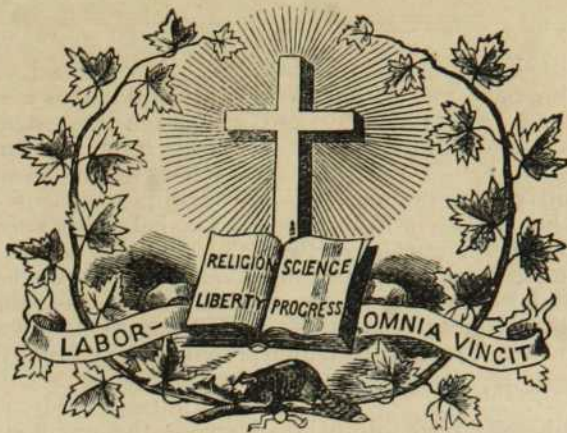




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The Kindergarten, in Relation to the Higher School.—(Continued.)

Paper read by Miss M. E. BAILEY before the Collège of Preceptors.

(B) Exercises with Planes.

1. *Plane laying*, or the forming of mosaic patterns with quadrangular and triangular cards, or wooden tablets.
2. *Paper folding*, into various objects and patterns.
3. *Paper cutting*, together with the combination of the pieces so obtained into symmetrical figures.
4. *Mat weaving*. This forms the connecting link between the exercises on planes and those on lines.

(C) Exercises with Lines.

1. *Stick laying*, in patterns.
2. *Paper twisting*.—Strips of paper twisted according to certain rules into a variety of shapes.

These sticks and slats of wood, like the divided cubes and the mats presenting alternate checks of colour, are exceedingly useful in illustrating the formation of the multiplication table, and in other number exercises.

3. *Thread Laying*.—Lengths of thread, laid in various patterns on a slate, and forming a preliminary exercise to some drawing lessons.

4. *Embroidering*, in silk and worsted on paper or card in patterns previously perforated by the child.

5. *Forming figures*, with whole and half rings of iron wire.

6. *Drawing*.—This exercise is intended to be a constant accompaniment to all the others. As soon as a child is able to form a horizontal and perpendicular line with sticks, or in any other way, it should be encouraged to imitate the line exactly on the slate, first by copying,

then from memory, and lastly according to dictation by the teacher.

The connecting link between exercises on line and points consists of—

7. *Peas-work*.—Pieces of stick or wire are joined at their points, with softened peas, into skeleton shapes. These should accustom the eye to perspective effects in drawing.

(D) Points.

Perforating properly ruled paper with a steel point fastened in a wooden handle. The points are to be made in obedience to the teacher's dictation.

In the bodily exercises the child itself is considered as it own toy.

The great difference, then, between a Kindergarten and a thoroughly good Pestalozzian infant school, lies in the use of the gifts, and in the teacher's unswerving respect for the principle of evolution and her power to induce spontaneous activity in her pupils. The points in which one would expect the Kindergarten to excel would be—

1. The teacher's power of presenting information in true order of development, not teaching primary colours after secondary ones, not urging the children on to the construction of all sorts of complicated forms, before they have worked all novelty and interest out of simple ones, and so on.

2. The teacher's powers of dealing with the same ideas in a great variety of ways.

3. The discipline of the school with regard to order, cleanliness, and everything relating to manners and morals. It is more scandalous to see an untidy, rude, or disobedient set of Kindergarten children than anything else, because the whole teaching of Fröbel would make it far more important that little children should cheerfully and willingly put away their own things, and be gentle, kind, and obedient, than that they should take home a large number of things which have not been entirely their own production.

4. The intelligent choice and use of songs and games. Acting songs and games were used in infant schools long before most of us knew any thing about teaching. The Kindergarten should guarantee that the

children are familiarly acquainted with the meaning of every song and game. Few things are more indicative of a spurious Kindergarten than a variety of games and songs where hardly any child knows the meaning of what she sings or acts.

5. The teacher's skill in cultivating the children's powers of speech. No child who has been from three to eight years of age in a good Kindergarten, with a proper complement of teachers, ought to have any defect of utterance which can be cured in a natural way. One of the most striking characteristics of a good teacher anywhere is the readiness with which she detects badly worded answers, and enables the child to correct them.

The strictest of Fröbel's followers do not allow any reading, writing, or slate arithmetic during the Kindergarten age; but my own experience leads me to join in the late Professor Payne's approval of what he saw at Hamburg. He says:—"In this school I noticed that reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic were taught to the children over six years of age. This, which the rigid purists of the Kindergarten system generally regard as an innovation, is, in my opinion, a very desirable innovation, forms the proper transition and introduction to the work of the ordinary schools, and constitutes a fitting application of the principles already carried out. It is desirable for this reason, if for no other, that the children thus prepared can take their place in the ordinary school without experiencing the sudden shock which those children experience who are at once transferred from the play-work of the Kindergarten to the routine work of schools in which as yet Fröbel's works are unknown." I may farther add, that Mr. Payne thought that the Kindergarten age might, under these circumstances, extend *even* to eight years of age. This class at seven or eight years old is the *germ* or *bud* from which we derive the connecting class or primary stage of the school proper.

THIRD PERIOD.—For want of a better name, we may call the age from seven to fifteen years the school period. Of this the time from the seventh to the eighth year must be occupied in learning to learn. Just as children begin to learn to play between three and four years of age, so in the seventh year they should be able to learn to work in the serious sense of the word. The self-activity, which in the Kindergarten took the form of play, must now be frankly declared work. Of course, this change must be gradual; hence the names "transitional," "intermediate," and "connecting" have been applied to the class where it goes on. Here the powers of abstraction and generalization begin to occupy more of the teacher's care. By degrees the child learns to think, to draw conclusions from facts himself, though the power to do this is feebler than many persons suppose, because it is so common to mistake a ready apprehension and a good memory for powers of thought. Object teaching, drawing, singing, recitations, and drill should still make an important figure in the class work. The teacher has now to grapple with the great difficulty of enabling the children by degrees to give up the use of concrete numbers and work quite as intelligently with figures. The whole time from seven to ten should certainly not be spent in a Kindergarten. At the very least, two years of this is due to that teacher who will be responsible for the child's proper advancement at thirteen or fifteen years of age. Decidedly before the tenth year the pupil should be well started in those special methods of study which run through his school, and no school-master or mistress who deserves the name is fairly treated who is not allowed to lay the founda-

tion of actual school work. My own experience in past years makes me very earnest on this point, and I was much interested during my work in Liverpool at finding how unanimous the best and most successful teachers in the Elementary Juvenile Schools were in desiring the control of the entire *school* age.

The lady who succeeded me in most of my duties there, writes thus to me:—"I am decidedly of opinion that children do better if they pass through all the standards in one school. Children who begin early in the Infant School would do well to pass from the infant room to the care of the teacher who is to guide them for the rest of their school course. I also feel strongly that purely Kindergarten teaching should not extend beyond the age of six years, if the children are to begin their standard work well at seven years." The most experienced government inspectors attach special importance to the care bestowed upon the lowest standard in the juvenile school, because the condition of that standard almost invariably indicates the degree of excellence throughout the school.

From ten to fifteen, oral instruction should still play a very prominent part in education, and the use of text books should follow and not precede each lesson. No attempt should be made to train a child for any special calling before thirteen years of age, and the general results in public schools seem to decide that science teaching is of little practical use before that age.

The last, the Student Period of Education, begins about the fifteenth year. Education may now take the form of self-culture under judicious direction. The pupil may study books for himself, and lectures begin to be of service, while oral lessons may be less frequent though not entirely set aside.

Through all the stages, moral and religious training should be most carefully provided for, and at their close we should hope to find the pupils fitted with the needful principles of self-guidance. From all this you will see that the Kindergarten should provide the school with intelligent, apt, little pupils at seven or eight years of age. At present, the amount of cramming entailed upon a teacher who receives a boy at nine years of age, and who is expected to fit that boy for a tolerably good place in a public school by eleven or twelve years of age, is something distressing. Until some great change is made in the character of the studies in public schools, boys who are intended to prepare for them can only do so without undue strain by beginning at seven years of age. At seven or eight, they may be expected to have some knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, but it would be plainly wrong to expect any very valuable class work in grammar or foreign languages before that time. Indeed, earnest and intelligent teachers of juvenile schools would generally claim the right to start as many of the actual school studies as they can themselves.

The points of discussion, therefore, which I would most earnestly commend to you are:—

1. The value of the Kindergarten as a preparation for actual school life.
2. The danger incurred by schoolmasters and school-mistresses who resign their rightful share of the transitional period between seven and ten years of age.

The Chairman, in inviting discussion on the paper, remarked that the great obstacle to the general adoption of the Kindergarten system was the transition period between the Kindergarten and the School. The fact was that the method of the Higher School was as yet unequal to the task of working out what the Kindergarten had begun. Higher-schoolmasters and mistresses were heard complaining of the result of the system as exhibited in the children they had to take over:

but they should, in fact, be prepared for such result, and make provision accordingly. They should endeavour to work down to the Kindergarten, instead of beginning on a different plane. There was also too great a tendency to regard the whole system as mere play, and to overlook the fact of the constant orderly development pervading it.

Frl. Heerwart thought the age suggested by the lecturer (three years) for the commencement of Kindergarten instruction too young, and would rather begin with the fourth year. Two to two-and-a-half years spent in the Kindergarten would suffice; and a child should go to school soon after he had reached its sixth year. As to the complaint on the score of discipline, there would be no ground for it, if the Kindergarten were conducted on true principles: or should rule, and discipline be maintained in all the games and exercises. She was strongly of opinion that too young girls should not be admitted as Kindergarten teachers: seventeen was quite young enough, and a course of two years' training was required.

Mrs. Bryant said that, as a teacher of mathematics, she was of opinion that the Kindergarten might be a great help in accustoming very young minds to ideas of geometrical form and relative position, and in cultivating the faculties of observation and concentration: the power of thinking would follow. The imagination, too, could be brought into play in this direction; for it would be a mistake to suppose that imagination was foreign to mathematical study: and imagination was more active in the case of young than of older children. She had often met with difficulties in teaching older pupils, owing to their want of clear apprehension of simple geometrical notions—difficulties which could at that stage hardly be treated by the methods applicable in the case of little children, and which the Kindergarten exercises and occupations might be made to supply. In this view, it would perhaps be advisable to add some other objects, such as a divided cone and a divided sphere, to the series of "gifts." The cutting out of plane geometrical figures in cardboard, and of solids in some soft material (*e.g.*, potatoes) might also be made very instructive.

Miss Lord confessed to some feeling of jealousy in letting her Kindergarten children go at six years of age, when the results of the teaching were beginning to show themselves in the formation of clear ideas. She thought that to the Kindergarten teacher should be left the charge of the intermediate school and the preparation for the Higher School.

Mme. Rasche had some doubts as to the effects of the general adoption of the Kindergarten system, which she thought would have a tendency to deprive the children of originality, in leading them to depend on the teacher in everything. She was of opinion that children had a much greater capacity for independent thinking than they were generally credited with.

Miss Franks thought that something might be done in the Kindergarten in the way of imparting the vocabulary of a foreign tongue. Young children took readily to language, and the sounds might be made the effective means of training of the vocal organs.

Dr. Oppler held that there should be a distinct and separate preparatory school, and that there should be a highest class in the Kindergarten itself in which a beginning should be made with the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, in accordance with the previous training. He agreed with a previous speaker that the apparatus might with advantage be increased, in accordance with Fröbel's principles; but he differed from another speaker as to the advisability of teaching any but the mother tongue to very young children, inasmuch as he believed this to have to do with the formation of character. He quite agreed with the lecturer that many Kindergarten teachers begin too young, and remain too short a time under training; and a movement was in progress in Germany to remedy this evil. It was no part of the system to neglect discipline: positive and negative education should proceed in exact proportion. He desired to express the great pleasure with which he had listened to Miss Bailey's very clear and interesting paper.

After some remarks from Miss Bailey in reply to the different speakers, a vote of thanks to the lecturer concluded the proceedings.

Some Reasons why Drawing should be Taught in our Public Schools.

(A paper read before the Ohio State Teachers' Association July 3rd 1877. by Mr. L. S. THOMPSON.)

Although drawing has found its way into many of our best schools, its entrance has not been undisputed, nor its stay entirely unmolested.

These facts, together with the conviction that drawing should find a welcome place in all our public schools, constitute a sufficient reason why the subject above announced should be considered by so progressive a body of educators as The Teachers' Association of Ohio.

