TRAINING OF TEACHERS
IN
SCOTLAND AND QUEBEC

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS:

A COMPARISON BETWEEN

SCOTLAND AND THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

by

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PREFACE.

It must be understood that the comparison involved in this thesis is purely from an evolutionary standpoint. That is to say that we have on the one hand a system of training teachers which has become very highly developed over a period exceeding 100 years, and on the other the Quebec system which is some thirty years younger and in a much less advanced stste. A stranger coming into contact with the latter system for the first time naturally sees its incomplete development and is moved to enquire into the reasons for this state and to consider whether the development is likely to proceed along similar lines to the Scottish system.

With this in view, the comparisons involved in this work are not intended as comparisons of the relative merits of each system. Were this so, the comparisons would be unjust altogether, and if it is desired to institute such a comparison, the basis would have to be completely different, as follows:

QUEBEC	SCOTLAND
Elementary Diploma	No equivalent.
Intermediate do.	Non-graduate course for General Certificate over a three-year course.
High School Diploma	Graduate course (1 year) for General Certificate.
No equivalent	Course for Teacher's Special Certificate over one year (post-graduate).

The basis for the comparisons in this thesis is that of relative standing - the lowest recognition in Scotland with

the lowest in Quebec, the general body of teachers in the one with the general body in the other, and the highest with the highest.

The comparison which is made may be justified as being the equivalent of such an evolutionary comparison in the field of politics or economics. To take a concrete example, if we compare the Power Development in the Province of Quebec with that of Scotland, the same holds good. There can be no questions of the relative merits of the systems: it is purely a question of the stste of development, with the position quite the reverse of that in education.

Scotland has had every opportunity for development in education: other countries, such as her neighbour England, have been unable owing to circumstances to follow out similar raising of the general level in such a direction as teacher-training, and it is in such a matter that the comparison with Quebec is offered.

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CHAPTER 1.

The basis of the educational system in Scotland was what is known as the Parochial System. Under this system education was, as the name implies, primarily a local affair, and each parish was responsible for its own education or lack of it. The Act for Settling Schools, 9th October, 1696, required that in every parish, the heritors and minister should provide a schoolhouse and appoint a schoolmaster. There was however no definite professional qualification laid down by the Act, and the responsibility for the selection of suitable candidates rested largely on the minister and heritors of the parish. In many cases the parish schoolmaster was a man of good scholastic standing and attainments and was able to give his pupils such an equipment as to enable them to proceed direct from the parish school to the university. While this credit must be given to the system, that it suited admirably the needs of the country at the time, it is yet not without its critics. Dr. Alexander Morgan[1] states that "Scotland had a supply of parochial teachers unexcelled probably in scholarship and skill by those of any other country", but in opposition to this, it is pointed out by Dr. R.R.Rusk[2] that "as the heritors had to maintain the schools and to provide the greater portion of the funds to pay the teacher, they frequently preferred parsimony to probity and allowed the schools to lapse."

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1 R.R.Rusk - The Training of Teachers in Scotland (Edin., 1928) p.6.

2 Alexander Morgan - The Rise and Progress of Scottish Education, (Edin., 1927) p.212.

Further criticism is to be found in the Education Commission (Scotland) First Report, 1865,[1] and the general conclusion to be reached is that while the parochial system was to a considerable extent sufficient to provide for the needs of the times, it was, like everything else, by no means perfect, and its imperfections were revealed by the growth of large industrial centres where the system was difficult, and indeed impossible, to apply. The Act of 1696 had provided for one school in a parish and, as Rusk points out[2], "one parish school in a modern city, or even in a city parish a hundred years ago, was woefully inadequate."

To meet the increasing needs it was obvious that a supply of competent teachers would have to be provided for, and to the problem three solutions, not altogether unconnected, made their appearance.

First there was the introduction of the monitorial system by Andrew Bell who was from 1789-1796 superintendent of an Orphan Asylum at Madras, where he introduced the system. About the same time, Joseph Lancaster, who finally established a school of his own in Borough Road, London, was developing the system on similar lines.

Secondly we have to consider the 'training system' the credit for which is usually assigned to David Stow, of Paisley, about the year 1828.

Thirdly there is the pupil-teacher system which was

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1 pp.147 ff.

2 R.R.Rusk, op. cit., p.7.

introduced by Dr. Kay, afterwards Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, in 1846, after he had seen it in operation on a visit to Holland in 1837.

