unscientific methods.

There is usually a new task laid upon each generation, and the reconstruction of educational ideals and methods seems to be the one laid out for the present generation of teachers and parents.

The ethical theory that all organized bodies of facts and laws have each a direct bearing on the other, seems especially necessary in the construction of a system of education. Commercial, professional, industrial and domestic interests are so closely interwoven that a system of instruction which does not provide for what President Elliot of Harvard University calls the first essential, "a healthy animal," cannot fulfil its function in producing the highest type of citizen.

The home has been called "the workshop for the making of men," therefore, an education which will create a greater sense of responsibility in the home-maker and establish a higher standard of home life and influence is essential to the harmonious organization of society.

In addition to the social value of home economics a very interesting experiment carried out at Yale University by Professor Fisher (professor of political economy) has proved that the economic value of a man is largely determined by diet. Gymnasium and spasmodic physical training can never take the place of good dietetic and hygienic habits established in childhood, and that knowledge which tends to a greater respect for the social rights of others. H. G. Wells says in his book "Mankind in the Making"—"No other factor that can be named as a conservator of the public health can equal woman *intelligently* guarding her home from noxious seeds of disease and death, and in her proper sphere of mother and teacher educating the coming generations of men and woman in the knowledge of how their lives may be made healthy and happy, and extending into years of usefulness."

The chief objection to the introduction of Domestic Science, or to use the more comprehensive term, Home Economics, into the schools is the already overcrowded curriculum. At an educational conference, a short time ago, the following points were dis-

cussed: first, the average child does not like to go to school; second, the schools of to-day do not prepare children for life; third, the present school system is so overcrowded that there is no room for domestic science and manual training. Miss Snow, School of Education, Chicago University, threw some light on these questions, by asking: "Why does the average child dislike school?" Because he sees no use in the work he is asked to do. In watching two classes at work Miss Snow noted the difference in the interest displayed through different methods of teaching. One class was busy with some examples in arithmetic. Not more than half solved the problems correctly, but it did not make any serious difference to them as they were not going to use the result of their labor. The other class was using every faculty trying to find out the exact size each must make the frame in which to mold the door for his furnace. It made a vast difference to these children whether they solved their problems right. The door must fit or they could not use their furnace. One class was being educated, the other was not. Miss Snow asked "if it is not time to think a little more of the real means by which a child may be educated and less of the subject matter in the curriculum?" I would put household arts in the school to save time, if for no other reason, and teach reading, writing, mathematics and science through this subject, by the real doing of things and so make school and life real to the child. Miss Snow gave a most interesting illustration of how mathematics may be taught in a cooking class. "In a class of six year old children, we began with fractions, using the measuring cup. We were making something that required them to know how many halves there are in a whole, how many fourths in a whole, how many fourths in a half. They learned quickly. In making fig sandwiches the recipe called for one half as much sugar as figs and twice as much water. Each child measured the figs after cutting them in small pieces, then had to find out how much sugar and water to use. The amount of figs varied so that some of the problems involved were one-half of one-quarter, one-half of two, one-half of one-half, one-half of one-third, one-third of two. They solved them quickly. Why? Because each one wanted to make his sandwich."

The two points in mathematics are seeing through the problem, and learning the tables and processes by which that problem may be solved. Why should years of a child's life be spent in trying to master these by mechanical methods when they can so easily

be gained through doing things. Miss Snow gave nine points which had been given by a professor of mathematics to his class as a reason why domestic science should be taught in the schools:

1. To give children an intelligent interest in and a wholesome regard for the occupations in the home.

2. To bring school and home into closer co-operation towards social ends.

3. To give the young pupil a knowledge of and a regard for elementary science by the scientific study of those common concerns of home life which may mean so little but should mean so much.

4. To make young persons more keenly conscious of the great importance of physical health and vigor and consequently mental health by due regard for diet, sanitation, and right living.

5. To make pupils more intelligent regarding the procuring, transporting and preparation of food, clothing and shelter.

6. To impress patrons and children of the school with the usefulness and the worth, even in a physical sense, of education.

7. To afford relaxation from mental tasks by engaging the hands as well as the brains in the work of education, thus attending to the motor as well as the mental interests of the child.

8. Enabling children to be real social factors in the home by comparing quality, cost, and ways of preparing things in the home with similar facts learned at school, thereby influencing parents to modify customary procedure towards something better and more economical.

9. To give the pupils a deeper personal regard for community interests and occupations in general, and the persons whose lives are identified with these.

The aim of all education should be the production of social efficiency, individual efficiency and economic efficiency. That a good course in home economics will contribute largely to these educational results is granted by all educators who have given the matter intelligent consideration.

In order that greater social efficiency may be produced it is desirable that the more practical course should be given in the elementary school in such a way as to secure valuable habits and manipulative skill. Aristotle says, "moral virtue is the outcome of habit" and another writer says, "habit is the enormous fly-wheel of society, its most precious conservative agent. Could the young but realize how soon they will become walking bundles of habit

they would give more heed to their conduct when in the plastic stage."

Development of reasoning power and the application of science belongs to the high school. Principles and relations should receive special attention in the college course. The deeper ethical, scientific and economic principles must be understood by those who prepare the general teacher for effectual work.

The more direct technical training should be given in special and post-graduate courses.

"Does society as a whole show any needs that such a study would meet and answer?" Surely the most casual student of present social conditions must see that a large proportion of our population, both rich and poor, is in poor physical condition, and that there is in consequence great economic waste; for lack of vigor means lack of effective accomplishment, and also makes necessary large expenditure for remedial measures. With better shelter, food, water, ventilation, cleanliness and proper clothing, a check would be placed on this enormous waste, and more real work would be done, and there would be fewer patent medicines, patent foods, and hospitals. Another common waste is through poor buying and extravagant use of materials. To what are these things due? (1) Ignorance of women on these points in the management of a household; (2) ignorance of men and women together in the management of that larger household, the city (or state).

(1) Domestic and economic conditions have greatly changed during the last half century, and while men have met such changes in their business lives and adapted themselves to them, women go on in many respects in the ways which were adequate in the days of their grandmothers, but are far from sufficient now.

Again, the daughter from the family of small means must often take her place as a breadwinner outside the home, and the child of well-to-do parents is absorbed in her school life. Both, equally, enter upon their married life with little or no knowledge of the *business* of housekeeping before them.

(2) If all our citizens, both men and women, were alive to the physical and economic evils consequent on bad building, imperfect water supply, defective disposal of waste, and dirty streets, these things would not exist.

The teaching of home economics should go far to correct these errors, for it emphasises health as a normal condition, and gives knowledge of the physical conditions which will maintain this; emphasises the home as the unit of society, and the management of the home as a business needing brains and special training; shows how, on the economic side of marriage the wife is the business partner, that her part as spender and manager is no less important than the husband's as earner, and that he cannot succeed if she fails to meet her obligations.

ART IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

JESSIE P. SEMPLE,

Supervisor, Toronto.

IN dealing with the subject of art in the public schools, I realize that I cannot hope to do much in a practical way in the scope of a single talk, so I have chosen that department of the subject in which errors seem to be most prevalent, especially in places where the work is in the hands of the ordinary teachers who have little knowledge of the subject as it has developed during the last few years under the direction of qualified supervisors. The errors to which I refer are the over expression of details in pictorial work, and the putting together of these details without duly considering unity of idea and subordination, or even elimination, of unimportant parts.

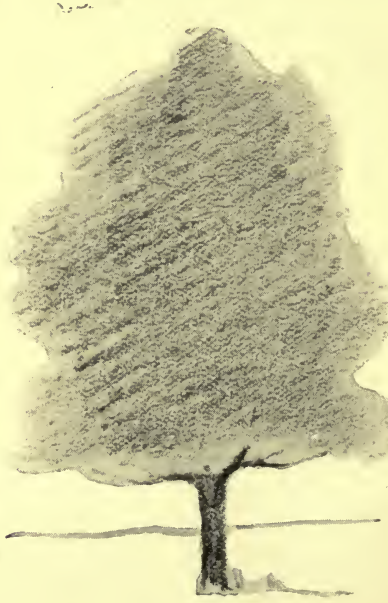
The expression of masses in their relation to one another, in position, size, proportion, and shape, should be the first consideration. I shall speak of landscape and nature drawing in this connection.