It may be said that we have three classes of educators in our country. For our present purpose, these classes may be designated as follows: The Utilitarian class, the Disciplinarian class, and the Æsthetic class. In order that any new subject may be introduced into our schools and find a permanent home there, it must be shown that such study has a tendency to promote the views and aims of each of these three classes.

The Utilitarian class judges the worth of a study by its practical utility in every day life. Of a new candidate for favor this class asks such questions as these:—Of what use is it? Will it enable its possessor to earn money? Can one, by means of it, win his daily bread any easier than without it? Will it give its possessor power or influence in the world?

The second class of educators considers the disciplinary uses of a study of more consequence frequently than the knowledge gained. If a new subject for study is presented to this class for consideration or adoption, such questions as these are likely to be asked:—What effect will it have upon the powers of the mind? Will it strengthen these powers so as to enable the mind to grapple more readily with the problems of life? Will it increase the power of perception, conception, imagination, judgment, or reason? Will it assist the intellect in its onward march in the search of truth?

Previous to the admission of a new study the Æsthetic class inquires: What effect will it have upon the taste? Will it increase one's love of nature? Will it strengthen a love for the beautiful in poetry, eloquence, or the fine arts? Will it have a tendency to polish the mind, gratify the fancy, move the affections, soften the rude or calm the boisterous passions? In short, will it warm into activity the higher soul-capacities and thereby assist in elevating man to the highest degree of culture known or imagined in this life?

If the subject of drawing be rationally presented to any of these classes we shall have no fears of an unfavorable answer. The Utilitarian will readily acknowledge that there is "no person, whatever his profession, but, at times, has need of drawing to render his ideas more intelligible to others."

The absolute necessity of this art to the civil engineer, architect, carpenter, stonemason, machinist, engraver, fresco painter, "and in fact to every artisan, male or female, who is engaged in the construction of objects combining taste with fitness, or beauty with utility, must be considered, and the demand for such, caused by our increase of mechanical and manufacturing establishments all over the country, the utilitarian will place drawing and designing at the very head of the list of his required studies.

Again the disciplinarian will readily admit that to draw an object one must observe closely, compare patiently one part with another, judge accurately of distances and forms, all of which operations taken together strengthens such powers of the mind as attention, perception, comparison, judgment, &c., &c.

The Æsthetic class has always regarded drawing as an aid in lifting the mind above the lower forms of enjoyment to those of a more rational character. It enables one to appreciate and enjoy with keener delight the beauty of the wild old forest, the cliff and mountain, hill and dale, lakelet and river, the stars set in the arch of heaven, cloud and rainbow. "It opens new fields of enjoyment, new powers of comprehension, and a broader basis for a correct understanding and a sound judgment of whatever belongs to human experience."

With these general remarks let us enter more into details. Let us consider the influence of drawing upon our ordinary school work. We believe that teachers themselves, from the fact, no doubt, that their attention has not been called to it, are not fully impressed with the value of drawing in our elementary educational course. They do not seem to understand that it is intimately connected with all other studies, and instead of robbing them of precious time, it is sharpening and toning up the faculties for the more ready acquirement of other knowledge.

Reading is the key to the storehouse of knowledge in these days of libraries, and must be taught in our schools. Since all who would enter the temple of learning must possess this key, anything that will hasten the process of teaching reading should be respectfully considered. Drawing does assist in this process. How? In reading we are obliged to name words, which are definite forms, at sight. We recognize words by their general forms or shapes, and not by remembering that each one is composed of certain letters. Drawing trains the eye to distinguish forms quickly. Therefore it has a direct influence in teaching children to read.

We must teach spelling as well as reading, so long, at least, as the present orthography remains in use. Good spelling depends on a good memory of forms. "All printers read proof, spell, correct typographical errors, etc., not by language, or by remembering," by the ear "whether a word ends in *tion* or *sion*, or is spelled with *z*, *s*, or *c*, etc., but by the appearances of words—by the eye instead of by rote—by form, not language." "It strikes his eye as correct or incorrect, not his ear." Memory drawing educates and strengthens the power to recall forms and thus bears directly upon the teaching of spelling.

Writing is one of the most important of elementary subjects. Drawing is the elder sister of writing, and they mutually aid each other. The same quick eye and the same skilful hand are necessary in both.

Geography is not only a useful study but a refining one also. Not many of us can travel over the face of the fair earth, to observe for ourselves the shapes of continents, islands, seas, and gulfs. We must study maps. But experience teaches that *gazing* at maps only is not the quickest method of fixing the forms of countries in the memory. Neither is it best to commit to memory long and tedious word descriptions of capes, mountains, and courses of rivers. Next to travelling from place to place and observing the situations of cities, islands, lakes, and the courses of rivers, the best thing is to draw maps and locate these places on them. The child that can sketch the course of a river or coast line, does not need to load down its memory with a tedious description to be forgotten when it leaves school. Hence, the best teachers teach geography by means of drawing.

Drawing assists in the study of arithmetic. In the elementary stages of drawing many exercises are given in the division of lines and surfaces into a certain number of parts. Such drawing lessons make excellent object lessons. It is not only useful as a means of illustration to the eye, but it cultivates the power of attention or

concentration, which is indispensable in the study of arithmetic. The power of concentration implies that of abstraction. The person who can abstract his mind from surrounding objects and concentrate it upon a complex problem, and hold it there until all the different steps are reasoned out, succeeds in solving such problem. The person who can only hold his attention while considering half the steps fails to solve such problem. The power of abstraction is the chief mathematical faculty, and probably no school exercise has ever been invented better calculated to lead the mind away from the concrete to the abstract, than that of inventive drawing, dictation drawing, and designing.

Geometry is the science of *form*. The first step in learning geometry is to notice the forms of things about us. Drawing forces us to notice form and renders the eye quick to notice differences of form. "The second step in learning geometry is to become able to imagine perfect forms without seeing them drawn." Beginners in this study, without a training in drawing, generally find difficulty in realizing that the lines they see on a flat surface represent anything but lines. They fail frequently to see that a form or volume is represented. Dictation drawing directly cultivates this power of "*seeing in space*," so necessary to the young geometrician.

The Latin, the Greek, and other languages, in which the meaning and relation of words often depend on minute differences in termination or inflection, are much more readily learned by those who have had the eye and attention cultivated by a systematic course in drawing.

Drawing is the handmaid to all the natural sciences. Botany, physiology, geology, natural history, etc., cannot be pursued in the best way without drawing. The drawing of the leaves, stems, fruits, and flowers of plants, the different parts of animals and the human body, serve to fix their forms in the mind better than it is possible to do it in any other way. The observation necessary to draw a form serves to impress that form in the mind and imagination, while the attempt to represent it by lines and shadows corrects errors of observation. A description of things in words gives the appearance of knowledge. An investigation of the real things yields real knowledge. Drawing forces us to this investigation. To draw a thing we must know. To know we must examine minutely.

The close connection which we have attempted to show exists between drawing and all school studies, may tempt some to say that *any* study helps all others. This, to a certain extent, is true. But, we believe that no other subject than drawing, except language, is so intimately associated with all legitimate school work. Drawing is a language, a universal language, read and understood by all mankind of whatever nationality or tongue. And because drawing can be used to express our thoughts, it is destined to revolutionize our methods of teaching. Instead of requiring pupils to recite in some particular language, we shall more and more demand answers in this general language.

More generally, let us consider the influence of drawing on several faculties of the mind. Attention, or the power of fixing the mind on some particular subject and holding it there, is necessary for success in the pursuit of all knowledge, or for success in any department of life. When drawing is properly taught the power of attention is directly cultivated. It is constantly making demands for close and continued observation. It requires accurate comparisons between different object and the different parts of the same object. The repeated and agreeable exercise of this faculty becomes a fixed habit of the mind, in time, and is

unconsciously used in all after life in reference to all objects of investigation, to the great advantage of its possessor.

When invention and composition in drawing, or simple designing, are taught, as they may be in our schools, they become powerful aids in the cultivation of the taste, reason, and imagination. When by simple and progressive exercises, children discover that they have the power to re-arrange lines and forms already learned, and even to create new forms and designs, the imagination becomes active, and the whole mind is aroused to greater activity in the pursuit of abstract knowledge. Closely allied to this is the power of conception. Children should be taught to remember forms, and, by re-arranging them in their minds, encouraged to form mental pictures different from what they may have seen. From the formation of concepts of this kind it is only an easy step to the formation of concepts in other departments of thought.

It is this power of conception that enables a mechanic or artisan to see the form he would produce in the rude material in which he works. It enables the wagon-maker to see the axle-tree and other parts of a wagon in the wood from which he makes them. By this power the potter sees the beautiful vase in the clay before him, the stone-cutter sees the chaste form of the Ionic or Corinthian capital in a stone, and the sculptor sees the statue in the unshapely block of marble.

The higher exercise of this power is beautifully illustrated by an anecdote told of Michael Angelo. As he was one day rambling, in his holiday attire, with some friends, in an out-of-the-way street in Florence, he suddenly turned aside to what proved to be a block of marble, nearly covered with dirt and rubbish, and began to work upon it to remove the mire in which it lay. His friends seeing nothing but a worthless piece of rock, asked him in astonishment what he was going to do with it. "Oh! there's an angel in the stone," was his answer, "and I must get it out. He had it taken to his studio, where with much patience and labor with the mallet and chisel, *he let the angel out.*" "What to others was but a rude unsightly mass of stone, to his educated eye was the buried glory of art, and he discovered at a glance what might be made of it. A mason would have put it into a stone wall; a cartman would have used it in filling in, or to grade the streets; but he transformed it into a creation of genius, and gave it a value for ages to come."

Teachers sometimes urge against the introduction of drawing that there is no time. We wish it distinctly understood, however, that drawing does not seek admission into our schools for the purpose of diminishing attainments in other branches of useful study, but as a handmaid to all of them, and as a relief from over-study. Parents sometimes complain that we as superintendents and teachers, have been driving their children through the mazes of reading, word method, phonic method, writing, spelling, mental arithmetic, written arithmetic, geography, object lessons, botany lessons, physiology lessons, physics, compositions, language lessons, grammar lessons, etc., etc., with a speed little, if any, less than dangerous to their health and constitutions. Drawing comes in not to increase this speed but to moderate it, by relaxing the mind and improving and enlivening our methods of instruction; by furnishing more for the hands to do while the excited brain is comparatively at rest. We plead then for the introduction of drawing in behalf of the children in our schools who are in danger of being overworked.

Having attempted to show that the study of drawing more than pays for its time and cost, in its favorable influence on the studies already in our schools, we shall

now attempt to show that it is not only valuable *inside* of the school room, but that, *outside* of it, it has a practical bearing on most of the professions and vocations of life, and eminently deserves the name of "bread winner."

We cannot introduce shoemaking, tailoring, nor any other mechanical trade into our schools, but in the absence of these occupations, we can teach facility in the use of pencil, ruler, square, and compass, which we believe to be an excellent preparation for the handling of the various tools used in these vocations. It is estimated that nine-tenths of all the occupations into which labor is divided require a knowledge of drawing, and that the remaining one-tenth receives the lowest wages. Every thing that is well made,—“from a toy house to a cathedral, from a stovepipe to a locomotive engine—is made from a drawing.”

It is generally supposed that not much skill is required to dig a ditch or throw up an embankment for a rail road track. Let us for a moment see what effect drawing will have upon the work of the ditch digger or railroad hand. If his eye and judgment have been trained by drawing, he can dig a straighter and better ditch and do it in less time than if he has had no instruction of this kind. Why? Because his trained eye sees at a glance just what is to be done at each particular stage of the work. He knows when he is digging too deep or not deep enough, and wastes no time in making mistakes to be corrected afterward. Such a man soon shows his superiority, while his fellow workmen, with stronger muscles it may be, but with less skill, must be content with lower wages.

The carpenter, bridge-builder, or ship-builder, who understands drawing, is not only able to read and understand the drawings made by others for his direction, but he can make them for himself, or for others, and thus lift himself above the mere drudgery of his trade. He will be called upon to do the work that requires the most skill, and consequently that commands the best wages. The way is open before him for becoming a skilled architect and superintendent of building construction, while his ignorant companions continue to plod through life without any prospect of advancement.