It is however with the second system, namely the 'training system' that we are particularly concerned. The importance of Stow in the development of the training system cannot be over-emphasised, but we must remember that the Education Committee of the Church of Scotland, formed in 1824, suggested in 1826 that teachers should undergo a short course of practice teaching and observation in the Market Place School, Edinburgh, before they could be appointed to schools belonging to the General Assembly. The idea seems to have had successful results, for in 1837 the managers of the school handed over its management to the Education Committee and we thus have a direct line of Church control over the training of teachers on the one hand, while on the other we have a purely private enterprise which, as we shall see, eventually came under the control of the Church.

Stow's first important venture in connection with the training of teachers was the establishment of an Infant School in the Drygate in Glasgow in 1828. It is interesting to follow the influences which led to the establishment of this school, and particularly amongst these must we notice the Infant School movement. This movement is associated by Lance Jones[1] with the name of Robert Owen, who opened an infants'

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1 Lance G.E.Jones - The Training of Teachers in England and Wales (Oxford, 1924), p.148.

school at New Lanark "c. 1812". Dr. Rusk[1] however, points out that the credit should rather go to Jean Frederic Oberlin, pastor of Ban de la Roche, near Strasbourg, and has ascertained that "in Germany, an Infant School, which still exists under the title of Paulinen-anstalt, was opened at Lippe-Detmold in 1802."[1]

It is true, however, that Owen was entitled to the claim of priority in the movement in Britain, and Henry Brougham, who was acquainted with Owen's system, was the prime mover in opening the first Infant School in London in 1819 at Brewer's Green, Westminster, under the mastership of one of Owen's New Lanark superintendents. A second Infant School was opened in London on 24th July, 1820, under the principalship of Mr. Samuel Wilderspin.

Now Stow, who had come from his native town of Paisley to the city of Glasgow to engage in a commercial career, had devoted his leisure time to mission work in the poorer parts of the city, and first of all started a Sunday School with the idea of reforming the young. It soon became obvious that the influence of one or two hours a week was by no means sufficient to attain his object of reform, and his attention turned to regular or 'day-school' education. In the Third Report of the Glasgow Educational Society's Normal Seminary, 1836,[2] he states that he "in 1820, visited Mr. Wilderspin's Infant School in Spitalfields, which had commenced but a short

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1 Op. cit., p.25.

2 p.6.

time before. The first half-hour's observation of the system there pursued seemed to supply to our mind that germ of a system of education which, upon sound Christian principles and superintendence, could not fail, under the blessing of God, morally to elevate society."

The influence of Stow's visit to London is seen in the founding of the Glasgow Infant School Society in 1827, largely through his exertions, and the establishment of their Model Infant School in the Drygate in 1828.

(As regards the opening date of this school, it has been established from the Balance Sheet of the First Annual Report of the Society that the school was opened on the 23rd April, 1828.)[1]

We learn from an advertisement in the Glasgow Herald of 28th April, 1828, that "Mr. Wilderspin of London" was to deliver a lecture explanatory of the System of Infant School Instruction in Glasgow on the 30th of that month, so the further influence of Stow's visit to London can be seen in the invitation to Wilderspin to come to Scotland.

The school itself was under the direction of Mr. David Caughie and great progress seems to have been made in the education of the children, if we may judge from the report of Wilderspin[2]:- "At the end of a month, it was announced in the Glasgow papers, that the examination would take place..... The children, who were from eighteen-months to six years of

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1. R.R.Rusk, op. cit., p.38.

2. Samuel Wilderspin - Early Discipline Illustrated (1832). p.104.

age....were conveyed in waggons, well adorned with green boughs, guarded on each side by the Glasgow police, and followed by hundreds of people, together with the friends and parents of the children, - the crowd rapidly increasing as they proceeded."

The importance of the establishment of the Infant School in the Drygate is to be seen from the Appendix to Granny and Leezy by Stow[1], where he tells us that on the opening day of the school, "two teachers ... were enrolled as Normal Students, with a view to two schools in Glasgow, in process of being erected in the neighbouring parishes, being conducted on the same system." His interesting account of the school gives us the further information that many other students were subsequently enrolled "with a view to acquire the system practically."