If we think of a landscape, we know that we have to deal with two main masses on which other masses or shapes may appear—I refer, of course, to sky and earth. These should be expressed very simply at first as at (A).

A.

As trees are more than likely to appear in our pictures, we should study individual trees that we may express properly their proportions

and shapes. It is best to commence this study when the trees are in full foliage, as then the main masses—foliage and trunk—are most clearly defined. Look at a tree and decide the relationship in height between the whole tree and the trunk. Suggest, by touches with the pencil, where the trunk starts, where the top of the tree comes, and then the point between these where the branching part begins. Indicate by touches also, where the tree is widest. Mass in the foliage part in a way which shows that you realize the difference between the softness of the foliage and the sturdiness of the trunk and visible branches. Express this sturdiness by firm touches and be careful to show the character of the joinings where the branches leave the trunk (B).



B.

Now we must consider how trees appear in a landscape. Most children either place them *on* the horizon line or altogether *below* that line. Neither position is likely to be correct. Our first hint of a perspective law comes in here, and we should realize by careful observation that *the horizon line is always on a level with the eyes.* This may be observed in any open spaces of country or of water. If we stand on an elevation the line rises to our height, etc. etc.

In placing the trees in the picture the horizon line should pass behind the trees at the height of the eyes of the person making the picture. To fancy oneself standing beside the tree in the picture will make this plain. It could only happen that the line would appear at the *base* of the trunk, if the observer drew lying flat on the ground, or *above* the trees if he were standing on a high elevation. When trees are very far away their masses do not even seem to be divided into trunks and foliage parts, but appear as simple masses against the sky (C).

C.

If outdoor work in landscape sketching seems impossible with our large classes, this need not discourage us, nor prevent us from attempting imaginative work in this subject, nor will our efforts be fruitless. Many a child will bring back to school, after the holidays, sketches of places he has seen, and many more will see and realize beauty and will long to express it whose clumsy little fingers are without the skill. The desire to express will help in the inspiration which a nature loving teacher cannot fail to arouse.

[In addition to her work with pencil and chalk, Miss Semple by a series of rapidly executed sketches in colors, gave illustrations of work suitable for pupils beginning to use colored crayons and water

colors. The editor regrets that it has not been practicable to reproduce these. Several hundred drawings, made by pupils in the Toronto public schools, were mounted on large sheets to exhibit the subject matter, methods and results in drawing classes. These were examined daily by many members of the Association.]

THE CULTURE USE OF ENGLISH IN SCHOOLS.

WILLIAM HOUSTON, M.A.,

Toronto.

THE purpose of this paper is to make clear my views on the scope and method of "English" as an educational subject. These views are the outcome of much practice in composition, of incessant revision of other people's productions, of long and varied experience as a teacher of the subject, and of numerous methodological discussions while I acted as director of teachers' institutes for the province of Ontario. While I have used the term "schools" in the title, the scope here defined and the methods here advocated, are, in my opinion, just as applicable, *mutatis mutandis*, to colleges and universities as they are to primary and secondary schools. "English" is a subject for teaching, not for lecturing, and it will not produce its best results for culture until the lecture method is entirely abandoned, and the student is required to do his own work and form his own opinions on every branch of the subject. Thus he must do, of course, under the criticism of teachers who may incidentally but legitimately convey much helpful knowledge of the subject by a skilful use of the socratic method. Knowledge obtained by listening to lectures is second hand knowledge; the only acquaintance with the subject which makes for culture is that obtained by the practice of research. In short, research is the process of which culture is the result.

The Scope of English.

As used in connection with school work, besides reading and writing, "English" includes composition, grammar, philology, rhetoric, prosody, and the study of literature. Composition is an art and is therefore synthetic. Grammar, philology, rhetoric, and prosody are sciences and are therefore analytic. The study of literature also is analytic, but for school purposes its chief value is due to its influence upon the emotions; it is therefore esthetic rather than scientific. These remarks may be illustrated by exhibiting their purport in tabular form:—

Artistic—Composition—The art of expressing thought in language.

Scientific—Grammar—The investigation of the logical structure of language expressing thought.

Philology—The investigation of the meanings and forms past and present of individual words.

Rhetoric—The investigation of the structure of discourse.

Prosody — The investigation of the forms of verse.

Esthetic—The analytical and critical study of literature that appeals to the emotions, and especially to the sense of the beautiful.

The ordinary definitions of composition and grammar are apt to convey the impression that these subjects, if not identical, cover much the same ground. Nothing could be more misleading. Instead of being in the least degree similar they are exactly opposite. Composition is the art of putting words and groups of words together to express a process of thought; grammar is the science that investigates how the thought has been expressed by means of words and groups of words. It is the constant aim of the person intent on expressing thought to do so in ways that are not only effective but conventional; it is the task of the grammarian, not to pass judgment on the conventional propriety of the form in which the thought has been effectively embodied, but to ascertain how words that of themselves say nothing have been made to say some-

thing. Because composition is generally the expression of continuous thought the author has to plan his discourse as well as construct his statements; for this reason rhetoric is, no less than grammar, the antithesis of composition, and therefore it is, like grammar both analytic and scientific. The same is true of philology. The effective expression of thought depends on the choice of individual words, but the investigation of these words is the process which has built up the science of philology and which is continually adding to it. Poetry is, like prose, a vehicle of thought, but in English highly specialized forms are by a variety of devices elaborated for the purpose. These verse forms may be investigated by means of analysis, and the resulting body of knowledge is the science of prosody.

It is quite obvious that the above definitions and explanations involve certain departures from the received terminology of "English" in schools. These changes are not put forward with any polemic intent. I have long been convinced that some changes are necessary, and these are merely suggestions made in the earnest hope that they may help to disentangle the mass of confusion that at present does duty as a nomenclature in connection with the study of "English" in schools. Unfortunately for the pupils in school, the confusion of terminology corresponds to a confusion of conceptions. The real explanation of contradictions in terms is incompatibility of their connotations.

Methods in English.

There are two important objects which in the teaching of English must be kept steadily in view: the improvement of the pupil's power of expressing his thought in language, and the culture incidentally obtainable from the discipline to which he is subjected during the process. This discipline will involve not merely the practice of the art of composition, but also frequent scientific investigations of the form of discourse, others as well as his own. It will involve also the esthetic study of literary compositions which he may not be able to imitate, but which are pre-eminently valuable for the ideals they are perpetually presenting to him for acceptance and realization.

The Teaching of Composition.

There are certain facts regarding the art of composition which the successful teacher must bear perennially in mind:

1. Language is not the only means of expressing thought. Communications may be made by gestures and often these are used to supplement and enforce the ordinary means of communication. Specialized gestures, systematically used, have been devised for the dumb. Writing is the outcome of intelligently utilized gestures. Language is only the most convenient means of expressing thought.

2. All language is conventional and is therefore learned by imitation. The penalty for the use of unconventional language is the failure of the person using it to make himself understood.

3. Under ordinary circumstances the pupil has his language learned before he comes to school. He has a vocabulary adequate to his needs and without assistance, or even prompting, he can expand it as necessity demands. He has all the words he requires to express his ideas and he is a perfect master of the art of using them to make any statement he feels prompted to make. Generally his vocabulary is that of his environment; and quite often it is that of his immediate family circle. Hence the expression applied to one's own language, "mother tongue."

4. These facts show that the teacher's function in relation to composition is not to supply the pupil with a language but to improve his power over the language he brings with him to the school. His task is not to "teach" so much as to "train," and as the improvement must needs be slow, it is necessary that he face his long task with perfect intelligence, unwearied persistence, and imperturbable tact.

The most efficient cause of the admitted failure to make young people expert in the conventional use of the English language in the expression of thought is the general neglect of the spoken language in schools. Attention has been in the past given far too exclusively to the use of the written language. Even if this could be made effective so far as essay-writing in the school period is concerned, the reform would not endure, for wrong usages of speech will ultimately dominate and demoralize the superficially acquired and comparatively evanescent habits of correct writing. Defects of spoken language are very numerous and varied. Consonants are indistinctly enunciated and wrong sounds are given to vowels; emphasis is often misplaced; words are often erroneously selected; the modes of uniting them to make statements are often uncon-

ventional, even when they are not ineffective in expressing the sense intended to be conveyed; figures of speech are often ludicrously inappropriate; and generally the language of speech is inelegant and undignified, not to say crude and slipshod. Some of these defects appear also in the written language, but there they are subjected to more or less effective criticism. From the standpoint of utility no less than of culture it will pay the teacher of composition to make a strenuous and continuous effort to improve the language spoken in the school and the locality.