The blacksmith who can draw can also work more skilfully than he could without such knowledge. If any ornamental work is to be done, or work requiring knowledge rather than strength, he gets it, while the man who works by "rule of thumb" does the drudgery of his trade and receives lower wages. He has the elements of becoming, with practice and perseverance, a skilful machinist or artificer in iron, while the great mass of his co-laborers who neglect this means of training will go on pounding iron as they were taught by their ignorant masters, without once suspecting the reason why they are not advanced.

The stone-mason, or marble-cutter, who has been trained to draw, may become something more than a day laborer who lays down his zinc pattern, made by another, and, after marking around it, clips away the stone until it is the right shape. He becomes an expert carver, he originates designs and patterns of his own, and finds the field of sculpture open before him, inviting him to partake of the pleasures and honors of the plastic arts.

The wagon maker, the cabinet maker, the plasterer, wood-carver, cooper, jeweller, milliner, dressmaker, the machinist, and every kind of mechanic, each and all, daily and hourly, use the same kind of power in judging of forms, lines, and curves, that a proper training in drawing gives.

To sum up the whole in a few words, we live in a

universe of matter. We are surrounded by it on all sides. We "live, move, and have our being" in it. All matter has extension, the result of which is form. The forms of matter are infinitely varied—some regular and some irregular; some simple and others very complex; some beautiful, and all governed by law and very interesting. In the battle for material existence we are struggling to change the form or shape of the various kinds of matter around us. With the exception of some very small classes the people of the world are engaged in the preparation, production, and distribution of different forms of matter. The production or preparation of matter for use or exchange generally consists in a change of its form. Thus, the wagon-maker changes trees into wagons, the carpenter changes them into houses, the shipbuilder into ships; the tailor changes the form of cloth into that of garments; the brick-maker changes clay into brick, the potter changes it into useful wares, and the artist uses it to give shape to cherished conceptions. He who has the best knowledge of the forms that surround him and the greatest power to change those forms according to his will is the best able to cope with his surroundings, and thus render himself the fittest to survive. God is supreme over all matter, because he can at will change its form. When "the earth was without form and void," he called forth the fishes in the sea, the birds in the air, and man in his own image. He who would become god-like in power and skill, must be a master of form. He must not only know forms when presented before him, but he must know the possibilities of form.

Again in connection with the trades and professions heretofore enumerated, this fact, demonstrated hundreds of times by actual experience, should not be overlooked, that a boy who has been trained to draw from childhood, will learn any of these trades, or any other mechanical business, in about one-half of the time that is required by the boy of equal talent but having no previous instruction in drawing. This point becomes still more important when taken in connection with another well-known fact, that, "owing to the abandonment of the old system of apprenticeship, by which young persons were trained to become skilful workmen in the various employments and trades, and from the bitter opposition of trades unions to the training of youth in their various occupations, it has become almost impossible for a parent to procure for his children such industrial training as will make them skilful artisans."

It may be said that in this enumeration of the advantages of drawing to the different mechanical trades and employments, we have left out the farmer, one of the most numerous class of all occupations. But to the ambitious farmer, a skilled eye and trained hand cannot be useless. A knowledge of drawing enables him the better to lay off his grounds and divide his fields. By it he plants his orchard and vines, he plans his houses and barns, adapting them to their circumstances and uses. By it he describes in the universal language of drawing, as well as in words, "the peculiar vegetation, the name of which he does not know, and the kind of insect which destroys his crops." By the culture it gives him, he will make straighter corn rows, keep his fences and gates in better order, and there will be an appearance of order and good taste about his premises, that will not only be pleasant and gratifying to the eye, but will add a money value to his farm.

Again, the farmer of fifty and twenty five years ago cannot compete with the farmer of to-day. The farmer of the future must not only know how to use the hoe, the plow, and the sickle, but he must be enough of a mechanic and an engineer to know how to use the

mower, the reaper, the drill, and frequently the steam-engine. He may not need the skill of the cabinet-maker, but he does need the skill to make a board fence, a gate, to put in a spoke, mend a strap, set up a reaper, paint a wagon, and lay a drain. The danger of making a man "Jack of all trades and master of none," may be real in the case of a professional mechanic, but in the case of the farmer a little skill in the use of tools often makes the difference between a clever and an awkward farmer, the difference between success and failure. Many farmers will testify to the loss of precious hours and even days, involving partial losses of crops, because of inability to make simple repairs which any one might learn to make.

Thus far we have considered the practical uses of drawing, outside of the school-room, to boys and men. Why teach drawing to girls? Most women are intimately connected with housekeeping. They either keep houses for themselves or others, or they are called upon to decide when it is well done. Much of the difference between good and bad housekeeping consists in the amount of taste and skill displayed in the arrangement of furniture, pictures, and other household effects. The woman of taste and training, though poor in this world's goods, makes a more pleasing and satisfying house than her rich neighbor without this culture. The mother trained to draw in her youth will cut out clothes for her children or others, and only so as to be more pleasing, but also in a more economical manner, saving both time and cloth. When drawing and designing have been well taught in our schools for some time, we shall find women becoming engravers on wood and stone, designers of ornaments for calico printing, for carpets, oil-cloths, wall-paper, etc., and decorators of pottery and table ware. Thus many light employments, requiring taste and skill rather than strength, and which have hitherto been monopolized by men, will be open to women. It is said that, "In London more than a thousand girls earn a handsome living by making designs for illustrated books, prints, etc." We are also informed that nine out of ten of the illustrations that appear in Harper's Bazar, and that many of those in Harper's Weekly and Monthly, are drawn and engraved by women. It is not much more difficult to turn a vase than to draw one; to engrave a leaf than to represent it with a pencil. Those who visited the Centennial Exhibition last summer remember the beautiful displays of decorated pottery,—the almost numberless cases and pavilions filled with beautiful vases and useful wares. "Six years ago no such beautiful things were made in England." "All the decoration on these objects is done by hand," said the gentlemen who explained the process. "We made up our minds at the outset that we would have no mechanical art; would print no patterns; and we have never made two articles alike. All our work people—our decorators, especially—are native born English folk, and nearly three-fourths of them are women."

"About fifty young ladies are employed in these studios, and all are well paid."

Centennial visitors will also remember the elaborately-carved furniture, consisting of carved doors, organ and piano cases, bedsteads, cabinets, etc., from the Cincinnati School of Design for Women. With such inviting fields of usefulness and independence as these thrown open to energetic and capable women, who will wish to deprive the girls of our public schools of the privilege of learning to draw?

We might go on and multiply examples of trades and professions that are directly benefited by the training

that drawing gives, but we think enough has been said to convince most thinking persons that drawing is not an accomplishment merely, as many suppose, but one of the most practical of all the studies in common or high-school courses.

Still pursuing this utilitarian phase of the subject, let us pass by for the present the advantages of drawing to the individual and consider its influence upon State and national prosperity.

The history of the world is a history of conflicts. Far too many of them have been upon fields of battle, amid the hissing of bullets and the roar of cannon. Hitherto nations have tried to excel each other in the invention of implements with which they might the most rapidly and certainly cut and hew each other to pieces. They might have been wont to measure each others' power and influence in the world by the number of vessels of war in their navies, the number of cannon in their arsenals, and the number of soldiers in their standing armies.

Of late years, however, *industrial* conflicts, less sanguinary but no less decisive, have been absorbing the attention of the leading nations. They are struggling with each other "on educational fields, in industrial science, in art and industry," and for the supremacy in markets of the world. European nations have foreseen the importance of these contests, and for twenty-five or thirty years have been earnestly engaged in direct preparation for these bloodless battles. These preparations have not been made by the casting of cannon, and the building of iron-clad steamers, but by the creation of museums filled with the rarest and most costly products of industrial art; by the establishment of drawing schools; by arming every child with a lead pencil, ruler, and compass, and teaching him how to use them. It has long since been proclaimed that "The pen is mightier than the sword," but we have yet to learn practically that "The pencil is the most efficient ally of the needle-gun."

In our own country we have been of necessity absorbed in clearing off forests, building railroads, telegraphs, and attending generally to the ruder necessities of civilization, and omitting the accumulation of wealth. Having had some success in these directions, we find the number of persons engaged in such occupations as are calculated to make life more comfortable, and such as are calculated to adorn our homes and embellish our lives, is more rapidly increasing than the number engaged in providing for our actual necessities. Statisticians find as a consequence that the population of the cities and towns is gaining on that of the country. Whether we like tendency or not, we cannot prevent it so long as the invention of labor-saving machinery continues. Our nation as a whole cannot be prosperous if our cities and towns are prostrated, because agriculture must have consumers for its products. Cities and towns cannot flourish without manufactures. Manufactures cannot exist without drawing, or the cultivation of the eye, the hand, the taste, which is most expeditiously and economically obtained through a drill in drawing. The more artistic the manufacture the more need of drawing, and the more profitable the manufacture becomes to state or nation.

Art manufactures have the advantage over ruder ones, for several reasons. They have the advantage in transportation. "It cost but little to transport skill and taste, but a great deal, comparatively, to transport ignorance and raw material." Such manufactures have the advantage, because they produce a better population—a better population, because more intelligent—

more intelligent, because artistic manufactures cannot be produced without intelligence. Such a population has more money, more comfort, more refinement. It has more money because it is better paid. It can spend, and does spend more for churches, schools, and the higher wants of mind.

We have said the different nations are competing with each other, and watching each other's movements upon the field of art industry, as eagerly as ever they have done so on the field of battle. This matter of competition between nations is becoming of overwhelming importance. Owing to the multiplication of railroads, steamships, and telegraphs, our competitors are not our neighbors only, but "the whole world beyond the seas and on the opposite side of the planet." Distance counts for less and less every year, while skill rises in value in the same ratio. It is of the utmost importance then, that we know what other nations and states are doing in this matter of drawing and industrial art training. If your antagonist is armed with a revolver, you do not care to meet him in deadly conflict, if armed only with a pop-gun. If European nations are sending forth into their workshops thousands of trained artisans every year, we cannot cope with them by native ability alone. We cannot protect our home market by tariffs. Tariffs may prevent our buying what our higher tastes desire, by excluding it from the market, but they cannot force us to buy that which our taste condemns. "There is but one way for any country to meet foreign competition in its home market, and that is, to put as much taste and skill in its home manufacture as the foreigner puts into his."

Let us inquire what some of the leading foreign countries are doing for the advancement of art manufactures. "At the Universal Exposition of 1851, England found herself, by general consent, almost at the bottom of the list, among all the countries of the world, in respect of her art manufactures. Only the United States among the great nations stood below her." She became alarmed at this state of affairs and appointed commissioners to investigate the cause. She discovered that her competitors were giving more attention to industrial drawing than she had been doing. She immediately established art schools all over the kingdom. At the Exposition of 1862 she found she was making creditable advancement in art manufactures. At the Paris Exposition of 1867, England stood among the foremost, and in some branches of manufacture distanced the most artistic nations. It was the schools of art that accomplished this great result in the period of sixteen years. "The United States still held her place at the foot of the column," and, we are sorry to say it, remains too near the foot yet.

For a hundred years or more, drawing has played an important part in industrial education of the French. Their wealth, according to good authority, is owing principally to their drawing schools, which are said to be the main-stays of their art industry to-day. By means of this art culture in their schools, they have raised themselves to the mastery of the departments of art and art manufacture. Although France has been engaged in many costly wars, and her national debt is burdensome, she surprised Germany and all the rest of the world, by paying off her late war indebtedness before it was due. How was she enabled to do this? Her art manufactures are demanded by every civilized country in the world. Her industrial products having more of taste and skill than of bulk, cost less for transportation than broadstuffs and raw materials; hence she commands the markets of the world for just those manu-

factures that it is to the interest of any nation to produce. A late writer in the commercial department of the *New-York Independent* says, "We are now paying a good many millions of dollars yearly to France for *mere style* in cotton goods, and calicoes may be seen lying on the same counters in our dry-goods stores, not very different in material value, which differ in price full five hundred per cent. It is the elegance, the superior taste, the artistic designs of French calicoes which impart to them a value in ladies' eyes which our own calicoes do not possess, and it should be the aim of our manufacturers to compete with them either in our own or in foreign markets."

It would be interesting to show how the remaining European countries regard this matter of industrial drawing. Suffice it to say that Germany, Austria, Belgium, and Russia stand in the front rank with France and England while all are vying with each other for excellency in industrial art manufactures.