This, says Dr. Rusk[2], marks the beginning of the system of training of teachers in Scotland, evidently ignoring, deliberately or otherwise, the beginning made by the Church Committee, above mentioned, in 1826. In any case, it is from Stow's venture that the more important side of the history begins.

The period of training was at first very short, it being difficult to convince students that it was necessary to spend more than two, or at most, three weeks in their training. The time was later extended to three months, and at the end of the course a certificate was awarded. The development of Stow's

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1 David Stow - Granny and Leezy. 5th Edition (London, 1858).

2 op. cit., p.39.

system must be regarded as quite rapid, considering the times. In the appendix to Granny and Leezy he tells us that

"For 20 years, viz., up to 1847, the moral training system, in unison with practical training in the elementary branches, with the children of the model schools, occupied the almost exclusive attention of the Normal Students, so that their professional preparation as schoolmasters, or method of communication and moral training, occupied their whole time during their course of six, nine, or twelve months' study. This exclusive attention to practical working enabled young men, who had previously been well-instructed, to acquire the training system as perfectly in one-third of the time as it now requires with a two years' course, since the college or teaching department has been added to, or united with, the Normal or practical."

This is contrary to the statement of Lance Jones that "a two-fold aim was kept in view. An attempt was made on the one hand to convey general knowledge to the students,and, on the other, to familiarize them with the principles underlying the methods of instruction and give them an opportunity of working out these principles in practice."(1

From Stow's own statement above quoted we can see that his aim was originally to train, not to educate teachers, and that he seems rather uneasy over the need for the 'college or teaching department'. In the present-day system, not so

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(1 Lance Jones - Training of Teachers, p.15.

much in Scotland, but in other countries, and particularly in the Province of Quebec, the same is still true, that teachers are coming to be trained with an insufficient education which necessitates its being supplemented by the training authorities.

To return, however, to the history of the Infant School and the Society, we find that the expense of the upkeep of the school was becoming too great for the Society, and in the Report of the Annual Meeting of the Society for 1834[1] we read of the accumulation of debt. Five other schools had meantime been established by the Society, making six in all, and they were only saved from oblivion by being taken over by the Glasgow Educational Society, formed at a meeting held in Glasgow on 24th February, 1834, and the objects of which are stated as follow:

> "to obtain and diffuse information regarding the popular schools of our own and other countries - their excellencies and defects - to awaken their countrymen to the wants of Scotland in particular - to procure petitions to the legislative soliciting parliamentary inquiry, and parliamentary aid, in behalf of the extension of the parochial schools, with such additional institutions and improvements as the present state of society in our cities, and recent advances in the art of instruction, may suggest or require."

Meetings of this Society were arranged for the winter

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1 Glasgow Herald, 7th April, 1834.

following its foundation, and were inaugurated by a lecture by Professor Welsh, of Edinburgh, on 6th November, 1834, on "Prussian Education." Professor Welsh had visited Prussia the previous summer and naturally had been interested in the Prussian 'Seminars for Schoolmasters' which he had visited.

Dr. Welsh's lecture (extracts of which are to be found in the Appendix I to Sermons by the Late Reverend David Welsh, D.D., with a memoir by A.Dunlop, Esq., Advocate), was a powerful incentive to the newly formed Society to interest itself in the establishment of a Normal Seminary for the Training of Teachers, and although Stow later denied[1] that Prussia supplied any model for the Glasgow Seminary, we cannot but conclude that the influence was felt in the direction above shown.

In any case, a committee of the Glasgow Educational Society was formed with a view to establishing "a Normal Seminary for the training of Schoolmasters, and Model Schools forming an integral part of such an Institution"[2], and after an examination of the Parochial Schools in Glasgow and the suburbs, decided that St. John's Parochial School, Annfield, and St. Andrew's Parochial Infant School, Saltmarket, be taken over and formed into "a Normal Seminary ... for the training of teachers in the most approved modes of intellectual and moral training, so that schoolmasters may enjoy complete and

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1 Fifth Report of the Glasgow Educational Society's Normal Seminary, 1839, p.7.

2 Glasgow Herald, May 15th, 1835.

professional education."[1]

An account of the regulations regarding admission to the Normal Seminary and of the course pursued by the students is to be found in the Third Report of the Glasgow Educational Society.[2] It is specified that the students should agree to give regular attendance for a period of not less than three months (although schoolmasters desirous of improving themselves in their profession might take a shorter course) and that "applicants have received a certain amount of elementary education." The phrase 'a certain amount' is delightfully vague, and is best interpreted as an 'uncertain' amount. However, we see from the report that an examination was set on entrance to test this elementary knowledge, and when this had been passed, and proofs of their satisfactory moral character presented, the students were then admitted to a course of training which involved bi-weekly teaching practice, with criticism lessons.