Essay writing receives a great deal of attention in schools, and properly so. It serves many useful educationl purposes, among others that of a training for written examinations. It is an exercise in the art of collecting one's thoughts on a given theme, arranging them in some intelligent order, and expressing them in the briefest and most lucid way the writer can devise and elaborate. There are two matters of exceptional importance in essay writing: (1) the choice of theme and the mode of treatment, and (2) the choice of language and the mode of using it. These are the "invention" and "style" of the old rhetoricians—the finding of something to say and the saying of it. To treat at any length here of invention is impracticable. Pupils should sometimes be allowed to choose their own subjects; at other times the teacher should choose for them. Sometimes the members of a class may be allowed to write on as many different subjects as there are pupils; at other times all should be required to write on the same subject. Topics for this purpose may be usefully selected from the fields of literature, history, and science within the school program, and from the experience of ordinary life outside of it. Letter writing is of great practical as well as cultural value. The range is so wide that the teacher need never be at a loss; he is much more likely to have a chronic embarassment of riches.

In relation to choice of theme and mode of treatment it is absolutely essential that the pupils who are to write on a subject should know about it a great deal more than they will have a chance to embody in an essay. In such subjects as literature and history the ordinary class lessons may be utilized for preparation purposes. For scientific subjects a well conducted object lesson will be found useful. The all important requirement is that the pupil must have thoughts to express before he is asked to express them, and that when the task is assigned to him he should be left as free as practicable

from authoritative direction and officious interference. The "ordering" of the thoughts as well as the selection of them should be left entirely to his own ingenuity and inventiveness; the teacher's control should be exercised through criticism. The arrangement of matter will be badly done, of course, but the pupil will have had the advantage of not merely the experience obtained by arranging it, but the more valuable experience of re-arranging it in the light of the criticisms called forth by his defects.

In composition it is extremely important that the words chosen be used in significations that are precisely correct, and that they be used in ways that are strictly conventional. Such a general rule is all that can be laid down for the pupils, but since it is one that very few even of the most cultured and experienced adults may be trusted to observe without fail the most the teacher can accomplish is to train the pupils through criticism to habits of watchfulness and to develop in them the faculty of effective self-criticism. Clearly this cannot be accomplished by correcting written compositions for them. They must be trained to detect as well as correct their own defects, and this is made very difficult if their defects are always pointed out to them by the teacher. One useful method of procedure is to write out on the blackboard passages previously excerpted from the essays for that purpose, choosing only such as have defects in them. No member of the class except the authors of the criticized passages need or should know who wrote them, and criticisms may then be freely invited on the explicit understanding that the pupil who specifies a defect should be able to give some reasons for his faultfinding, and to put the passage in a form that is from his standpoint correct. Pupils will meanwhile be learning to compare their own work with that of other members of the class, and will gradually become surprisingly expert in detecting and correcting their own errors and in avoiding like defects of style. The criticisms may be wide enough to include erroneous statements of fact, ineffective arrangement of thoughts, needless repetition of words, bad punctuation, unconventional spelling, and any other defects the pupils feel inclined to notice. The one indispensable condition is that the critic must be able to give his own reasons for his opinion that a passage is capable of improvement. All essays should be re-written after the critical work is completed. In fact the second writing will serve a much more useful purpose than the first one, because the writer will know more about the subject, his knowledge will be

more accurate, and he will have acquired some additional skill in the ordering of his thoughts, to say nothing of his more complete mastery over the use of conventional forms. Obviously, if such a method as this is practised, it will not be necessary for the teacher to read over all the compositions sent in at any one time. He may limit his reading to the essays from which he selects passages for criticism, taking care, however, that no pupils get less than their fair share of its benefits.

The Teaching of Grammar.

The method of teaching any subject is determined by the nature of the subject. Grammar is a science, not an art; it is an analytic process, not a synthetic one; it is the practice of investigation, not the practice of construction. The subject of analytic investigation in grammar is the "statement," and its object is to ascertain and disclose its "functional elements," whether these are words taken individually or words taken in groups. It is not the part of the grammarian to inquire whether the statement he is investigating is effective or ineffective, lucid or obscure, elegant or awkward, long or short, literal or figurative. If a statement has really been made it is his part to show how it has been made, and what subordinate functions have been performed by the various parts that have contributed to its making. This may seem a limited scope for "grammar;" the teacher who acts on the above view of it will find it indefinitely wide in scope and endlessly varied in character. No two statements are precisely similar; if any two were so they would be identical. Grammar is, therefore, a true science, developed by the analytic comparison of phenomena, and made up of generalizations arrived at by induction.

The first step in the grammatical or logical analysis of continuous discourse is to ascertain the number of statements that have been made. A statement must be complete in itself and independent of every other statement. It must be capable of standing alone, and if it is united with another the union must be effected by a co-ordinating connective. The only way to ascertain the number of statements in a passage is to ascertain its precise sense, and frequently this is not an easy task. When persons differ as to the meaning they may differ as to the number of statements. It may be remarked in passing that the "statement," not the "sentence," is the unit of language

expressing thought. Very often the term "sentence" is ambiguously employed in treatises on grammar: it is used with the same meaning as "statement," and also as meaning the piece of text between two full stops, however many "statements" it may include. If the sentence has in it only one statement it is "simple;" if it has more than one it is "compound." Properly speaking a sentence cannot be "complex," while a statement may be so.

In the analysis of the statement there will be found the thing spoken of and what is said about it: the subject and the predicate. The subject is not necessarily or always a noun or pronoun; it may be some other word or it may be a phrase or clause. This must be borne in mind in dealing with the "parts of speech." In one sense the noun is a part of speech, but not in the logical sense. As a noun it has no special function in making a statement, for a noun may be an adjective, or an adverb, or even a verb according to the use to which it is put. The subject of a statement must contain a substantive which is not necessarily either a noun or a pronoun, and it may contain also words or groups of words that limit its signification; these are adjectives. The predicate ordinarily contains a verb, the special function of which is to make the assertion. Some verbs are modified by adverbs, which may be either words, phrases, or clauses. Certain verbs require an object to complete them, and the object may be a word or a group of words. The verb "to be" and a few others are followed by predicate adjectives asserted by them of the subject. It is often necessary to use words indicating that expressions form a series, and to these words the term "connectives" may be usefully applied. The functional parts of speech, besides the subject and predicate, are therefore: the substantive, the adjective, the verb, the adverb, the object, and the connective.

From first to last the analysis is to be made by the pupil, who is made by questioning to feel that he must have not only a meaning for the whole passage but a clear idea of the part which each functional expression—word, phrase, or clause—performs in the making of each statement. In this way he is required to formulate his own grammatical system, to give his own definitions, and to some extent select his own terminology. Work done in this way is "research" in the very best sense of that term, and intellectual "culture" of the very best sort is the infallible result. The amount of technicality admitted into the process is under the control of the teacher, and the same may be said of the history of idiomatic expressions. A teacher

who is both erudite and wise may easily and pleasantly impart a great deal of learning merely by the way, and may also indicate the sources from which more of the same sort may be obtained.

The Teaching of Philology.

It would be absurd to attempt to give any pupil in school set lessons in the philology of the English tongue. The subject is so vast and much of it is so uncertain that very few students who devote their whole lives to philological research can fairly lay claim to be "great" scholars. But the teaching of a certain amount of philology in the most elementary school class is inevitable, and whatever is done on this line of investigation should be done rationally and usefully. The chief result to be aimed at is to arouse the curiosity of the pupils about the nature of words, as to both form and meaning, and to occasionally carry their minds back in some suggestive way to older forms and older meanings for the same words. Philology has to do with both the spoken and the written word, and therefore it includes everything relating to both orthoepy and orthography. Pupils should be early taught to analyze complex sounds, to discover phonic relations between words, to classify elementary sounds according to their modes of utterance, to notice discrepancies between the sound forms and the mark forms of words, to distinguish between original or primary and derived or secondary meanings, and eventually to realize how very modern our classic English is, compared with even the old English dialects out of which it was to a great extent evolved. Many English words are quite evidently composite, and a little practice, to which the pupils are constrained by questioning, will enable them to split up words to find out for themselves the meanings of affixes and stems, and to put parts together to form words they have never seen with meanings they have never heard attached to them. Freaks of spelling become very interesting when subjected to such an investigation. For example, we are required to write "forego" instead of "forgo," "steadfast" instead of "stedfast," "therefore" instead of "therefor," "exceed" instead of "excede," "receive" instead of "receve," and so on indefinitely. Under the inspiration of a skilful and scholarly teacher, the dictionary might soon become a repertory of intensely interesting information instead of a wearisome collection of detached facts.