This impulse in favor of educating all, so as to give the seeing eye and the ready hand, has been wafted over the Atlantic Ocean, and has found its first lodgment on Plymouth Rock. Massachusetts, with a never-failing instinct as to how money is to be made, has passed a law (in 1870) requiring drawing to be taught in all her public schools, and establishing evening schools for giving instruction in drawing to all persons over fifteen years of age. We find these evening schools filled with persons of all ages from fifteen to sixty years. Even these older students are eager to learn, and as they become sensible of what they have lost, they bemoan the fate that prevented their learning to draw when younger.

In the spring of 1875 the State of New-York, following the example of Massachusetts, passed a law making drawing a compulsory study. This law went into operation the first day of October of the same year, and the school authorities are doing all they can to make the introduction of this study universal. Within the last year we understand that Pennsylvania has been making earnest efforts for the advancement of industrial drawing in her common schools.

It requires no prophet to foresee what is to be the result. It seems almost useless to say that unless the Western, Southern, and Southwestern States begin to meet this advanced movement in favor of drawing by a similar movement in our schools, these Eastern States on account of the superior skill of their workmen, will bring us under a more exacting tribute than we are at present. They will continue to send us calicoes, carpets, furniture, and other art manufactures, which we ought to produce at home, and we shall continue to delve in the earth in order to produce the raw material to send to them in exchange. We shall find that it will take a great deal of corn, wheat, cotton, and wool to buy a small quantity of prints and other *finer* fabrics which we consider desirable.

We feel that it is useless to say any more in favor of the practical and disciplinary value of drawing. The American people are said to be eminently practical. Hence it would seem only necessary to show them that a want exists in order to have it supplied. The Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia last year has given us a strong push in a right direction. We have come home convinced, I have no doubt, that we are behind other first-class countries in the matter of art education, and that if we wish to hold our own in the markets of the world, we must give our children the best possible advantages for training their eyes and their hands. We ought to be convinced, I think, that no other subject of study is now so much needed in our schools; "that nothing else could add such rapid wealth to the country

—wealth of tasteful production, and wealth of enjoyment of tasteful products."

Let us now turn to the æsthetic phase of the subject, and contemplate some of the pleasures and enjoyments that may be enlarged, if not created, by a training in drawing. A person trained in art, in the language of Addison, "is let into a great many pleasures that the vulgar are not capable of receiving. He can converse with a picture and find an agreeable companion in a statue. He meets with a secret refreshment in a description, and often feels a greater satisfaction in the prospect of fields and meadows than another does in the possession. It gives him, indeed, a kind of property to everything he sees, and makes the most rude, uncultivated parts of nature administer to his pleasures, so that he looks upon the world, as it were, in another light, and discovers in it a multitude of charms that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind."

The love of the beautiful, and the desire for ornament, are as natural and universal as any other desire of human nature. "For some gratification of taste, what privations have not men submitted to, and those the very last of their race whom it would be proper to call foolish or visionary." The universal efforts of mankind to show that "beauty of effect and decoration are no more a luxury in a civilized state of society than warmth and clothing are a luxury to any state." They manifest a positive want that cannot be neglected without great injury to the human character. This desire is one of the earliest to manifest itself. Man in a savage state frequently feels the need of ornamenting his body even before he feels the need of clothing it. This longing for ornament is entirely absent in none, and it grows in the same ratio as progress in civilization. As man advances in culture and refinement he is no more satisfied with the decoration of the rude tent or wigwam, but he seeks gratification in the beauties of architecture, painting, and sculpture.

Ideality, or a love of the beautiful, being a constituent element of man's nature, we find the world affords abundant opportunity for the exercise of this faculty. We are surrounded by beauty on all sides. "Nature is one vast galaxy of beauty." "All along the wild old forest God has carved the forms of beauty. Every cliff, and mountain, and tree, is a statue of beauty. Every leaf, and stem, and vine, and flower, is a form of beauty. Every hill, and dale, and landscape, is a picture of beauty. Every cloud, and mist-wreath, and vapor-vail, is a shadowy reflection of beauty. Every spring, and rivulet, lakelet, river, and ocean, is a glassy mirror of beauty. Every diamond, and rock, and pebbly beach, is a mine of beauty. Every sun, and planet, and star, is a blazing face of beauty. All along the aisles of earth, all over the arches of heaven, all through the expanses of the universe, are scattered, in rich and infinite profusion, the life gems of beauty." From the mote that plays its little frolic in the sunbeam, to the world that blazes along the sapphire spaces of the firmament, are visible the ever-varying features of the enrapturing spirit of beauty." And yet these enchanting scenes of beauty are a comparatively sealed-book to the great mass of mankind. We are made conscious of all this beauty only by means of sight, the noblest of the senses. Kuskin says: "The more I think of it, I find this conclusion more impressed upon me, that the greatest thing a human soul ever does in this world is to see something, and to tell what it saw in a plain way. Hundreds of people can talk to one who thinks, but thousands can think to one who can see."

Something more than eyes are necessary, however, that we may see. Right seeing comes from training.

Anything that cultivates the power of correct vision really enlarges the world for us, for whatever is not seen or perceived by us might as well not exist, so far as we are concerned. Drawing is a means to open our blind eyes to the beauties of nature and art which surround us, in the greatest profusion, but of which many of us are entirely unconscious. It brings us into contact with nature in her most pleasing and elevating aspect; and through "that elder scripture, writ by God's own hand," we are led to "look through nature up to nature's God." Cousin says: "God is necessarily the last reason, the ultimate foundation, the completed ideal of all beauty. This is the marvellous beauty that Diotimus had caught a glimpse of, and thus paints to Socrates in the 'Banquet':

"Eternal beauty, unbegotten and imperishable, exempt from decay as well as increase, which is not beautiful in such a part and ugly in such another, beautiful only at such a time, in such a place, in such a relation, beautiful for some, ugly for others, beauty that has no sensible form, no visage, no hands, nothing corporeal, which is not such a thought or such a particular science, which resides not in any being different from itself, as an animal, the earth, or the heavens, or any other thing, which is absolutely identical and invariable by itself, in which all other beauties participate, in such a way nevertheless, that their birth or their destruction neither diminishes nor increases, nor in the least changes it!"

In order to arrive at this perfect beauty, it is necessary to commence with the beauties of the lower world, and, the eyes being fixed upon the supreme beauty, to elevate ourselves unceasingly toward it by passing, thus to speak, through all the degrees of the scale, from a single beautiful body to two, from two to all others, from beautiful bodies to beautiful sentiments, from beautiful sentiments to beautiful thoughts, until from thought to thought we arrive at the highest thought, which has no other object than the beautiful itself, until we end by knowing it as it is itself."

Finally, of the youth who has been properly trained in drawing and art, and who has learned to love the beautiful forms that every where surround him, we may say, in the language of another, that "God's glory of the sunset—all of the divine offerings in the natural world—will be his while life lasts, and when the white veil of flesh standing between him and his hereafter falls away from him into the bosom of demanding earth, memory will keep her seat in the mysterious intelligence he calls his soul, and hold them sacred for him forever."

DISCUSSION.

Mr. JONES, of Massillon.—I am heartily in sympathy with the views presented. A subject of such vast importance, of so much practical utility, and of such value to the state and nation, deserves careful consideration.

Eminent educators, after having studied the school system of all other countries, tell us that drawing should form a part of the course of study in our schools.

An excellent beginning has been made in our larger cities; the smaller towns are waiting to ascertain the best means of introducing and studying it. It is urged that we have no time or place for it. I believe that provision can should be made for it in our schools.

It is also objected that but few pupils can draw, and that is not wise to educate a few boys for artisans in our schools. The same objection may be made against any study in our course. I believe that the statistics

will show that the work in drawing, where it has been systematically taught, will compare with the work in any other branches. In examining the work of several of our schools (every pupil being represented), the results have far exceeded my anticipations. If we can enable of pupils to take a higher stand in the trades which they may pursue, it is our duty to do it. Pupils should be able not only to draw, but to read drawings. In reference to ornamental drawing it has been wisely said "Any mechanic, or apprentice, or a man, or a boy, who can sit down and laboriously copy a picture, or a beautiful landscape, or the head of Medusa, has an accomplishment that is of little worth to himself or to any body else; but if he can readily pencil or sketch a machine, or picture a tool, or design the workmanship which he wishes to have constructed, if he has learned drawing, not only pictorial language, and can express himself, and can understand the thought another expresses in that language, he has acquired an art of inestimable value to any condition, profession, or pursuit, on which he can be engaged."

Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers.

The 14th Annual Convention, appointed to be held at the City of Sherbrooke, commenced its session in the Town Hall, on the 11th instant, the President, R. W. HENEKER, ESQ., occupying the Chair.

After prayer by the Rev. A. Duff, of Sherbrooke, the President addressed a few words of welcome to the members of the Association and visitors.

The minutes of the last meeting having been disposed of by referring those present to the printed report lying on the table, letters were read expressing regret at inability to attend, from the Hon. G. Ouimet Superintendent of Public Instruction, W. W. Lynch, Esq., M. P. P., Dr. Dawson, the Hon. Judge Dunkin and the Rev. Principal Lobley.

The following motion was passed unanimously—Resolved that this Association desires to express and place on record its deep sense of the loss which it, and the cause of Education, have sustained in the death of the Hon. Judge Sanborn, and of the Rev. Principal Nicolls, both of whom had occupied highly important and useful positions in connection with the Educational interests of the Province, and who had been from the first closely identified with the objects and work of this Association. The mover and seconder, Mr. Inspector Hubbard and Dr. Howe, the Hon. J. G. Robertson, the Rev. Mr. Duff, and the President, in short addresses, paid tributes to the memory of the lamented deceased.

A paper, entitled "the necessity of closing Schools on Saturdays" was read by Mr. Inspector Emberson, and the subject having been thoroughly discussed by the Convention, the following resolution, moved by Dr. Baker Edwards, seconded by the Rev. Mr. Duff, was passed unanimously—"In the opinion of this Association, it is most desirable that all Schools in the Province should be close on Saturdays; that the Association do memorialize the Department of Public Instruction to bring about such a change in Legislation as shall secure the desired object; and that R. W. Heneker, Esq., the President of the Association be requested to bring the Memorial under the notice of Department."

In his paper, Mr. Emberson, after citing instances of the injurious effects of prolonged work without relaxation said: "There is another reason, for giving a holiday every Saturday, and that is that it makes the teachers' profession much more desirable. The excellence of teachers will in the long run depend on the inducements offered to our ablest young men and women to enter the profession. The chief inducements to choose any given profession are two: high pay and pleasant work. In making any effort to increase the pay, we are reminded that that increases the burden on the ratepayers. But it seems that in the opinion of the most conservative teachers—in the opinion of the most intelligent administrators of our elementary schools—those in cities; in the opinion of the directors of our schools of superior education, it is an advantage to the taught to shorten the labor of the teacher. All who teach know how pleasant in the life of a teacher is the free day on Saturday. If, then, the teacher's life be made more pleasant more members of the profession will stay in it and more persons will be induced to offer themselves as candidates for employment in it. The more candidates who offer themselves

for diplomas the more strict the examiners can afford to be in granting them, and an increase in this I find to be now demanded of them all over the country. A good teacher can teach more in five days in the week than a poor one can in six. And if a good teacher finds that some of her scholars can with profit do work on a Saturday she can always give them work to do at home. And work thus done at home, not under the immediate compulsion of the teacher's presence and the teacher's eye, is of inestimable advantage for moral and intellectual training. And the work which the teacher thinks it profitable for the minority to do will not be an injustice to the majority, who would seem to learn more by going to school five days a week than they would if they went six.

Mr. F. W. Hicks, M. A., said the necessity of the subject had been called up at the last annual meeting of the convention, when it was then moved and carried "that the teaching hours should not be longer than five hours a day and five days a week." He spoke of the strain upon the mind and health of the teachers from week to week, which was very intense. He thought that the Saturday could profitably be spent in recreation. It had been said that inert machinery was occasionally benefited by a brief stoppage, and if this was the case how much more beneficial would be the rest to the human machinery after a hard week's work. He was decidedly in favor of a whole day being given in every week for a holiday.

Mr. Hubbard (Sherbrooke) was very happy to say that in many schools in his district the teachers only taught five days a week. But he regretted that a mere expression of opinion on the part of the Convention had no legal weight, and it was, therefore, desirable that some legislative pressure should be brought to bear on the subject. He was decidedly in favor of the Saturday being a whole holiday.

Mr. Lawrence (Sherbrooke Academy) thought Thursdays and Fridays would be the best days in the week.

Dr. J. Baker Edwards spoke from the parents' standpoint. He thought that a child should get a whole holiday once a week. He did not consider Sunday as a whole holiday, as there were many things a child had of necessity to do which could not be regarded as a holiday undertaking. He was in favor of a whole day.