In the meantime, negotiations had been proceeding for the erection of new buildings, and the result was that in November, 1836, the foundation stone of the new Normal Seminary was laid at Dundas Vale. In anticipation of the opening of the new building, steps had been taken to advertise for a Rector to superintend the work of the Normal Seminary, and John McCrie was appointed and sent abroad for several months to

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1 Alexander Morgan, op. cit. p.214.

2 p.14 ff.

study in France and Germany the educational institutions of these countries. After his tour, McCrie returned and undertook his duties in January, 1837. Unfortunately, however, he died of typhus fever on 4th October, 1837, and thus did not live to see the opening of the new Normal Seminary, which took place on 31st October of that year.

The new Seminary, under the superintendence of Stow, was now, according to the Fourth Report of the Glasgow Educational Society's Normal Seminary, 1837, "a separate and complete establishment, placed under the Christian superintendence of the Presbytery of Glasgow", and this fact shows, as Rusk points out[1] that Lance Jones is wrong in his suggestion that "Stow planned a National Undenominational College." As Rusk says, "any educational activity in which Stow engaged would require to have, not merely a religious bias, but even a Presbyterian bias, and the fact that after the compulsory transference of the Dundas Vale College to the Church of Scotland in 1845, his next venture was in connection with another Church, confirms this."

In the Fourth report above mentioned, the threefold division of the students' work is worth recording. They were employed firstly in receiving instruction in the elementary branches of the Training System; secondly, in observing the lessons of the regular schoolmasters in the model schools; and thirdly in practice teaching under supervision. This scheme is still the basis of professional training in Scotland.

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1 op. cit., p.62.

The Fifth Report, 1839, mentions the wish of the Society that all students, however highly educated, should spend at least twelve months in the Seminary. None, however, were to be admitted for a shorter period than six months. Observe the gradual lengthening of the course. First, in 1828, after the opening of the Infant School in the Drygate, the period was "two, or at most, three weeks". In the Third Report of the Society, the time is given as "at least three months", and now the period is extended to at least six months, with the wish for twice that time.

The money for the carrying on of the Seminary had been forthcoming so far from private subscriptions to the Glasgow Educational Society, with the exception of a grant of £1000 in 1838 from the Treasury. The expenses as shown in the Building Fund Account in the Fifth Report totalled almost £12,000 for the buildings, ground and equipment, and by 1839 the debts of the Society had become so great that application was made to the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, recently formed, for a grant of £5,000 to wipe out half of the debt outstanding, together with a grant of £500 per annum to meet the expenses of running the institution.

The Committee was also appealed to by the Education Committee of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland for assistance to establish and conduct Model and Normal schools in Edinburgh, and the result was that both applications were considered in the same favourable light and a grant of £5,000 made towards the establishment of the Normal Seminary in Glasgow, on condition that the Glasgow Education Society should

convey the site and buildings to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. A similar grant was made towards the establishment of a normal seminary in Edinburgh, and a grant of £500 per year was made for the current expenses of each institution. The reason for the suggested transference to the Church may be found in the fact that it was the only existing national body to which a government grant could suitably be made, and also in the fact that the Church's influence and interest in education had long been apparent - both under the parochial system and since the establishment of the Education Committee, previously referred to, in 1824.

The proposed transference was greeted with some diffidence by the Society, but the Privy Council remained adamant, so it was finally agreed that the the transfer should take place, and on the 16th May, 1845, the Glasgow Seminary came under the governance of the General Assembly's Committee.

In the meantime, however, there had occured in the religious life of Scotland an event which was to have far-reaching effects in the realm of education as well as that of religion - namely the Disruption, or Secession from the Established Church of Scotland in 1843, which resulted in the formation of the Free Church.

The results of the schism were at once felt in education, and when the Glasgow Seminary came under the control of the Established Church, the staff and most of the students had, like the Arabs, lifted their tents and departed. Dr. Rusk[1]

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1 op.cit., p.110.

quotes the dramatic account of the exodus on the 8th of May, 1845, of the Free Church adherents as given in the National Magazine.