The Teaching of Rhetoric.

Rhetoric, like grammar and philology, is inevitable in the most elementary school. The question is not whether it shall be taught but how it shall be taught. Like philology, it is extremely extensive, and all that can be done or ought to be attempted is to train the pupil to habits of research so that he may be able to go on making discoveries and classifying results to the end of his intellectual life. Much of what is done under the name of "composition" is rhetorical, for a large proportion of the defects in written exercises are neither grammatical nor philological. It is disadvantageous to give too narrow a meaning to the term rhetoric; it should be regarded as including all that relates to the structure of discourse except what belongs properly to grammar and philology. It need hardly be said that, as a science, rhetoric must be taught as the other linguistic sciences are taught: the pupil, under wise questioning, should be required to do his own analysis, to make his own comparisons, to arrange his own categories, to draw his own conclusions, and, as far as may be found practicable and reasonable, to frame his own definitions and to select his own terminology. He can tell for himself whether sentences are long or short, clear or obscure, periodic or loose, tropical or literal, bona fide or ironical; he can tell whether paragraphing has been skilfully done, whether division into chapters has been made helpful or obstructive, and whether the treatment of a theme has been made tedious by aimless prolixity or interesting by well considered brevity. The object in view is not to secure that when he leaves school he shall take with him a complete and well arranged system of rhetorical theory, but that he shall be so familiar with the practice of looking at literary compositions from the rhetorical point of view that he will never cease to criticize from it his own and other people's productions.

The Teaching of Prosody.

The ultimate difference between English verse and English prose is that the former is regularly rhythmical and the latter is not. Rhythm is marked by the recurrence of an accent in the line of poetry. These accents divide the time of the line into practically equal intervals, so that verse rhythm becomes similar in movement to that produced by the tolling of a bell, the breaking of waves on the shore, or the sound of minute gun at sea, The practice of in-

vestigating different varieties of verse with a view to making clear their rhythmic structure is exceedingly interesting. Bearing in mind that the rhythm of verse is discernible by the ear, not by the eye, there are two ways of proceeding, and each passage selected for rhythmic analysis may be dealt with in each of these ways. One is to select the accented syllables in a line and allow the unaccented syllables to arrange themselves about them as the expression of the sense may require; the other is to read the line quite slowly so that it will break up into groups, as the sense may determine, when each group will be found to contain one and only one accented syllable with several syllables comparatively unaccented. It will be found convenient to have a system of notation to indicate rhythmic groups, and for this purpose I prefer to indicate the presence of accent by the unit figure and its comparative absence by the cipher. In this way the subjoined lines would be thus represented:

The conscious water saw its God and blushed
0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1

Toil on! toil on, ye ephemeral train
0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note
0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1

As his corse to the ramparts we hurried
0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0

Break! break! break!
1 1 1

On thy cold grey stones, O sea
0 0 1 0 1 0 1

The sense of the passage has so much to do with the determination of the rhythmic structure that it is often the only guide in the analysis. In fact the analysis of the line into sense groups of syllables will be found to coincide always with the analysis into rhythmic groups so far as the sense groups go, but they are usually fewer in number. No word is ever divided in this scansion unless it has in it two accented syllables, as for example:

And breasts the blows of cir cumstance
0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1

Imperish able type of evan escence
0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0

While the theory and practice of this scansion are different from those of the old-fashioned classical scansion, it will be found that in all cases the number of groups is the same in the two systems:

And there	lay the rider	distorted	and pale
o I	o o I o	o I o	o I
o I	o o I	o o I	o o I .

With the dew	on his brow	and the rust	on his mail
o o I	o o I	o o I	o o I
o o I	o o I	o o I	o o I

In this last line the results of the two methods coincide because the line is monosyllabic. It is not necessary here to discuss the subject of tone-color, in its various manifestations of rime, alliteration, and onomatopeia. The point to be insisted on is that in all cases the interpretation, the analysis, and the classification shall be done by the pupil in response to the teacher's questions.

The Teaching of Literature.

Many reasons might be given in support of the dictum that English literature is the most important subject of systematic instruction in the educational institutions of the province from the highest to the lowest. Composition may fairly be regarded as more practical in its relation to the pupil's capacity to make his way in the world. Grammar, philology, rhetoric, and prosody constitute a group of sciences that lend themselves admirably not merely to intellectual culture but to the development of the humanitarian side of personal character. The interpretation of literature is also an excellent means of intellectual training, but its chief and most distinctive value lies in the fact that alike by content and form it appeals directly to the emotions. This is especially true of poetry, which ought, therefore, to receive from the pupil a large amount of attention at every stage of his school career. To become well acquainted with good poetry, to have the memory well stored with lyrical gems, to have acquired by dint of long and constant practice facility in the interpretation of literature generally, and to have had the judgment and taste so trained as to be trustworthy guides in the selection of reading matter through life—this is the best of all the elements of the complex culture, which the school, college, or univer sity can give.

Obviously, however, this kind of culture depends absolutely on the practice of research. Ideas, interpretations, preferences, opinions, obtained ready made from the teacher as to literature are of no more value than second hand information or opinions on any other subject. Here, as elsewhere, it is not the kind or amount of knowledge that tells; it is the way in which the knowledge has been obtained. Fortunately, literature lends itself with exceptional adaptability to the methods of research and questioning. If the texts chosen for study have been wisely selected the authors themselves will greatly aid in keeping up the interest of the pupils, if the teacher will only give the latter a fair opportunity to make the acquaintance of the former without his too officious intrusiveness. In assigning a lesson in literature nothing in the shape of information about the selection or its author should be given. The answers to a few questions will afterwards disclose to the teacher how much knowledge of both the pupil has acquired by reading, and re-reading the piece. All the members of the class taken together will be found to have discovered more in it and extracted more from it than any one pupil can do, and by the socratic method they are induced to "pool" their gleanings for the individual benefit of each gleaner. The teacher can deftly and unobtrusively enforce the erroneousness of some impressions, give the stamp of appreciation to others, add helpful information at the proper time and in the proper quantity, and generally act as counsellor and guide, rather as the first among equals than as an interpretator whose authority cannot be questioned.

Among the more important details of method in the teaching of literature are the use to be made of reading and writing. The latter taken first, it may be briefly stated that literature is an inexhaustible repertory of subjects for composition. They have this peculiar excellence, that they are of perennial interest. An essay on a good literary theme deepens the impression the author has made, and the effort to state clearly and positively the pupil's own views forces him to acquire a more complete mastery of the passage than he would otherwise have had. Writing on a subject aids the memory in retaining what has been written, and for this reason alone great care should be taken in the selection. Essay writing of this sort is all the more valuable, because there is always more danger in a written examination on literature than there is in a written examination on any other subject, which is saying a

good deal. The essay may be a good alternative for a written examination.

The term "reading" has two clearly distinguishable meanings in relation to literature. Reading is the means by which the pupil receives his impression of the text, and reading is the means by which he gives expression to that impression. In reading for purposes of study the selection should be read through continuously, then re-read an indefinite number of times. The first reading will leave an impression that is of little value, but it will be deepened and improved by every subsequent reading. This is incomparably better than studying the text piece by piece. No matter how slight the impression made by the whole piece, it is an impression of the whole piece, and if the selection has been wisely made, the pupil will have had the benefit of a glimpse into the author's artistic plan. This is as true of a drama or an epic, as it is of a short and simple lyric. The piece-by-piece method is apt to leave the final view a disjointed mass, with fragments detached and perspective gone.

Reading aloud, not merely to others but also to oneself, is extremely valuable in the study of literature, and especially of poetry. Both rhythm and tone-color appeal to the ear, not the eye. They are of the very essence of music, and some lyrics are so essentially musical in form that they can hardly be made more so by actually singing them; good examples are Tennyson's "Brook," "Bugle Song," and "Sweet and Low." Reading aloud in class should not be attempted until the poem has been thoroughly discussed and made perfectly familiar to the pupil. It may seem absurd to say that one can help out his own interpretations of poetry by reading aloud to himself, but the teacher who practices doing so will have no doubt as to the value of the method and no hesitation in recommending to his pupils its persistent use.