Dr. Howe did not agree with Mr. Emberson's theory that a boy could learn as much in five hours as in six. He did not think that teachers could satisfactorily teach their scholars in less than six hours a day. He advocated one whole holiday a week, but he questioned very much if Saturday was the best day they could choose. Would not Thursday be the best? He thought so.

The President here invited the ladies to speak—but in vain.

Dr. Howe said his experience was that boys were much smarter and clearer in their ideas, and that he got the best papers from them on Monday morning.

Mr. C. A. Tanner (Richmond) was happy to say his experience tallied with both gentlemen's.

The President said Thursday was the day chosen in France for a holiday, but he did not think the day was specially important. In the field of mechanical labor it was found that the last two or three hours did not give the same result as the first hours gave.

Mr. E. T. Chambers gave his experience in getting good lessons from his pupils on Monday. He found the boys were clearer and brighter on the Monday, and that the lessons rather dragged toward the Friday afternoon. He did not think children could be got to come to school on Saturday, which had always been associated with a school boy's holiday.

Mr. S. P. Rowell (Montreal), in speaking to the motion, did not find the lessons were usually so well prepared on Monday as on other days in the week.

Mr. J. Elliott and Rev. Mr. Duff (who were in favor of six hours' tuition a day), and others having spoken, the motion was put and carried unanimously.

The Convention then adjourned until 2 o'clock.

Afternoon Session.

The minutes of the morning session having been read, Mr. Hubbard presented a letter of apology from Wm. Sawyer, Esq., M. P. P., expressing his regret that he could not attend the meeting.

Mr. Inspector Hubbard then made an address upon "The teaching of linear drawing in schools." He had chosen the subject because the Legislature had enacted that drawing should be taught in schools. He was inclined to think that the study was both expedient and practicable. The greater part of the teachers in the common schools in the country, he was sorry to say, had not taught the subject, and there were some also in the higher schools who had omitted it from their list of studies. It was a singular fact that while the Legislature had enacted that the study should be taught in the schools the examination of the teacher according to the rules of the Department did not include an enquiry into the teacher's knowledge of it. The text-book would be one by Walter Smith, entitled the "Teacher's Manual of Freehand Drawing." The book

was written so plainly and simply that the teacher could hardly fail to make it a success. A good slate, a long, well-pointed pencil, and a good blackboard were all that was required in the way of apparatus. The more he looked at the subject, the more favorably was he impressed with its value. One of its best recommendations was that the means of acquiring the study were cheap and handy.

The subject being open to discussion.

Mr. Chambers (Montreal) had always found drawing to be a useful and a recreative study England had owed much of its greatness to the development of the Arts, and manufactures depending upon Art, to the increase of the knowledge of drawing as taught in its schools. The speaker gave his experience as a student and teacher, founded upon his observations at South Kensington Museum. One of the best means of developing the capacity of the pupil was by giving him some object to copy—as a jug or plate or cup. He illustrated the value of freehand by citing an instance where in England a poor lad had acquired a high position through his talents which were originally developed in the study of freehand drawing.

Dr. Miles said the subject was receiving much attention from the Department of Public Instruction. The Superintendent was doing every thing in his power to promote the undersal introduction of this branch into the Public Schools of the Province, and the text book which had been adverted to, "Walter Smith's Manual of Free Hand Drawing", had, under his auspices, been reproduced in the French language by Mr. Oscar Dunn, a talented officer of the Department. The English copy was, in the Superintendent's opinion, more expensive (75 cents) than he hoped to be instrumental in having it presently furnished, the Edition in French being already accessible to teachers at the low cost of 25 cents.

The subject was necessarily important for us to take up in order that this Province may follow creditably and successfully the example set by other countries foremost in the world as respects the industrial arts. In the United States, England, France Germany and Belgium, very great stress was laid upon this as a branch of ordinary School instruction, for the reason, amongst others, that it is a fundamental and essential requisite for future general excellence in the industrial arts. It has been reported that at least 5 millions of children attending school in the United States are made to prosecute this object.

The speaker said that a very able article on the subject would appear in the October number of the *Journal of Education*, selected from among the papers presented at a Convention of Teachers held in the State of Ohio, and to this he would invite the particular attention of those present. Some who had not reflected on this subject, might feel disposed to refer to the already numerous list of branches on the school list; but it was a fact that in many schools, an excessive amount of time was assigned for some branches which might be dispensed with or shortened, and the time occupied to better advantage probably if given to drawing.

Mr. Rowell gave the Convention the benefit of his experience in this study which he said was exceedingly simple and quite easily mastered. The result had been quite satisfactory, taking into consideration the character of the drawing it was designed to teach, which had been made more interesting by the fact that prizes were given to the children. He was glad to say one of the most successful teachers of this department in Montreal was a lady. The drawing of line figures had also been applied to a system of dictation, by which the pupil could readily master the elementary principles required in teaching it. Mr. Rowell cited some instances where the teaching of this system of drawing had met with remarkable success.

Mr. F. W. Hicks said one of the best recommendations of the system was that the faculty of originality or conception was cultivated. Some of the designs illustrated at the Centennial by the children of the Boston schools were very beautiful and specially adapted to wall papers and carpets. The Protestant School Commissioners had engaged the services of Mr. Harrington Bird, who had studied at South Kensington, and who would no doubt be happy to give any information on the subject.

Principal McVicar, Potsdam, N. Y., knew of no way of teaching this subject except by the aid of the blackboard. It was no use attempting to talk drawing into children. He knew of one teacher who had attempted it, but it was a lamentable failure. It would not be found very difficult to get the children into it. He questioned from his American experience whether there would be one child in ten thousand who could draw a design from which some pecuniary benefit could be realized. He spoke of dollars and cents. But there was a higher object in view. It was the teaching the children to appreciate the beauties of form—to convert the ear language into eye language—to be able, in short, to thoroughly understand the subject, and the pupil able to put it upon paper to his own as well as his teacher's satisfaction.

Dr. Howe thought that the last speaker's remarks about the pecuniary value to be placed upon the teaching of freehand drawing would apply equally to other studies taught in schools. He did not think that argument would hold water. There was a higher object

to be gained. He believed the pupils should be allowed the free use of the blackboard, for it was only in that way that perhaps originality and aptitude could be discovered.

The President, in closing the discussion, did not see why it should not be as easy to teach drawing as to teach writing, which he considered to be only another form of it. He took a great interest in the study himself, and while distinguishing the great difference between an artist and a mechanical draughtsman, he thought that the mechanical value of freehand drawing should not be lost sight of.

The discussion of the subject then closed.

Teaching Phonography in Schools :—Dr. Miles stated that he had been entrusted with a short paper on this subject, prepared by Mr. Taylor, Phonographer of Quebec, who was unable to come to the meeting.

The reading of the paper was postponed to Friday forenoon.

Principal McVicar, of Potsdam Normal School, New-York, gave an interesting lecture, which occupied an hour in delivery, and was followed by some discussion, "*On the teaching of Mathematical Geography and elementary Astronomy.*"

The lecture was illustrated by an apparatus of his own invention.

At the close of the lecture, the Convention adjourned until 7:30.

Evening session, Oct. 2.

The principal topic of interest in the evening's proceedings was the *President's annual address*, which we here give in full on account of the importance of the topics noticed and the very happy manner in which they are treated.

Mr. Heneker said :—Having been named to the high and honorable position of President of this Association, I have great pleasure in accepting the office, although I cannot lay claim to any special fitness for the fulfilment of the duties incumbent upon your President. I promise you to do my best, and I respectfully ask your kind indulgence and your assistance also in my endeavors to make this meeting pass off successfully. My first duty is one which affords me very great pleasure, that is to welcome the Association to this city, and to extend to every member of it the right hand of fellowship. In this I am certain that I fulfil the desire of every Sherbrooke citizen. I can assure you, ladies and gentlemen, that the work you are engaged in is thoroughly appreciated in this city, and that the vocation of a teacher is held in the highest esteem, not only as an honorable profession, but as one of the mainstays on which the future of society depends. It is true that the schoolmaster, like the clergyman, must look for his reward, not so much in the pecuniary recompense awarded to him, as in the intrinsic dignity of his office, and in the sense of the amount of good achieved by him in this daily work. The teacher in Canada, even of the highest grade in our universities, is not paid in proportion to his responsibilities or the duties he is called upon to fulfil, and it is a lamentable fact that high education seldom brings with it pecuniary rewards. The rule of life is to pour wealth into the hands of those who minister to our physical wants rather than on those who have the charge of our souls or the cultivation of the mind. The clergy are, indeed, those most indifferently provided for, and it is an axiom with some that when the clergy can be employed for teaching purposes, it is better to use them, not because their holy calling makes them more fit to instruct, but because they can be generally hired at a cheaper rate. I hope none of my hearers will think for one moment that I share this view of the case. I merely mention it as an absolute fact, which shows how much we have yet to learn before we can claim to have a due appreciation of the value of such services. I am glad to notice that in the mother country the position of the schoolmaster has within a comparatively short period, greatly advanced, and that, in some cases, his services (of such moment to the best interest of the State,) are beginning to bring a more adequate reward, so that those filling such responsible positions may share in the comforts and enjoyments due to that higher civilization of modern times, which they themselves have been so instrumental in developing. I do not propose on this present occasion to detain you by any lengthened remarks. You have important work to do, and it would be almost presumptuous in me to suppose that you have come together to draw inspiration from, or even to listen, for any length of time to any crude remarks which may fall from my lips. I do not pretend to any practical experience in the work of education. My interest in the cause is, I am bold to say, of intense strength, for I look upon it as the great lever, when associated with religion, for the regeneration of our race, but to lead teachers in the discussion of matters pertaining to their profession requires more technical knowledge than I can lay claim to. Yet I have a few words to say which I hope will be received, at all events patiently. The topic of education, although so constantly the theme of conversation, of public discussion, and at times even of eloquence, cannot become hackneyed, owing to its deep interest to all the human family. Almost each individual man has his own private opinion on the subject, arising from the peculi-

arities of his nature and the special circumstances of his position in life; and yet the principle which underlies the whole will be found wrapped up in the word itself, in its meaning of "drawing out." Unless the qualities of the mind—the reasoning powers especially—be drawn out and cultivated, man is but a mere animal, the appetites having the sway. Again, let instruction of the best kind be poured into the mind, whether classics, mathematics, modern languages or scientific names or theories, the result, if the mind have not the power to assimilate and use this knowledge, is a mere dictionary or encyclopædia, and not a thinking, reasoning man. "A thinking, reasoning man!" How, indeed, is such a result to be obtained? How much thought, how much discussion, how many theories have been propounded so as to establish a system which will solve this problem? Some there are who strongly urge the old path of the classics and mathematics as the only safe means to such an end. The fact that Latin and Greek are dead languages, and are taught and learned on purely scientific principles—are urged as reasons for their selection, and this quite apart from their philological value in the knowledge obtained through them of the words and construction of our modern languages. It is not so much that the acquirement of Latin and Greek is in itself deemed important as that the reasoning powers and the memory undergo a valuable course of training—more valuable, it is maintained, than through any other known method. The study of the classics improves, also, the style of our English language, there being few if any purely English scholars comparable to those whose early training has been in classic models. I would also remind you of the vast importance of the study of the ancient languages in the elucidation of ancient history, and also of the effects of the study of Greek on the mind of the 15th and 16th centuries. We have the difficulties of ancient Roman history cleared up I may almost say by the philological treatment of Modernism, and how vast was the change produced in our universities and public schools by the Greek learning of Erasmus, Dean, Collet and others. The slow methodical method of Geometry against the certainty of the science, the impossibility of error in the working of its problems, all tend to render the mind of the pupil exact, and to bring to the elucidation of the problems of life a patient deliberate action, admitting nothing without proof, which is of incalculable service in preventing undue haste in the formation of opinions, or in drawing conclusions from given premises. Others again argue in favor of modern languages as being more useful in real life, and at the same time of sufficient exactness to demand equal thought on the part of the student. I have heard this expressed strongly as regards the German language, the study of which is compared by its most enthusiastic admirers to that of Greek, and as producing results equally beneficial. Others again argue for scientific study, and although they cannot claim for their theories that any branch of science is absolutely exact, and not liable to change through new discoveries constantly made, yet they hold that the quality of observation is more thoroughly engendered by scientific pursuits than by the study of the languages and mathematics. I am not desirous here of giving my views as to the merits or demerits of these different theories, but this much may be said, viz, that the world hitherto has for some centuries followed the classical and mathematical methods, with what results the great men of the Elizabethan age and of subsequent times, including our own marvellous nineteenth century, prove. No doubt here and there some great master minds have without scholastic training arisen up and dazzled the world by their brilliancy, but such examples are rather to be classed as meteors than as a part of the regular sidereal system, and in most cases the conceptions of such meteoric minds are rendered useful and applicable to the ordinary events of life by minds educated in the old-fashioned way. I speak in the broad English sense, not confining myself to Canada. Most of our poets, our historians, our writers of fiction, and in an especial degree our politicians have been trained in the old way, even if we exclude men of special training of the learned professions. Scientific investigation does doubtless quicken the powers of observation and induces habits of systematic order and arrangement, but it does not necessarily ripen the judgment, and the power to judge rightly is the mind's highest quality. That calmness of mind which views all things on their merits, which separates the evil from the good, and gives to all things their due place in the scales is a Godlike quality, and is quite distinct from the amount of knowledge which a man may possess on any given number of subjects. One thing must also be clear to all thinking minds, viz, that men in their nature, physically and mentally, are infinitely diverse and require different nutriment, and often the same food differently applied to produce a given result. "What is one man's meat is at times another man's poison," is a true aphorism expressive of the varieties of our nature. We have all read and know of men of such distinct and special talents, as they are called who, possessed of wonderful knowledge in some particulars, are lacking in others to an almost absurd extent. It is a lesson which every teacher should try and master, that even in the application of general rules each pupil under his