"... Between one and two o'clock, a procession was marshalled in front of the old seminary, consisting of the students, preceded by David Stow, Esq., founder of the Training System, and Hon. Secretary of the Institution, and Mr. Hislop, the Head Master, - the Female School of Industry, the Initiatory Department, and the Juvenile Department, and the whole walked in this order to the temporary erection. The day was fine, and a great many people turned out to see the spectacle, which was one of a very interesting and impressive kind."

The migration took place to the temporary wooden building pending the erection of the Free Church of Scotland Training College (also known as Stow College) which was opened in the Cowcaddens on 12th August, 1845.

In Edinburgh meantime, the Church of Scotland Training College had been opened in 1845 at Johnston Terrace as we find from the report of the Church of Scotland for 1845[1] and, as was to be expected, there was a movement to establish a Free Church Training College there as well. In the report of the Proceedings of the Free Church Assembly for October, 1843,[2] we read that the Free Church then had " a Normal Seminary ", but the accommodation seems to have been

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1 p.15.

2 p.65.

insufficient, and some ground was acquired near the Lothian Road, where in 1845 the foundation stone was laid of the Edinburgh Normal School. That, however, seems to have been the only stone that was laid, since at the May Assembly in 1847 Dr. Candlish stated that no progress had since been made with the building owing to the unsuitability of the site and the great expense likely to be involved, and that therefore other premises, namely the Earl of Moray's house in the Canongate, had been acquired and would be opened as a Normal School.

So far we have four Training Colleges, two each in Glasgow and Edinburgh, and we may as well complete the record of the Church's work in education by recording the other Training Colleges which were established by the various bodies.

In 1849 the Episcopal Church in Scotland established a Training College for Men in Croft-an-Righ House, near Holyrood, in Edinburgh. After various changes of location, to Minto House, to Lochrin House, and finally to Dalry House in 1877, the College was confined to the training of women as teachers.

In 1873 the Church of Scotland Training College was opened in Aberdeen, and was at first exclusively for women, but men were later admitted.

The Free Church Training College at Aberdeen followed in 1874, and was similarly restricted to women students, but later admitted men students also.

We may also mention that a Roman Catholic Training College (for women) was opened at Dowanhill, Glasgow, in 1895,

and another Roman Catholic Training College was opened at Moray Place, Edinburgh, (also for women) in 1919, and in 1920 was transferred to Craiglockhart.

Meantime the Church colleges, when they had settled down after the excitement of the Disruption, continued to do good work in the training of teachers, and Stow continued in his perseverance in lengthening the period of training. In 1847, he gave notice at the meeting of the Glasgow Free Church Committee that he intended to move the increase of the period of attendance by students at the College from six to twelve months. In January, 1851, the Rector of the Free Church College reported the enrolment of twelve students for an eighteen-month course, and on the 1st of September of that year the minutes of the Committee mention that a candidate is to be admitted "but not for a course of training of less than two years."[1]

It was not long before it began to be realised that a closer connection between the school and the university was desirable. The pioneer student is one Kenneth Queen, who in 1863 applied to the Free Church Committee at Glasgow for permission to attend University classes concurrently with his training college course. A special ruling was made in his favour, and in the Scotch Code of 1873, Art. 102 (c), regular permission was given for this course to be followed.

An attempt was evidently made in the year 1877 by the universities to secure the introduction of a scheme whereby

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1 R.R.Rusk, op. cit., p.118.

prospective teachers should have the option of taking a two-year course entirely in the University, and be granted a diploma which would be recognised by the Scotch Education Department. This proposal was very properly rejected by the Church Education Committees.

In 1884-5 a similar appeal was made, particularly on behalf of the Universities of Aberdeen and St. Andrews, at the latter of which there was no training department at all. The ultimate result was the establishment in 1895 of "Local Committees" for the training of teachers at each of the four Scottish Universities.

With the greater spread of education, it gradually came to be recognised that the Church Training Colleges, while providing a fairly good level of general training, did not give any special training for the teachers of secondary school subjects and such special subjects as Music, Art, Manual Training, etc. The inefficiency of the Pupil Teacher system, too, was being felt, and the upshot was that finally, in January, 1905, the Scottish Education Department issued a Minute dividing the country into four 'Provinces', with the University towns, Aberdeen, St. Andrews, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, as their respective centres. Each district was under the jurisdiction of a Provincial Committee of about forty members, composed of representatives from the Universities, the Churches, the Colleges of Art, Science, Domestic Science, and Agriculture, and from the teachers of the schools in the district.