Kindergarten

Minutes of the Kindergarten Section.

THE Kindergarten Section of the Dominion Educational Association assembled in Room 4 Wednesday, July 10th, at 3 p.m., the president, Miss Macintyre, in the chair.

After the opening exercises, a number of announcements were made respecting transportation, and the special work of the Section.

The president delivered an address on "An Up-to-Date Kindergarten." The address was very closely followed by all present, and was highly appreciated. Specimens of work were on view, illustrating new ideas with regard to occupation work which the president had found helpful in her own kindergarten.

The meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 11TH.

The Section met at 2.15 p.m.

Miss Geraldine O'Grady, supervisor of kindergartens, Brooklyn, N.Y., read a very practical paper on "Supervision and Criticism of Students."

"Practical Problems Encountered in Establishing Kindergartens in New Districts" formed the topic of a Round Table Conference in which Miss Ashton, Miss Tattersall, Miss Mason, Miss Copus, Miss McLeod, Miss Johnston and others took part.

The meeting adjourned.

FRIDAY, JULY 12TH.

The Section met at 2 p.m.

Miss Ada Baker, Normal School, Ottawa, gave an address on "Development of Artistic Expression."

Miss Louise Currie, Supervisor of Kindergartens, Toronto, read a very practical paper on "What Should the Training of Assistants Embody?" She pleaded for the raising of the standard in scholarship and culture, outlined a practical course of study and training

and laid special stress upon the value of observational work in different kindergartens with careful reports upon the work observed.

Dr. Goggin, the General Secretary, gave an interesting talk upon the "Ideal Kindergarten Teacher." The qualities particularly emphasized were strength and strong common sense tempered with sympathy, patience, and humility. The ideal kindergartner is a mature woman, mentally alert, of wide general culture, and of superior social standing.

The election of officers for the next meeting resulted as follows:—

President, Miss Louise Currie, Supervisor of Kindergartens, Toronto.

Vice-President, Miss Grace Johnston, Stratford, Ont.

Secretary, Miss Ada Henderson, London, Ont.

The meeting adjourned.

THE UP-TO-DATE KINDERGARTEN.

MARY E. MACINTYRE,

Normal School, Toronto.

IN Miss Blow's "Letters to a Mother" in the chapter called "A Prophecy of Freedom," she describes an ideal conference of teachers. It is a stormy day, she writes, and she knew they would have an inspiring meeting because only the earnest students would be there. The half-hearted, those who came because it was the correct thing to do, would take advantage of the excuse.

Now, July heat has, I think, a more dampening effect upon enthusiasm than the heaviest storm, and while I do not for a moment accuse those who are not here of half-heartedness or lack of enthusiasm, I am sure that those who have come at some sacrifice to themselves, will feel rewarded for their effort. We will try to have a thoroughly helpful and enjoyable time. But that can only be possible if we all enter into it and make it informal. I will ask you then to take part freely. We are only a few and we are all friends. Let it be a conference in the true sense of the word. I bid you welcome.

I have always felt anxious that the kindergarten section of the Dominion Educational Association should be a strong department, for the sake of the kindergarten cause in Canada. Ontario is the only province where the kindergarten is thoroughly established, therefore it devolves upon Ontario's kindergartners to keep this kindergarten section of the Dominion Educational Association alive and to reach out with their influence to those provinces where kindergartens are now struggling for a foothold.

If we show ourselves luke-warm in the interests of our own profession, we cannot be surprised if it does not thrive in districts where its value remains yet to be proven.

I think that kindergartners, more than any other grade of teachers, need to gather together to discuss the problems of their work. Except in the cities where there are a number of kinder-

gartens, they are much isolated. In any town, the teacher of one of the grades has the opportunity of discussing her work with other teachers who understand it. But the kindergartner is frequently alone. There is no other person who understands her work except in a general way. There is no one whose criticism is really valuable to her in the details of her work, neither has she an opportunity of comparing her work with others, and of gaining inspiration from others. Therefore, it is particularly necessary for us to visit other schools, meet other kindergartners, take good magazines, and keep in touch with the best work in every possible way.

In the exhibit of work at the recent International Kindergarten Union convention, there was an exhibit sent from Germany, including some of the original Froebelian material. It was very interesting to see the genesis of the kindergarten material and to compare it with that of the present day.

One realized the struggle that Froebel had to get his material made at all and the patience and the indomitable perseverence of the man.

There were mats 5x5 inches square, evidently cut by hand, the strips not more than one-eighth inch wide, the paper poor, the color bad, but the principle of weaving carried out well in the work; small roughly cut blocks of the third gift, tiny boxes of roughly cut tablets, the earliest editions of "The Mother Play," etc.

Then compare these with the work of the progressive kindergartens in other parts of the exhibit. Everywhere large material was shown, enlarged blocks, tablets, sticks, large mats, sewing cards with large holes, large folding paper, Hailman beads one inch in diameter, peg boards and pegs twice the size of the old ones.

Everywhere a decided growth in the size of the material was noticed. Why has that come about?

Great changes have taken place in even the most conservative kindergartens in the past few years, changes due to clearer insight into Froebel's principles, better knowledge of Psychology and child study. Psychology, which used to be almost entirely an introspective study, has swung over to the other extreme and become physiological and experimental. As Aristotle taught us, virtue or truth lies always in the mean state,—the mediation; either extreme leads to error. The introspective psychology, alone, does not solve the practical problems that teachers need to deal with, and tends to rest too much in speculative philosophy. On

the other hand the extreme physiological psychologists are occupied in the impossible task of deriving spirit from matter—the soul from the body. But one thing they have taught us, to give more importance to the study of the true relation of mind and body. The best psychologists are those who combine both elements, who recognize the importance of the experimental work and yet also hold firmly to the truth that education is character development and character depends upon the evolution of ideals and the growth of will power. "Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self control, these three alone, lead life to sovereign power." Through their study of physiological conditions, kindergartners have come to recognize that to require delicacy of touch and fine work before developing that strength of hand and arm, through which alone true delicacy of touch can come, is to run into grave danger of developing that nightmare of the present day—nervousness. We hear a great deal about nervousness at this present day, but it is a very real and grave trouble and I often think that if children led simpler, quieter lives at home, up to seven years of age, there would be fewer nervous children in the schools. But when they are treated to every kind of excitement during the week and matinees on Saturday, we cannot expect to have any other result than nervous fatigue. Nevertheless it behoves us, as teachers, to be very careful that we do not add anything to the nervous strain that children already live under, but rather that we use our influence in every way to further a more natural and simpler life for children.

Have you ever struggled with a class of children, who are ready for the Fifth Gift and yet found difficulty in using the small blocks? If you have, and then have used the enlarged Gifts, you have appreciated the difference,—no nervous strain, no shaking fingers, no worried face for fear the coveted form may fall.

I have used the enlarged tablets, sticks, blocks, as well as the large occupation material for a couple of years, and I must say they have been a source of great satisfaction. The sticks are firm; they do not move easily. Did you ever see a child lay on the table a pretty form of which he was very proud? In his efforts to finish it, he breathes a little heavily as he leans over the table; a cough, a sneeze, and the sticks are scattered over the table. There is no fear of that with the large material. Then the object he makes seems so much more real to him on account of its increased size. I should be very glad to see large material introduced into our kindergartens as soon as possible.

The Gift material is expensive, but it is permanent. Material that lasts for twenty years is not a dear investment even if it costs a little more in the beginning. If the kindergartner is wise she will get it by degrees. In the first place it is only needed by the little children. Your six year old children have gained sufficient control to use the ordinary material.

Then you need only enough for one class to use at a time. You can make your Third Gifts out of the Fourth Gifts, so that you will need only Fourth Gifts and Fifth Gifts and only sufficient for one class. In tablets you require only circular and square ones at first. You will, I am sure, see many ways of economizing. Of course, like everything else, this large material can be carried to extremes. I have seen blocks and sticks that were so large, they were cumbersome, noisy and limited in their use. For instance, some of the forms in paper-cutting I saw in New York, were so large that I do not think children could possibly paste them unaided.