care requires individual study and in some respects special training. He succeeds best who knows how to bring this to bear on those placed under his charge. A system of education to be complete should provide for the varieties to be found in human nature, but in practice general results only can be hoped for; and happily the mass can be thus dealt with, if some individuals should at times suffer. In some countries, Germany especially, the State takes the matter of education into its own hand; and from the primary school to the university, everything is controlled by the State. In France it is almost the same thing, excepting that compulsory education is not the rule but the great Lyceums—the public schools of France following the primary schools—afford education to the great mass of the people at a moderate rate. The Government control is so rigid, that the very speeches delivered by the presiding authorities at a public distribution of prizes must be submitted in advance to the proper Governmental office. In England State aid is provided for primary education, and the Government grants require that certain results should be forthcoming. I hold that in all such cases compulsory education must follow. If the State takes upon itself to say that public education is so essential to the general welfare that property must be taxed to provide for the education of the people, then the rights of the individual merge in the State and compulsion should be brought to bear to enforce the attendance of the children, otherwise the action of the State in one-sided by obliging men to pay for State advantages which the State neglects to enforce. It is constantly maintained that Englishmen have a birth right privilege of family Government free from State dictation, but it must be self-evident that this must give way when the State declares that the general welfare demands the education of each of its members. In England, however, there is, apart from or rather beside this State aid to education, a large freedom in the general education of the people. Public and private schools abound in every direction; those of a public character based on endowments created by large-minded men of present or bygone times. A parent has only to watch carefully the bent of his child's mind, and he will find no difficulty in being able to place him where his natural bias will have free scope for its development. The great universities recognise the same principle in offering rewards and the privilege of graduation to men of widely different mental pursuits. We in Canada—and speaking generally, of the Province of Quebec—also contribute State aid, not to primary schools only, but to the whole educational system of the country, requiring as regards the primary schools, that the contributions of the people shall be commensurate with their wants, and limiting the aid granted to the fulfilment of the conditions laid down. We have, however, one thing wanting in this enforcement of the compulsory principle, and we try to achieve the result of universal education by the collection of school fees from families whether using the common schools or not. The principle, as we all know, does not work. School fees are sometimes not collected at all, and large numbers of parents systematically neglect the sending of their children to school. If we are to keep pace with other nations; if we are to be true to ourselves, a change must be made—and that soon—so that the coming generation may be able to hold its own in the great race of the world. But to have good schools we require good teachers, and a good teacher, as you ladies and gentlemen very well know, is a *"rara avis,"* even in these days of special training. Your discussions in convention—your mutual record of experiences, of difficulties, trials, disappointments, hopes and successes—are all great helps to increasing the efficiency of the teaching body, and thereby of its influencing society. You may be assured of the hearty sympathy of all right thinking persons, who know how to appreciate your patience, your good temper, your cheerfulness and, above all, your absolute justice and right standard of principle in dealing with the wonderful little world around you. It has been said over and over again that the art of the teacher is shown, not with the good and quick student, but with the dull, the impatient, the idle and, aye, even with the vicious child. Encouragement and repression, the inculcation of habits of perseverance, and the gentle restraining of the too eager for health's sake, the implanting a spirit of ambition in the dull mind, and the checking the excess of the same quality in those of opposite tendency; the raising the tone of those of untruthful nature, and the cultivation and strengthening of the moral character. All these and the other incidental duties of the teacher's office make the pursuit one of very great mental and even of physical toil, and yet at the same time of surpassing interest. I need not, I am sure, dwell on the great necessity of example, as well as precept, in your lives. I have known eminent men split on this rock. The life of a teacher is a more important education than any amount of learning, whether taught from books or by word of mouth; and the true teacher will never lose sight of the fact that his duty is not limited to the teaching of language in figures, but extends to the higher qualities of the mind and the soul, in which latter points example is a better guide to order and truthfulness than any book doctrine, however exalted the name of the author. I hope to find the discussions on the various subjects that will be brought before you conducted with

decorum and courtesy. We may reasonably expect great difference of opinion, but these may be held with the most perfect sincerity, and yet with a display of gentleness and courtesy towards those who hold opposite views. I believe your conventions have always been remarkable for the good taste to say the least, exhibited in your discussions, but we all know that it is often hard, when men feel strongly, always to keep within bounds when urging their views. I would recommend to you that you should in your profession be governed by the same principles which have in general guided the professions of the Clergy and the Bar. With these it is enough to be a clergyman or a barrister to engage the sympathies of professional brethren. Avoid inter-professional jealousies; be ready to aid and sympathize with one another in all your work. You will then raise a healthy tone within your body, and increase the respect felt for you outside.

I would also call your attention to a means not much used hitherto, but which might be used to produce practical discussion on the difficulties of your office. The press is the greatest of modern levers for acting on society. Use the press more and more when you have information to gain, doubts to solve, experience or advice to give, successful results to chronicle. You have already a special newspaper published by the Department of Public Instruction, through which all this may be done. By your exertions make this paper the echo of your minds, and in all literary discussion avoid the acrimony which too often accompanies professional correspondence. There is a great danger in being able to write or speak sarcastically. Sarcasm, as I need not inform you is a weapon of such keenness that it requires to be used with the greatest care. The razor, unless skillfully used for its legitimate purposes, will often inflict a gash on him who uses it. Your motto should be "Faith, Hope and Charity." Faith in the results of a conscientious discharge of your duty. Hope that you may be found equal to the work you have undertaken, and that your Faith may not be misplaced. Charity, or the spirit of love towards your pupils and brethren, without which no work can be properly or successfully undertaken.

At the close of the President's Address several speakers expressed their gratification at what they had heard, and their conviction that the information which Mr. Heneker had so usefully given and the counsels uttered by him, could not fail to be highly appreciated, both by those present and by the larger number outside who might afterwards peruse his remarks in print.

Professor McGregor read a most interesting paper about the

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The paper was an elaborate testimony of the usefulness and eminent superiority of Normal School over academies. He preferred the former for their special fitness in the training of teachers and the great advantages derived by them. Normal School training in the experience of the Board of Protestant School Commissioners had been a great success. He cited cases of the quality of the educational abilities possessed by the teacher who had left Normal schools. If proof were wanting he could say that school trustees were willing to pay from \$100 to \$150 a year more to teachers who had a Normal School diploma. Out of the 101 teachers in Montreal 90 had diplomas from this schools.

Mr. Andrews, the well known elocutionist, being called on by the President, gave a reading, by which all present were very much delighted. The subject of it was "*A night with the baby.*"

Mr. Colby, M. P., Stanstead, P. Q., next gave his experience of his school teaching days, and congratulated the President upon his admirable address.

Principal MacVicar (Potsdam, N.Y.) next referred to Mr. McGregor's able paper, with the views of which he sympathized to a large extent. He held the work of a school teacher to be a missionary work of the highest importance, and in earnest language appealed to them to put their whole souls into their vocation.

After another most amusing reading by Mr. Andrews, in verse, the meeting adjourned until to-morrow (Friday.)

Morning Session, Oct 12th.

After the usual routine, the Rev. T. W. Fyles was called upon by the President to read his paper on "*The teaching of Natural History.*" We hope to procure a copy of Mr. Fyles' very interesting and judicious exposition of the value of natural history as a subject for instruction in schools, and of the best modes of teaching it, in order to present it in full to our readers in a future number of the Journal of Education. He selected his illustrations chiefly from collections of Canadian insects—specimens preserved by himself and sent round for inspection by the audience—beautifully arranged according to genera and species.

In the discussion which ensued, Dr. Baker Edwards spoke in high terms of Mr. Fyles' paper, and of Natural History generally as a branch of school instruction.

M. Taylor's paper on Phonography was then called for, and was read by Dr. Miles. It was as follows:

We shall confine ourselves at this time almost exclusively to an examination of some of the advantages resulting from the study and practice of this art.

The first and perhaps the most important of these advantages is, that by its means we are enabled to follow the most rapid speaker in those sudden out-bursts of genuine eloquence, when he is thoroughly warmed by his subject; when some most important truths are rapidly uttered and which without the aid of this inestimable art could not be seized and transmitted to posterity. How many brilliant flights of oratory of our most highly gifted men would have been lost had it not been for shorthand? Phonography also enables the student to follow his teacher through the intricacies of an elaborate lecture on Law; Chemistry Acoustics Electricity, &c., furnishing him with material for future study, and so to distance his competitors. In after life how many are the advantages that literary men, judges, clergymen, doctors and others can enjoy who are acquainted with shorthand. Its services are not confined to the liberal professions. In this age of telegraphs and steam, Railway and Bank Directors, heads of large commercial houses, whose business requires so much correspondence can scarcely dispense with its aid; in fact no man that earns his living by the use of the pen can afford to be left so far behind as the exclusive use of longhand must necessarily entail.

The peculiar characteristic of Phonography is its remarkable legibility, and it is to this it owes its popularity in these late years. No system of stenography in use before the invention of Phonography could be relied on because of its ambiguity; while that of Mr. Isaac Pitman is so legible that many compositors now employed in printing offices, can set up longhand print from short hand notes; this is done in the offices of *The New York Tribune* and other offices in that city, as well as in the offices of *The Manchester Guardian*, *The Bath Journal*, *The London Times* and several other establishments in the United Kingdom: In relation to this I may perhaps be allowed to quote from some who have seen this done:—"To literary men of all classes we recommend phonography as the very best thing they have been so long in want of, and as an art which will amply repay the cost of its acquisition. Being so legible, the compositor who has received some little instruction in it can readily set up types from well written phonographic copy." (*Liverpool Mercury*.)

"The manuscript of these pages was entirely composed in Phonetic Shorthand, and set up by the compositors from the short hand copy." *Alex John Ellis, B. A.*

Phonography is based upon a correct and practical analysis of spoken language, and represents words as they are really pronounced; the consequence of this basis is, that the study and practice of Phonography is one of the greatest aids to pronunciation; and nothing tends more to a correct style in composition.

Phonography—the perfection of shorthand writing, is the very best exercise that can be imagined to show the dependence of words upon one another, and thus insensibly initiates the student into the principles of Grammar and Logic. It is so simple that it may be learned in a very short time. The Alphabet of the system and the ability to read it can be acquired in three or four hours' study. The ability to write phonography at the rate of 20 words per minute—the rate at which longhand is generally written—can be acquired by anyone in one month. By continued practice for six months the student will be able to report a slow speaker at the rate of about 90 or 100 words per minute. Twelve months is amply sufficient to enable him to write 120 words per minute, the rate at which most speakers utter their sentences. Two years of constant practice will bring the practitioner to a rate of 180 to 225 words, which speed has never been obtained in any other style.

I conclude now, gentlemen, by expressing the hope, that, if it be true that Phonography is of so general a use, is so easily acquired; so useful in opening the mind and maturing the judgement, no one here will refuse to lend his aid to its introduction into schools. Let each one say "I for one will learn it, and induce all the apt pupils in my school to employ the leisure hours of the winter in learning it."