The Pupil Teachers were replaced by Junior Students,

whose course was practically a secondary education, combined with a smaller amount of teaching practice, extending over three years (roughly 15-18 years of age). Provision was made for the training of teachers of special subjects in secondary schools, with the requirement that such teachers be honours graduates in their subjects, and last, but not least, all uncertificated teachers had to take a training course before 31st December, 1914, after which date they were no longer to be recognised.

In 1918 the Education (Scotland) Act sounded the death knell of the School Boards which had previously been in charge of the educational administration in Scotland. These bodies had not borne any of the cost of the training of teachers, but the new bodies - burgh and county authorities - created by the 1918 Act did so, and it was felt that they should have some say in the management of the Training Colleges.

Accordingly, in 1920, a Minute of the Scottish Education Department was issued which transferred the administration of the training system to a National Committee for the Training of Teachers, which was to be composed entirely of representatives of the new Education Authorities.

The four Provincial Committees still exist, but without any financial responsibility, and for the sole purpose of the management of the Training Colleges.

The Roman Catholic Training Colleges were also transferred by agreement to the National Committee, and the result is that in Scotland there is a really National System where all the Training Colleges are under the control of the

National Committee.

The courses of training offered include:

1. The Teacher's General Certificate, being a qualification to teach primary school subjects in State-aided Schools (Chapters III and IV of the Regulations).
2. The Teacher's Special Certificate, being a qualification to teach Special Subjects in Advanced Divisions or Secondary Schools ... (Chapter V of the Regulations).
3. The Teacher's Technical Certificate, being a qualification to teach Technical Subjects ... (Chapter VI of the Regulations).

In actual practice there are four main classes of students.

First we have the 'non-graduate' students who train for the General Certificate over a course of three years. Men are not admitted to this course, and thus it is ensured that all men teachers (with the exception of those engaged in teaching technical subjects) are University graduates.

Secondly, there are the 'Ordinary' graduates, both men and women, who take the General Certificate Course as a post-graduate training extending over one year.

Thirdly, there are the 'Honours' graduates, men and women, who also take a one-year course which qualifies them for the Special Certificate entitling them to teach these Special Subjects in Secondary Schools or Advanced Divisions.

Fourthly, we have the Technical Teachers, whose course varies in length of time according to the certificate desired.

The first three classes are particularly relative to our subject, and will be discussed in turn later and compared with their nearest equivalents in the Province of Quebec.

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CHAPTER II.

The educational system in the Province of Quebec is perhaps unique in the fact that we have two separate and distinct systems, French and English, working side by side in complete harmony, with the administration vested in a common body, namely the Department of Public Instruction. The direct administration is more the duty of two committees, the Roman Catholic and the Protestant Committees of the Council of Public Instruction.

At the head of the system there is the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the law provides for a French and an English Deputy Head of the Department, known as the French and English Secretaries respectively. These officers are appointed by the Government, and the English Secretary is known by the special title of "Director of Protestant Education", indicating "a special function and special responsibilities of a kind superior to those of the French Secretary."[1] This development is also indicative of the independence allowed to Protestants in the matter of educational administration in a province where they are outnumbered by the Roman Catholics to the extent of approximately seven to one.

> "The supreme importance attached to religious education and to Church control, is the key to the history

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1 The School, November, 1925, p.285.

of the long efforts which finally resulted in the present system. On the ground that it does not make for national fusion, the separate school principle is frequently deplored in Canada, and the adoption of the common school system which prevails in the United States, is sometimes spoken of as a thing which might have been readily adopted at Confederation (1867). An intimate study of the political history of Canada from 1763-1867, and of the Confederation Debates (1865), will readily dispel that idea."[1]

This is the best argument to the critics of the system as it is today, but we must nevertheless look at the general history of the development of the English system, with which we are particularly concerned.

Previous to the year 1763, which marks the start of the English system as we know it, we must not forget that as far back as the year 1719 Brother Charon, realising the necessity for the training of schoolmasters for the country parishes, was instrumental in securing the establishment of a normal school, under the patronage of the King of France. Evidently the venture was not carried out in a sufficiently worthy manner, for in the year 1730 the king deprived the Charon Brothers of their grant of 3000 francs "because they have not properly fulfilled their obligation to instruct the young and maintain schools in the country."[2]

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1 G.W.Parmelee and J.C.Sutherland - Education in the Province of Quebec (Quebec, 1914), p.18.