Every one must use her own judgment and note results carefully. Besides the changes in the size and variety of the material, we see improvements in the use of the gifts and occupations, that are to me very significant, because they are due to clearer pedagogical insight.

In all Froebel's writings he emphasizes so strongly the importance of self-expression. But it seems to me that its greatest importance lies—not so much in the originality developed as in the growth of independent power and of self-control. In a recent article on "The Brain and the Body," Dr. Wm. Hanna Thompson, brings out the theory that with the exception of a few congenital sensory and motor centers, all our thought centers, all centers of mental activity grow by the exercise of our volitional power. "As clay in the hands of the potter so is brain fashioned by the will, bit by bit, each small area made to acquire a mental faculty according to the purpose of its unmistakable creator."

He says again that: "The paramount need therefore is for some great steadying governor . . . or in other words we need a will too strong to be diverted by any thoughts from its purpose. Anybody who thinks, speaks, acts only according to purpose, is a giant among scatter-brains, because it is only the will that achieves. We are ever meeting men with brilliant mental gifts who are sad failures merely because they lack tenacity of purpose, which means, lack of will-power. To exert influence over his fellows, a man must

have a constant inner power of self-control." "He who hath no rule over his own spirit is like a city that is broken down and without walls." Certain it is that as teachers we must give a great deal of conscious, deliberate thought to the best methods of training the will, both mentally and morally. Froebel emphasizes the training of the will; voluntary action must take the place of instinctive action. But this does not mean unlimited free choices—that the child should choose and do whatever he wishes. If the child were left entirely to his own free choice you would find progress extremely slow and the development of capriciousness extremely rapid—like a very capricious small boy I knew who was whining at the table because he wanted to be helped first. As soon as his father said: "What's the matter, Randolph? Do you want to be helped now?" he cried, "No! I don't want to be helped *now*, I want to be helped *then*,"—the acme of pure capriciousness.

It is not unlimited free choice then that will help us to reach our goal, but Froebel has given us the means by providing wisely selected typical experiences, both mental and spiritual, which form a basis for a wide and strong culture. He does not consider all experiences equally valid. Looked at in the light of its educative value, the gift and occupation material is inestimable because it opens up such possibilities to the child. The very factors which are considered a drawback by some kindergartners are to me the most valuable characterstics,—the logical sequence and the typical nature.

A prominent supervisor in the United States told me this spring that she did not believe in types. We evidently use the word in a different sense for to her it stands for a stereotyped expression, while to me it is "the ideal representations of a group." Just because they are ideal representations, they open the way to unlimited reproductions of his experiences and open his eyes to a world of form and number. Because they are logical they satisfy that instinct that all reasoning beings have,—the desire to see logical relations.

Listen to a child's endless questions and notice the trend of his thought. "Mother, what did God stand on when He made the world?" said one little boy. Another questions: "Mother, why is there no end to counting?" "Father, who is God's wife?" asked a little friend of mine.

He is always seeking to relate cause and effect, to trace back a process to its source, to unite different parts into one whole.

It is because the kindergarten material satisfies the logica instinct and gives scope to his constructive imagination that littl children leave their toys at home and come early to the kindergar "to play with the blocks." But I think we have kept clearly be us the importance of the development of power through self pression and have recognized the necessity of awakening log thinking through the discovery of processes.

Nevertheless I think there has been a great advance of late years in the simplicity, the freedom and the logical development of this programme. Instead of giving sequences, we develop them from the children. The dictated exercise has learned its proper place —not a back seat, nor in the front row. It is an aid and an excellent device to develop attention and the power to carry out directions, but it is not the highest type of exercise because it does not give scope for independent work, although it lays a basis for it. Our exercises are simpler and more definite, but with that constant ideal in our minds that it is power we wish to develop. Keeping that ideal constantly before us, and recognizing how much power we can expect from children, four, five or six years of age, and in what way that power will naturally express itself, we will not go far wrong in our gift plays. One thing I noted in the New York exhibit that I am glad to see growing—that is the tendency to confine the exercises with each material to those which are most suitable for that material. For instance, tablets lend themselves better to symmetrical designs than to life forms, and while picture making is certainly a legitimate exercise, I think the symmetrical design filled out in tile form as I have illustrated here, where color is used to mark out the design, is a more artistic form than the old forms of beauty where the spaces on the tablets showed through the form. It is a good exercise in original designing and is more satisfactory to the children. In the same way new sequences are being worked out in all the occupations, with the idea of utilizing each occupation to develop the ideas for which it is best fitted. For instance, the school sewing is particularly adapted for the development of sequences through the arrangement of lines into original borders and designs. It gives great scope for originality in logical form.

Now may I give a warning that comes home to me because, in my work, I am dealing with students constantly—that is with kindergartners in embryo. Unless we are clear and definite as to what we wish to attain through any occupation—say sewing for ex-

mple, we may see many new sequences, we may keep up to date as to our methods and material, but one method will be as mechanical as another. We might as well keep to the sequences that were first worked out by Froebel. What is the opportunity now that the sewing offers to the child, and to us? The opportunity for original designing, the evolution of logical thought on the line of his development, a conscious idea of a logical order. Now to give our exercises so as to accomplish this, takes some time and thought. It will be slower than to give the child "the next card," or to show him what to do. It means that the occupation exercises must be as carefully and thoughtfully prepared as the gift exercises. But if we keep consciously before us the aim of this particular exercise we are giving, towards the child's general development, if we ask ourselves, why are we giving this exercise and what we hope to gain by it, I am sure we all know what the answer should be, and our exercises will give an opportunity for creative expression. They will awaken the intelligence to law and order and develop self-control.

I have been speaking of school sewing alone, but the conventionalized nature designs and picture-sewing have their proper place. I saw an ideal sewing exercise recently. The children were grouped in a semi-circle around the teacher who had a table before her with all her requirements upon it. A little conversation followed as to what the children were going to make; the form, the colors necessary, were talked about and each child chose in turn the colors of wool he required, thus making an exercise in color discrimination. They were going to make a border of conventionalized flowers, so a little talk followed as to the color of the stem, the length of the stems,—some tall, some short,—the shape and color of the different flowers. Then all went to work eagerly, the teacher quietly directing and helping from her chair. In the results I noticed great freedom and originality. The whole atmosphere during the exercise was so orderly, yet so free, so spontaneous, yet showing most careful preparation by the teacher of even minute details, that it was a delight to watch both children and teacher.

Folding, Froebelian cutting and sticks are particularly valuable in developing Froebel's "Law of Opposites"; that is, in forming the habit of relating extremes and of making a new synthesis from the result. This is invaluable for logical original production. Help the children to work out logical possibilities with these occupations

and you give him a basis for unlimited logical construction. If he sees logical processes, he will reproduce logical processes. As an example of this a doll's sewing book was sent from England in this exhibit of work. A child had invented a book of kindergarten sewing for her doll, she had evidently had sequences herself, for it was a logical sequence of cards, yet it was entirely free home work.

Miss Blow pleaded at the International Kindergarten Union with the kindergartners, not to neglect the law of opposites, because she feared in the attraction of artistic work in cutting, coloring, etc., we were being led away from that fundamental law. I do not think that Canada is in danger of this, but I would like to plead for a more intelligent use of it. The result of our exercises will tell us whether we are using it mechanically or wisely.

I do think there has been a slavish use of it. I do not see any reason why we should repeat the same form of exercise with so many occupations and gifts. I think that to give exercises in which the possibilities of combinations of vertical and horizontal lines of different length are worked out in sewing, drawing, sticks,, or to develop Froebel's rules of combination in exercises in drawing, tablets and sticks, etc., is tiring and mechanical. The law of opposites is a guide towards original invention. But to have certain forms in your mind, and to have the children work through long sequences in order to arrive at a certain goal even if it is a logical one is to be a slave to that thought, and destroys freedom and independence.

At the present time, great attention is being given to artistic expression both in color, form, and arrangement. And every kindergartner who aspires to be up to date, must make herself thoroughly conversant with this branch of work.

This is not a superficial veneer put on to make the kindergarten attractive, but has grown out of an endeavor to do our part, to stem the dangerous tide of utilitiarianism which is so strong an influence in the present age.

It is possible that education used to prepare too little for practical life and the present tendency is this natural swing of the pendulum. But the educator whose ideal is to prepare the child to earn his living, chiefly, is not preparing him for true living. Life is a wider, deeper experience.