I might add that all those who are in the habit of teaching can have no difficulty in imparting instruction if they keep themselves about half a dozen pages ahead of their pupils. I keep a supply of instruction books which I shall be happy to see in the hands of every one of you, and will give lessons to individual teachers through the post at the same rates as to classes; and, as a member of the Phonetic society, will correct exercises gratuitously, my principal ambition being to see as many teachers engaged in the good work as possible.

The subject was thrown open to discussion, and at the request of the meeting,

Mr. F. Hamilton, of the *Gazette*, made a few remarks in reference to the subject. Unfortunately, he said, he could not speak from a personal knowledge of the art, because he did not write one character of short-hand (laughter). There could only be one opinion as to its usefulness and importance to the newspaper profession, but

whether short-hand, as taught in the public schools, would tend to permanently benefit a pupil who might follow it for a livelihood was another question. He believed it required a close practice of three years before a person could be considered a good short-hand writer, and he had yet to see one who had mastered it in two years, as implied by Mr. Taylor.

Dr. Howe (Montreal) said he agreed with Mr. Hamilton's remarks. It had been made compulsory to teach shorthand in the High School, Montreal, and he regretted to say that the results were meagre and the subject as a topic for tuition had been dropped.

Dr. Baker Edwards said it did not follow necessarily because shorthand was taught in schools that every boy was going into the newspaper business. But if shorthand was so important, as he supposed it was, he would like to see it take the place of ordinary handwriting. It would be a manifest advantage if this were done.

Professor McGregor having made some remarks relative to "abbreviated longhand," was followed by

The President, who said he was of the same opinion as the first speaker, did not expect that a knowledge of shorthand, which required close application of the eye and hand, would improve the style of the reporter. The mechanical nature of the work prevented this.

After the reading of the paper, occupying the greater part of 4 pages of manuscript, on foolscap, a paper containing the same in full phonographic characters in less than one page was handed round for inspection.

Afternoon Session, Oct. 12.

Business was resumed at 2 o'clock.

Chemistry in schools.—Dr. Baker Edwards exhibited the sets of chemical apparatus introduced into the Normal Schools of Ontario and Quebec, with some explanations as to the course of instruction. He called the attention of the Convention to the set of chemical apparatus and cabinets of natural history published by the Canadian School Apparatus Co., Toronto, to be had at Dawson Bros., Montreal, or from the Department of Education at Quebec. As a Text Book he recommended Wilson's "Inorganic Chemistry." Madan's edition is the most useful and complete. The teacher should be careful not to let the instruction drop into an amusing pyrotechnic exhibition. In order that the teacher may be trained to the practical teaching of chemistry in Model Schools, the committee of the McGill Normal School have introduced practical chemistry into the curriculum of the academy class, and these sets of box laboratories, and the teacher's set, are adopted for the practical manipulation of the students, under the eye and instruction of the professor, and will, doubtless, shortly be introduced to classes in the Model Schools.

His Lordship the Bishop of Quebec said there was no doubt that the teaching of science in schools would supply a great desideratum. In getting up subjects in the class, a precision was acquired which no doubt was important. But the use of the inductive faculty he believed to be of still higher importance. The most of them had to get this by themselves, but if it was introduced in schools he thought its benefit would become apparent very soon. The number of subjects taught in schools to-day tended toward superficiality in the mind of the pupil. Habits of mind formed in the acquirement of subjects he conceived to be more desirable than the acquirement itself. The mode of teaching chemistry, as referred to by Dr. Baker Edwards, he thought was eminently adapted to schools. He deprecated the teaching of "ologies," but if the pupils could be taught to do a little for themselves, as the science of chemistry was able to effect, it would serve a good purpose and, which could not fail to have the best influence on all concerned.

The subject then dropped.

Next place of meeting.—Mr. F. W. Hicks, moved, seconded by Mr. McLaughlin—that Bedford be the next place of meeting of this Association. Carried.

The election of officers.—The following gentlemen were elected officers for the current year:—

President, Hobart Butler, Esq.

Vice-Presidents—The Presidents of the Local Associations, viz.:—Bedford Association, Hobart Butler, Esq.; Montreal Association, —; St. Francis Association, H. Hubbard, Esq.

Secretary—Frank W. Hicks, M. A., (reelected.)

Treasurer—Professor McGregor, M. A., (reelected.)

Central Executive Committee—1st. The foregoing officers. 2nd. The Council of the Teachers' Association in connection with the McGill Normal School, viz.:—Vice-Presidents, Principal Hicks, Mrs. Scott, S. P. Rowell, Esq., N. Duval, M. A.

Council—Misses Clarke and Carmichael; Messrs. Humphrey, Arthey, J. McKercher, Z. Lefebvre, A. Pierson and Frank W. Hicks.

Reports of committees.—The report of the Committee appointed at the annual convention of the Protestant Teachers' Association of the Province of Quebec with a view to confer with their Roman Catholic fellow-teachers throughout the Province, so as to suggest a

scheme of superrannuation similar to that which prevails in the Province of Ontario, was read by Dr. Howe, and on motion adopted.

School gradation.—Professor Robins, Montreal, was next called upon to speak upon the system of gradation in the schools in Montreal, by which about 4,000 children are led up from the "A B C" class to the first year's course in the University by about 120 teachers. Commencing at the first primary class he carried the teacher's attention, stage by stage, until the senior class was reached, and from there to the High School. Each class represented one year's work. He spoke of the necessity of forming an introductory primary grade, below the primary class. He also touched upon the work done in the High School for boys and in the High Schools for girls, until both had gained their degree of Associate in Arts. In speaking of the advantage to be gained by the system of grading schools, he dwelt specially upon the importance of the excellent division of labor, so that children of like ages and like capabilities were found in the same class; he referred to the moral influence of the teachers, and the great saving in labor and time by this system. He believed that the pupils were enabled to emulate each other. But apart from the value to the pupils, graded schools were of the first benefit to the community. The speaker contended that graded schools were far cheaper than others. In Boston the cost of instruction for each pupil was \$40 per year; in the Montreal High School for girls it cost about ninety cents, and even less for boys, while in the general schools the cost was about \$11 per pupil. He was glad to hear that Sherbrooke contemplated grading its schools, and believed it was the best thing it could do.

The President asked whether any provision was made in Montreal for infant schools.

Mr. Robins said no, although there was something approaching it in the Catholic schools. He thought the law provided wisely in saying that children should be kept with their parents until five years of age. He did not think it desirable that children should be sent to school at an earlier age. There were about 40 pupils to one teacher in the graded system. Indeed he doubted very much if the Commissioners could not be taken to task for mal-administration of funds if they formed schools for children under that age (5 years). He would like to have Dr. Miles' opinion on the subject.

Dr. Miles said they could not apply money for that purpose under the present aspect of the law, which provided that monthly fees, over and above the ordinary rates levied, should, subject to certain exemptions, be payable for every child in a School Municipality between the ages of 7 and 14 years; although the right to attend a district school on payment of the established monthly fees was extended to children of 5 to 16. The speaker stated that he did not know of any instance of a claim being set up for the attendance of a child under 5 years; although such claim had been made in behalf of scholars over 16. This, occasionally, was resisted by teachers and school boards, but in most cases of the kind which had been referred to the Department of Public Instruction, it had been recommended to the parties concerned not to stand upon the strict letter of the law, provided the scholars thus seeking admission, or to continue attendance, after attaining the maximum school age, were well conducted, submissive to the teacher and the regulations, and that they should not be considered entitled to an extra or undue share of the teacher's time and attention. It was manifest that cases might arise when it was convenient, if not absolutely necessary, to extend facilities for obtaining elementary instruction in the common schools to young people over 14 and even 16 years of age, and the Department had always favoured such practice when no good reason for exclusion could be advanced. At the same time the law, at present stood as he had represented.

A Member asked for information upon the style in the construction of school buildings.

Professor Robins said the unit of arrangement of the architecture of the schools in Montreal was a suite of two rooms; one fitted with desks for about 54 children; a gallery behind, communicates with the school room, and will accommodate about a similar number. The gallery has been found useful for many purposes, more particularly for recitation.

He described the arrangement of a plan in the six radiating rooms of the Girls' High School, pointing out the special advantages in each.

Messrs. Master and Inspector Hubbard asked questions concerning the conduct of recitations in Arithmetic, Geography, &c., in the Montreal graded schools to which Professor Robins returned suitable replies.

The President invited further discussion upon the subject seeing that there were some of the Sherbrooke School Commissioners present.

School Commissioner Foss expressed himself as having been much edified by hearing Mr. Robins' able statements in relation to graded schools, and said he would in all probability have occasion to consult him on the subject.

It was then moved and seconded: That a vote of thanks be, and is hereby given, to Inspector Robins for his kindness and trouble in

having come from Montreal to this Convention, and for having given it the benefit of his experience and ability on the subject of graded schools. Carried unanimously.

Inspection of the Superior Schools.—Mr. Inspector Hubbard rose and drew attention to the inconvenient time appointed by the Council of Public Instruction (in April and May) for inspecting the Superior Schools, and begged to move, seconded by Mr. Inspector McLaughlin:—

That a memorial be presented to the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, suggesting that the special inspection of academies should be made in the months of February and March instead of April and May, as announced.

Dr. Miles said that such inspections of the Academies and Model Schools receiving aid from the funds for promoting superior education were considered necessary as being supplementary to the means of arriving at a sufficient knowledge of the condition of the schools afforded by the usual annual reports prescribed by law. It did not seem to be a matter of extreme importance whether May and June or any other period should be named for the making of these inspections:—besides, since other points than those indicated in the usual annual reports were to be investigated and reported on—such as the state of the school property and premises, school appliances and internal arrangements, the qualifications of the teacher and success of the scholars. The regular inspectors were "*Inspectors of Common Schools*," not specially charged with inspecting and reporting upon the academies and common schools, and hence the natural desire of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction to obtain special information and reports of the academies and model schools with a view to their own better guidance in the recommendations which they might make respecting the distribution of the Superior Education money.

Mr. Brown, speaking for the schools in the townships, said those in the rural districts filled up more largely in the month of October. If they were desirous of getting at the actual work done by the teacher, it should be between the months of April and October. He also called attention to the irregular manner in which the total attendance was arrived at during the three school terms, as it was usual in some instances to include the same pupils twice over.

The President ruled this portion of the subject out of order, and confined the Convention to the motion under discussion.

Mr. Masten (Coaticook) thought it would be better to have the inspection at the time recommended.

Rev. A. L. Holmes, Principal of Stanstead College, was of opinion that examinations should be as late in the year as possible, so as to get at a fair test of the pupil's capacity. He did not think it out of place to say that the actual number of pupils in the school when the Inspector was present was not so fair a test as the average of the year. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. Law once also spoke to the motion.

Rev. Mr. Lindsay questioned whether the inspectors would be able to visit the schools at the time mentioned.

Rev. A. Duff did not see the utility of examiners at all. Were not the inspectors sufficiently able to discharge the duty? The Province was crying out about the want of money, and here was an opportunity for cutting down expenses.

The President said that the special inspections made had worked out good results. The object was to elevate the status of the academies, not to lower it; the gentlemen appointed were men of culture and did their work well.

Inspector Hubbard did not see how they were going to report upon the condition of academies if they did not visit them. (Hear, hear.)

The President said Government aid had not at first been given to Academies so much because of their usefulness or for the amount of work done, or on the basis of the number of scholars, as because of the influence which may have been promised by those members of the Legislature who had interest.

The motion was then put and carried.

The purchase of Books.—The Convention was next occupied in considering the best way for teachers to avail themselves of the recent arrangements for purchase of books at the Provincial Depository.

Dr. Miles stated that it was the intention of the Department to give every facility in this respect, but the Department did not intend to enter into competition with stationer's stores.