It is well that our education should so train a child that he is prepared to earn his livelihood in the way of his choice, but it is

better to educate him so that his mind is awakened, his sympathies enlarged, and his ideals made strong and vigorous. Surely a knowledge of the beauties and wonders of nature, of the history of other nations, of the masterpieces of literature, will develop the soul as no other educational means will do. This is the meaning of the nature study, the poetical songs, and the artistic exercises in the kindergarten.

Then we, as kindergartners, must do our part; we must bring in to the children every ideal experence nature can give us, and give to the children every chance to discover it for themselves. I was interested in seeing that even the Mission Kindergartens in New York had pots of wild flowers in their rooms. If there was no space for a garden in the ground they had it on the roof. Even in a very poor kindergarten in a crowded foreign district the children sang their nature songs with an expression that showed real sympathy.

We must help them to enjoy the beautiful color harmonies in nature and in art. Great attention is paid to the development of color harmony, artistic combinations of color and artistic mounting of work. This can be done quite inexpensively; butcher paper that comes in soft grey and browns is a very good tone for mounting, and the ordinary cartridge paper can be used for water colors with good effect and is much cheaper than the water color paper.

I think we need in Canada to consider the question of artistic training more fully. We do not need to go to the expense that some of the largely endowed schools in the States are justified in, but we can do a great deal with little expense and there is absolutely no excuse in these days for bad or crude color combinations in any occupation. The cutting allows of great opportunity for artistic work in color and in designs. The cutting of flowers, fruit, trees, groups of animals and children, and arranging them in borders or in grouped designs, the landscape cutting and coloring, and the illustration of stories and mother play pictures, give a great variety of work in color and combination that is simple and yet delightful to the children, and definitely educative. We must widen the children's sympathies and awaken their interest and curiosity in other lands, by stories of the children of other countries. By our songs and games, by our stories, and by gems of poetry suitable to the children, we can stir their feelings and prepare for that knowledge and love of the best literature without which no one is educated.

Kindergartens have grown in the freedom with which the songs and circle games are conducted. The songs are simpler, not so long, yet hold the typical thought; games are more spontaneous, and more attention is paid to sense games, and all the variety of games that develop mental alertness.

Humor is finding its legitimate place. Gesture seems to have almost died out, except the spontaneous gestures the children themselves unconsciously make. Rhythmic exercises are finding their proper use. For a while they were magnified out of all proportion to their importance, and exercises were given that demanded a control of the body only to be expected from a child of ten years old. Those exercises belong to the class in calisthenics—not the kindergarten. I am glad to see they are dying out and the exercises in the best schools are the simple natural rhythms always given in connection with some thought,—slow and fast marching, running, skipping, stepping high, tip toe, galloping, etc. Everywhere, I think we see that kindergartners are awake to the best movements in education, and as long as that is true, and we study earnestly to make our work both practical and ideal, kindergartens will increase and flourish, for "by their fruits ye shall know them."

SUPERVISION OF KINDERGARTENS, AND CRITICISMS OF STUDENTS' WORK.

GERALDINE O'GRADY,

Supervisor of Kindergartens, Brooklyn, N.Y.

(Reporter's Summary)

MISS O'GRADY submitted a syllabus containing the essential points in her address, and discussed these in detail, explaining and illustrating as she proceeded. The following indicates the scope of the discussion.

I. Practical details—order, punctuality, etc. This involves teaching by example.

II. Planning and carrying out exercises, including (a) thought, effort; (b) play, drawing out the children.

III. Qualities of the student to be developed, (a) force, self-control, perception, motherliness, insight; (b), artistic musical, literary, or philosophical tendencies and possibilities.

The supervisor must have courage, activity, sympathy: the student enthusiasm and careful preparation. Enthusiasm is best aroused by imitation. The supervisor must read and think, must encourage students to do the same. In method the student improves through imitation and instruction.

In giving instruction to students three points must be emphasized. (a) clear statement, (b) definite specific illustrations, (c) re-phrasing or "translation" of ideas and words used into other forms. Both theoretical and practical help is needed by the student. It is an injustice to give the work without explaining the principle, e.g., in folding. Creative work cannot be had without this. The student needs the same encouragement, the same watchfulness, the same amount of suggestion, advice and warning that we ourselves needed as students.

Miss O'Grady also submitted a form of report on students' work.

Report of Miss .....

....190....
(Name of place and school)

Musical Ability:
Piano.—
Voice.—
Executive Power:—
Gifts:—
Play.—
Thought.—
Occupations:
Care of materials.—
Method.—
Games.—
Stories and Morning Talk.—
Government.—
General Possibilities.—
Attendance Record.—

.....
Teacher.

PRACTICAL PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED IN ESTABLISHING KINDERGARTENS IN NEW DISTRICTS.

(Reporter's Summary)

THIS subject was considered at a round table conference. Miss Ashton, of St. Catharines, opened the discussion and was followed by Miss Tattersall of Collingwood, Miss Mason, of Winnipeg, Miss McLeod of Owen Sound, Miss Copus of Winnipeg, and Miss Johnston, of Stratford. The following problems were discussed: How best to deal with children when everything is so new and strange: How to deal with the double-session problem: How to bring parents and school boards to see more than a superficial value in the work being done: How best to equip a kindergarten on a limited amount of money.

Special interest was taken in the report of the work done in Manitoba in the "All People's Mission" and in schools of the Free Kindergarten Association. The kindergarten system there has been adapted to the conditions and although comparatively little has been done with our materials, the greater work is showing in the building of character and the moral uplifting and harmonizing of the various elements which compose the rapidly inflowing population.

DEVELOPMENT OF ARTISTIC EXPRESSION.

ADA BAKER,

Normal School, Ottawa.

(Summary)

MISS BAKER discussed the strong influence art has on the social organization and on individual life. As it appeals more to the emotional than to the intellectual life, it is proper to make it an educational influence in the emotional stage of childhood. The instinctive love for the beautiful which every normal child has is a demand of his spiritual nature and must, from the beginning, be developed, nourished and fostered through the best examples so as to leave no opening for the coarse and trashy. In the kindergarten much can be done through nature study, and through a beautiful environment. Opportunity must be given for original expression, and for this purpose the use of pure, clear color in painting is proving more and more valuable.

WHAT SHOULD THE TRAINING FOR A KINDERGARTEN ASSISTANT EMBODY?

LOUISE N. CURRY,

Supervisor Kindergartens, Toronto.

THE public educational work has done much during the past decade to strengthen the educational basis of the entire country. In the early years of the kindergarten in Ontario, a student applying for admission to the training course required little more than an indifferent secondary education or some general culture. Year by

year the standard has risen until now special qualifications are demanded of each would-be student. For this advance the boards of education throughout the province are to be highly congratulated.

That a public institution has always a better uplifting tendency, is strikingly illustrated in the private training schools in the United States—training schools too that are conducted by the most competent women that are engaged in the work. In these, anyone able to pay the fee may enter the school.

The admission requirements being now extended to include both scholarship and culture, the question of training is no longer one of expediency—that is the best that can be given under the circumstances—but one in which we can define our ideal, and set it before ourselves as a goal toward which, though we may never attain it, we may at least strive unfalteringly.

Such a course implies a study of psychology, a knowledge of educational principles, and the study of method.

How much of each of these would it be practicable to consider during the first year of training? In regard to psychology—something definite should be done in the way of child study. One way that would be attractive to students, wholly unacquainted with so difficult a subject, might be through introspection—such as looking back over one's own childhood, recalling the things then done, the effect of these things, as remembered, upon themselves, and comparing these with the records of others. Perhaps many of you have tried this, and know how effective it is in awakening the mind of a student to a consciousness of an individuality in children. The conclusions of an imaginative child, and of one more practical vary in so remarkable a degree. (Illustration given). This method has its limitations of course, as there is only the "self" to consider.

Another way and better in some respects, because of its power to awaken interest in the individual child, is that of "observation." For example, beginning with young children, with the baby in the carriage, why should it turn its whole body to locate a sound or see an object, and another turn its head only; why should one have a great capacity to take in, at a certain age, while another is so much slower; why children deal differently with possessions; why some are born to leadership, and others tend to naturally follow? A great deal of such observation may be carried on incidentally with the members of the class that the student comes in contact with, for there is something of interest in every child, not the least interesting often-

times being those that are considered uninteresting. These should be studied, not from idle curiosity, but in a manner that will generate in the hearts of those studying, a keener appreciation of their differences, a more active sympathy for them, and a disposition to hold out helping hands.