The intention of the law on this subject was to obviate the necessity for any child at a public school to be unprovided with the books and articles indispensably requisite for his or her use in class, and, to that end, to secure the supply of such necessities at the lowest possible cost. Regulations, sanctioned by the Lieut. Governor in council had been adopted and published, to which school boards and others were expected to conform in making their requisitions from the Superintendent, whose sole aim it was to see the law carried out in the interest of the great mass of the people of the Province—the rate payers, parents, guardians, teachers, scholars. It was thought

that the law would be found to operate beneficially when all the necessary arrangements of detail should be completed, which could not be all at once, as the scheme was a large one, requiring time for its maturing. It was now in partial, though pretty extensive operation, as much could be expected in the first year, and it was hoped that next year it would be fully established. One early effect anticipated was to secure, not only that every child attending school should be provided with what was absolutely necessary in the way of text books, &c., at the lowest possible rates of expense, but the accomplishment of the earnest desire of the Committees of the Council of Public Instruction, and of the Department, to secure uniformity for use in schools of only such works as have been, or may be in future, sanctioned and approved according to law. Text books for readers and Geography were especially adverted to. Surely some of those in use, not sanctioned by the Council, were objectionable, seeing that, in the examples of merit virtue and other high qualities which they held up for imitation by the youth of Canada, as well as in other respects, love and the knowledge of their own country, and the sentiment of patriotism generally amongst ourselves, were inculcated by the unnecessary reference to foreign sources, excluding those belonging to the past and present of our own people.

Journal of Education.—As this publication had been more than once adverted to, the speaker said he would offer a few additional remarks before he sat down. All present knew that it was a monthly journal in which articles on matters pertaining to Education, the arts, and sciences, carefully selected from the best sources, were given, and to which our own teachers were expressly invited to contribute. On the principle, that, by sending in concise statements of their own experience and views on educational topics of a practical nature they would benefit not only their fellow teachers but themselves also, if there be any truth in the old adage "when one wishes to perfect oneself in any important matter, one must read and think about it, talk about it and write about it." Teachers present were exhorted to contribute articles to the Journal.

The speaker went on to say that arrangements had been made by the Superintendent to ensure every public school teacher having access to the Journal free of charge. To this end the Secretary Treasurer of every school municipality, besides the copy or copies supplied for the use of the members of the Board, was now entitled to receive a copy for each school under its control. He had only to state the number of the schools to have a like number of copies dispatched from the Department to his address. Such copies were to be preserved in each school for present or future reference. Of course, teachers desiring to have copies for their own private use, could do so by continuing their subscriptions, at half price as heretofore.

The speaker concluded by stating that he was authorized to make it known at this meeting that the arrangement for supplying free copies of the Journal was not limited to the Common Schools. It applied also to the Institutions on the Superior Education list—the Colleges, Academies and Model Schools, in official communication with the Department by means of their periodicals reports. Should any such not be in receipt of the Journal, as issued, its manager or Secretary Treasurer should apply for it.

The convention then adjourned.

Evening Session, Friday, Oct. 12th.

Mr. F. W. Hicks, M. A., after the convention had been called to order, read a most thoughtful paper upon "the Cultivation of Truth, Courage and such like qualities." The ground work of the paper may be defined as an argument to prove that in the qualities of truthfulness and courage the scholars of to-day are not behind those in the English public schools, the qualities in whom have furnished frequent opportunity to the novelist for enlargement. It was upon one of such characters in Canon Kingsley's charming book entitled "Westward, Ho!" that Mr. Hick's paper was founded.

His Lordship the Bishop of Quebec, who is himself an old schoolmaster, said he entirely agreed with the author of the paper that the sons of England were not one whit behind their ancestors in moral courage and truthfulness. This courage was elevated and strengthened by healthy, vigorous exercise. He believed moral courage was cultivated by all associations of English boys in the play-ground and in their associations with their masters. Truth and courage should be cultivated indirectly by the teacher. Truth was often the highest form of courage, and if the master was worthy of his place the principle of truthfulness would not only be recognized but revered in the school. This could only be done by contact of the master with the boy. If he taught truthfulness to the pupil, he must himself be the embodiment of truthfulness, in every word, look and action. He knew from his own experience that the bulk of the boys in any school could be educated in truthfulness. He had only to look the boys full in the face to get a truthful answer. He gave illustrations of the justice of his remarks, gathered from the experience of

former years. Boys, he added, were quick to perceive an act of injustice, and injustice would cut with a keen edge into the love of truth. He counselled teachers to speak to boys as if they were perfectly confident that the boys were telling the truth, and when they punished to punish so as to carry the school with them in the convictions that the punishment was merited. It was one of the highest essential to have the public opinion of the school with the teacher at such times, and if he had these his influence would be permanent and beneficial. His Lordship's speech was loudly applauded for its eminently wise tone and judicious language.

Dr. Howe and Professor McGregor also spoke on the subject.

The President in concluding was glad to find so many encomiums passed upon the school system in Canada, which was in direct contrast with his experience in France, where in visiting and educational institution he found small panes of glass placed in the doors of the dormitories, which were visited in turn by an "Inspector" who exercised a system of *espionage* upon the students. The speaker expressed his indignation at such a state of things, and concluded by affirming that to the confidence which England had placed in her sons was due in no small degree their sense of honor and love of truth.

An amusing reading from Max Adeler's book entitled "Elbow Room" was given by Mr. Andrews, of Montreal, which caused much laughter.

Classical in education Canada—Rev. Philip Read, M. A., of Lennoxville, next read a paper upon Classical Education in Canada, its means and hindrances.

The paper, which we regret we cannot publish in full, was a vigorous exposition of the reasons why classical education had not progressed in a proportionate ratio with that in England. We can only find space for one assertion made by Mr. Read. Speaking of the standard of classical education in Canada he remarked: "When the work required from a man before he takes a good degree is hardly more, if, indeed, any more than would be required of a good sixth form boy, can we expect a good generation of apt schoolmasters with a sufficiently advanced knowledge, to grow up around us, ready to our hands? If we expect it we are certainly disappointed in our results. It cannot be."

There was no discussion on the subject.

Votes of thanks.—The following votes of thanks were passed unanimously:

To the President for his able and impartial conduct in the chair.
To the people of Sherbrooke for the courtesy and hospitality extended to the visitors.

To the Railroad Companies for the generous facilities afforded the members of the Convention for transportation.

To the proprietors of the *Montreal Gazette* in sending their representative to report the proceedings, it being the only journal present.

His Lordship the Bishop then pronounced the benediction and the Convention was declared closed.

Considering the large attendance of practical teachers, clergymen of all denominations, and of public men, noted for their endeavours to promote the cause of education, and the amount of useful work done, this 14th Annual Meeting of Provincial Protestant Teachers, deserves to be styled a successful one.

Besides those whose names occur in the foregoing report, we noticed among those present, Mr. E. T. Brooks, M. P., Sheriff Bowen, the Rev. A. C. Searth Chairman of the Lennoxville School Commissioners, the Revs. O. P. Reid and E. Parkin, Mr. C. Brooks, J. P., and numerous public school teachers, belonging to Montreal, Quebec, Sherbrooke, and parts of the Eastern Townships. While the District of Bedford and Missisquoi were represented by Messrs. School Inspector McLaughlin and Brown, Stanstead by the Rev. Mr. Holmes, Argenteuil by Mr. School Inspector Emberson, it is to be regretted that there were present so few of the large number of teachers belonging to the districts mentioned, and not a single one from that of Ottawa. The absence of a worthy and respected veteran in the cause of public education—Principal Hicks of the McGill Normal School—was universally regretted, this over-worked public servant having recently suffered from an attack of illness which induced him to refrain from making the journey to Sherbrooke.

We hope to publish in full, in a future number, the papers read by the Rev. Mr. Fyles, Mr. Secretary Hicks and the Rev. P. Read, Rector of the School of Bishop's College.

Lennoxville.

At a meeting of the students of Bishop's College held on Monday, 1st Oct., the following resolutions were unanimously adopted, viz.:—"That, since it was pleased Almighty God to take from amongst us our beloved Principal, we, the Students of Bishop's College, wish to place on record our sense of the great loss we have sustained. He was a most able, kind and patient teacher, an example of everything a Christian gentleman ought to be, and a sympathetic, personal friend to each of us; and we desire to convey to Mrs. Nicolls and family our sincere sympathy in their bereavement. That we, the students of Bishop's College, go into mourning for this term. That a copy of these resolutions be sent to Mrs. Nicolls."

OFFICIAL NOTICES.**Department of Public Instruction.****APPOINTMENTS.****SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS AND TRUSTEES.****SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.**

His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor has been pleased by order in council, on the 12th of June instant, (1877), and in virtue of the powers conferred upon him by 48th and 136th clauses of chapter 15 of the Consolidated Statutes of Lower Canada, to make the following appointments of school commissioners, to wit:

County of Bagot, Saint-Simon.—Mr. Pierre Lacroix, *vice* Mr. Joseph Dupuis, who has definitively left the municipality, and not been replaced by any election.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor has been pleased by order in council, dated the 12th of June instant, (1877), and in virtue of the powers conferred on him by the 104th clause of chapter 15 of the Consolidated Statutes of Lower Canada.

1. To divide into two sections the board of examiners established at Sherbrooke, for the purpose of conferring diplomas on candidates for primary school certificates, and to erect a distinct Catholic board, made up of the following members, viz: the Reverend Elie Dufresne, V. G., and the Rev. Pierre Girard, George Etienne Rioux, esquire, Azarie Archambault, esquire, the Revd. Frederick P. Dignan, Frederic Paré, esquire, and Edouard Panneton, esquire.

2. To appoint the Reverend Messrs. Chrysostôme Blanchard and Joseph Israel Courtemanche, members of the Catholic board, of Bedford, *vice* the Revd. Messrs. Joseph Jodoin and V. François Zéphirin Mondor, resigned.

3. To appoint François Régis Gosselin, esquire, a member of the Chicoutimi board of examiners, *vice* Mr. Meron Tremblay, resigned.

ERECTION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITY.

By order in council, dated the 8th of June instant 1877:

County of Missisquoi, Village of Dunham.—To separate the village of the municipality of Dunham, and erect it into a distinct School of Municipality, such as it is already erected for rural purposes, including the west half of lots numbers ten, eleven and twelve of the sixth range of the township of Dunham, and ten, eleven and twelve of the seventh range.

By order in council, dated the 27th of June last, 1877:

1. To erect into a school municipality under the name, of Saint Joseph d'Alma, the mission of the same name, in the County of Chicoutimi, with the following territory to wit: the seventh, eighth and ninth ranges of the township of Signay, and that part of the fourth, fifth and sixth ranges of the same township, lying between lot No. thirteen inclusively, and lot No. twenty five, also inclusively, the whole of the range Saguenay of township of Labarre; the north part of the fourth, fifth and sixth ranges of the said township, from No. seven inclusively and all the Island of Alma.

2. To annex the lands and properties of Louis Hubert and Pierre

Bonville, both cultivators, of Sainte Marie, County of Beauce, to the municipality of Sainte Marguerite, County of Dorchester.

3. To erect into a school municipality under the name of Saint Téléphore de Montjoy, in the county of Soulanges, the parish of the same name, in the same county, comprising the following territory, to wit: 1. The whole of the concession Saint André on both sides, comprising the *Gore du Seigneur* and the concession of Saint Patrick; 2. The whole of the concession Saint George, the concession Sainte Catherine on both sides, from No. one hundred and nineteen to No. three hundred twenty three inclusively now occupied by Jos. Garand and Xavier Hurleau; 3. The two concessions called *des Anges*; 4. All the west part of the concession Saint Antoine.

By order in council, dated the 28th of July last, 1877:

County of Charlevoix.—The locality known as the "Village de la Pointe au Pic," such as erected for municipal purposes by chapter 46 of the 40th Victoria.

County of Rimouski.—Township Duquesne, under the name of "Saint Valerien," with the same limits as those assigned to the said township.

By order in Council, dated the 14th of August instant, 1877:

To erect into a school municipality the new parish of Sainte Marie Magdeleine, partly in the county of Saint Hyacinthe and partly in the county of Rouville, such as civilly erected in the Lieutenant Governor's Proclamation, dated the fifteenth day of May last, 1877.

To change the name of the municipality of Rustico, in the county of Bonaventure, to that of Saint Alexis de Matapediac; and to assign to it the following limits, to wit: bounded on the west by lot number thirty seven of the second range from the River Ristigouche, lots number thirty four of the third and fourth ranges, continuing in a straight line to the limit of the township of Matapediac, on the north west by the limits of the said township, to the east by the same south first range, and on the north by the river Matapediac.

To comprise within the limits assigned to the school municipality of Notre Dame des Sept Douleurs, in the county of Temiscouata, by Proclamation of the nineteenth day of September last, 1876, those of the whole parish, such as civilly erected by Proclamation, dated the eighteenth day of November, one thousand eight hundred and seventy four.

County of Hochelaga, Delisle Village.—To substitute for the name of this municipality that of Sainte Cunegonde, which it bears for other religious and civil purposes.

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