A third opportunity, one certainly of great interest to young students, is to study children in literature. Baldwin's "Story of the Mind," as the title indicates, is a story of children from babyhood, on through the early years of childhood.

Other stories, Psychologies so to speak, are Perez "First Three Years of Childhood," Preyer's "Mind of a Child," Sully's "Studies of Childhood." Of the last, Prof. Tracy says, "With its careful description of facts, its admirable arrangement of topics, its generalization, its model tone, its fascinating style and its wealth of illustrations, it is certainly the most readable, perhaps the most valuable work on this subject written in the English language.

It might be objected that this would involve more time than could be given to it, but this difficulty can be obviated by assigning certain sections of the book or books selected, to different members of the class, and the digests thereof would serve as a basis of discussion; thus the whole class would gain by the work of the individual members.

In addition to these more serious and accurate presentations, there are innumerable studies of childhood in imaginative literature: e.g., Kipling's "Captains Courageous," Barrie's "Sentimental Tommy," Zangwill's "Story of the Ghetto," Pierre Lotis', "Romance of a Child," George Eliot's "Mill on the Floss," Meredith's "Ordeal of Richard Feveril," and many others, selected, it may be, by the students themselves. Such work as this cannot be called definite psychology, but it serves as an introduction to it, preparing the mind of the student for a more definite study in the second year of training by directing attention that way.

Educational principles can best be evolved from the method, and the general method of the kindergarten is play, that is, instead of gaining knowledge through books, observation, etc., as in the later grades, the child is taught chiefly through its play. As a part of this method, the student must learn to know the gifts so as to gain a mastery of the material from the concrete, representative, artistic and mathematical view points in order to present them to the children with a definite educational purpose. Children must experiment

with the material, and the student should know the reason therefor, and how large a place imagination must play in their experience, what they should imitate and why. The power of suggestion must also be developed by the teacher, for it is more necessary in the kindergarten than in any other place, as the largest proportion of the work is carried on in this indirect way, gaining through it, more creative effort from the children. The suggestion may be bald, but from it the child tells himself what to make and proceeds to do it according to his own conception and fancy.

Attention must be trained, and something of right relationship established between teacher and child. Dictated work has some value here. Review is important, as it is the means of getting from the child past experiences, and the recall of these is the only way of getting anything out of them.

The "central idea of the kindergarten," and we believe, the first idea of all educational theory, is the principle of self-activity, and though we all talk much about this, and are constantly endeavoring to apply it to our own work with the children, we are still far from verifying it in the training of the student. In order to do this more effectively, there are a few practical rules of which we must not lose sight. We must in the first place keep before ourselves the truth, that theory without practice is valueless, and endeavor to give no principle without demanding illustration of its application. "We should also insist upon frequent demonstration of the theory in actual procedure with the children,"—thus wrote one who was eminent in the kindergarten world a short time ago.

There are different ways by which practice may be gained in methods. In some training schools, the students teach one another, in the class-room. This prevents any sacrifice of the children, but some opportunity is lost to the student, as however imaginative grown people try to be, they do not respond as do children.

Our students get their practice by actual experience with the children, and through oversight and kindly criticism, illustration and explanation, by director and trainer, in the class-room and kindergarten. The children are somewhat sacrificed for the student's sake by this means, but some sacrifice must be made, and the greater benefits which accrue to the larger number make this so far seem to us the most acceptable procedure.

A study of the games is an essential for junior students. They should know the meaning of play from its historical and natural

basis. The least that could be expected in regard to this, is that they should have an intimation of the muscular development through the games—development of the senses through rhythm, and development of the imagination through imitative play. This latter form of play is connected of course with the beginnings of literature. In these, too, as in the gifts theory and practice should be united as the right attitude and understanding can only be reached in this manner.

Clearer insight and understanding of the principles is brought about, through a more intelligent use of all the instrumentalities and nowhere is it more marked than in the use of the games. That old idea of "sequence" that used to be observed in consideration of these —such as inability to play one thing without another, stringing them all together, making the children a sort of puppet moved by the will of others, has passed—we hope entirely—into oblivion.

But sequence, the movement from smaller to greater upon the plane of a child's development, is applied in every class of game. Each game played is considered only to have reached its ideal when it has been the means of leading the child to produce a play of its own, or, as we say, another way of playing it.

All classes of games are treated in this way. The rhythmic game begins with a simple thought and corresponding action of the body and passes on to those of a more complex nature involving the use of the whole body. The imitative game beginning with a simple ritual or form is developed into a more elaborate presentation. In the sequences of bird games the different activities of the birds are described and later those which picture the life of the bird. The ring games are restricted at first but advance to greater freedom with the progress of the year. Each class or game has its own place to fill in the child's development, but each is used in reference to those which will later accompany them To assure a correct artistic expression in the handwork required in the first year, as set forth by the syllabus, a study of color form and composition should be made, and, where possible, a specialist should give this, but if there is not a specialist in charge of the art work, the trainer should make herself acquainted with the principles underlying all art expression. Without such an understanding the hand-work, or occupations, cannot contribute to the creative power in the student as they should do, for nothing insures the use of creative power, to so great an extent, as an intelligent acquaintanceship with the laws which govern all art productions.

Neither can a student who lacks this knowledge be properly prepared to supply the children with a true artistic foundation The study of primitive art and of the elementary principles in art have brought about the greatest improvement in expression with the occupations that it is possible to conceive. This was illustrated at the exhibit in New York by the series of work shown both by students and children in paper cutting, weaving, sewing and coloring. Especially was it noticeable in weaving in color harmonies, creation of design and the whole composition of the mat. Keeping in mind the main points in the use of any material, viz.—expression of ideas, progression from simple to complex, and application of primitive principle in combination and arrangement, long dictated sequences need never and should never be given to a student. They arrest growth in the individual and make it impossible for her to bring it about in others.

The training for assistants should also embody some knowledge of the mother play book, it's genesis and a comparison of it with other books written before and since by others. Then they could make a study of it as a study of the picture; find out the traditional game which was its prototype; play the game and sing the song; perceive the educational principle which underlies, bringing correlative illustrations from their own observation of each peculiar play as they study it. "For no part of the work," wrote one, "does the kindergartner need more careful preparation than for the story telling, and until a few years ago no part of her preparation was more neglected." Stories afford our best opportunity for bringing into the matter of fact, and necessarily literal work of the school or kindergarten, the uplift of ideality, and play a large part in the creating of a spiritual atmosphere. Besides all this, the moral force of a story, setting forth in artistic and enticing form, beautiful ideals, is imposible to estimate. In fact, this form of moral influence is the very strongest and is most effective with young children. Recognizing the truth and force of these words, a trainer could not possibly leave to the second year of work all preparation for this art.

Stories for study can be taken from the basis of evolution from the mother plays, or from the basis of classification of wonder stories —as the myth or fairy story, nature stories, biographical stories, and nonsense stories. The latter seems to be a simple plan for the be-

ginner, making a basis for a more complete following up with the study of the mother play.

Talks on "How to tell Stories," and "How to adapt Stories," would necessarily be included with this study. The student should have practice in selecting, telling, and adapting stories, and a record of the best stories should be kept.

In Memoriam

JOHN MILLAR, B.A.

MR. JOHN MILLAR was born in Ireland, in 1842. He received his elementary education in the Public Schools, Brock Township, Ontario. He attended the Provincial Normal School, Toronto in 1862 and obtained a First Class A Certificate. In 1872 he was graduated B.A., in the University of Toronto.

He taught in rural schools, and in the public schools of London; also in the St. Thomas High School, first as assistant and later as principal. Under his management this school became a Collegiate Institute.

From 1884 to 1888 he was a member of the Senate of the University of Toronto, being twice elected to represent the High School teachers of Ontario.

In 1890 he was appointed Deputy Minister of Education for Ontario, which position he filled till his lamented death in 1905.

He took an active interest in the work of the Dominion Educational Association, and at the meeting held in Winnipeg, 1904, he was elected President.

He annotated editions of the English Classics, and published "The Education System of the Province of Ontario," "School Management," "Books—A Guide to Good Reading," "The School System of New York," "Canadian Citizenship," etc.

High ideals, moral earnestness, sound judgment, courtesy and patience were characteristics of his life and work.

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