2 Canada and its Provinces, vol.XVI, pp.340-341.

The Abbe Adelard Desrosiers, in an article on "French Education, 1763-1913",[1] bitterly complains of the results of the Treaty of Paris in 1763 as interfering with the religious rights of the Recollets and the Jesuits, and thus also with the education of the French in the Province.

> "Thus the beginning of English rule saw the destruction of all primary and secondary education, and it was left to the secular clergy ... to provide for the higher careers that alone could preserve the sense of nationality."

The growth of the English system from 1763 has been steady, and the first influence we have to note is that of the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning, now represented in McGill University. In many parts of the Province schools were established through its agency, notably in the country parishes, but it was not till the year 1836 that we have any legislative provision for a normal school. The Act of 1836 was the result of an inquiry into public instruction in 1834, and its effect was to render permanent the law passed in 1829, which had made several educational changes, notably the institution of the trustee principle. The Act ignored the protests of the bishops against the proposed common school system, and the result was that, on the grant to more than 1300 primary schools being refused, many were in imminent danger of being closed.

However, the Act whose results were in one direction so disastrous, provided at the same time for the establishment of two primary normal schools - one at Montreal and one at

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1 Canada and its Provinces, Vol.XVI, p.399.

Quebec, to be non-sectarian and open to both nationalities. This marks the last attempt to bring about a fusion of the two races - an attempt which could make no headway, as the Abbe Desrosiers says,[1] "against the masterly inactivity or spirited protest with whish the Canadians of Quebec have met every effort at assimilation."

"Nothing definite", says the Abbe, "is known of the normal school at Quebec," but we are told by him that September 7th, 1837, saw the opening of that at Montreal, and that it continued in existence for five years and granted diplomas to thirty students during that time.

The law authorizing the foundation of the normal schools was repealed in 1842 and there has never been any attempt to renew it. The Abbe Desrosiers blames "the fundamental defect of racial and religious neutrality" for the failure of this first attempt at a common provincial system of training, and we cannot but admit the truth of his criticism.

In the meantime, we must not fail to notice an interesting development which has a direct link with the present day.

The Anglican bishops, seeing the necessity for education, conceived the idea of bringing out from England and Ireland young men who had distinguished themselves in the universities and were qualified for the work of teaching, and in 1841 three students were entrusted to the Rev.S.S.Wood at Three Rivers for education and training. It was of course

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1 op.cit., p.417.

a mistake to attempt to form the nucleus of an Anglican college in a district which was so predominantly Roman Catholic and the result was the eventual transfer to Lennoxville in 1843, where the school formed the nucleus of Bishop's College, which is still engaged, as we shall see, in the training of secondary school teachers.[1]

In 1841 also, a law had been passed which gave the newly formed Department of Education the right to examine teachers in practical qualifications and theoretical knowledge. Later, in 1846, the system was so amended that Boards of Examiners, both Catholic and Protestant, were established, one in Quebec and one in Montreal, which had the power to grant diplomas, giving permanent qualification to teach, and it was also enacted that after July 1st, 1852, no uncertificated teacher was to be allowed to teach in the public schools, although female teachers were to be exempt from this provision until 1857.

The success of these Boards of Examiners led to the institution of further boards, and by 1863[2] there were Boards at Portage-du-Fort, Richmond, Ste. Marie de la Beauce, Chicoutimi, Rimouski, New Carlisle, Waterloo, and Sweetsburgh, in addition to those at Quebec, Montreal, Three Rivers, Sherbrooke, Kamouraska, Stanstead, Gaspe and Aylmer.

These Boards issued certificates of three classes, the Elementary School Certificate, the Model School Certificate, and the Diploma to teach in Academies, to candidates after examination (orally), but without any practical training as

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1 See G.W.Parmelee - "English Education ..." in 'Canada and its Provinces, Vol.XVI, p.461.

2 Rules and Regulations for the Examination of Candidates for Teachers' Certificates ... Montreal, 1863, p.4.

a necessary qualification. Dr. Parmelee in his article says:[1] "Some (Boards), indeed, were popular for their easy ways, while others, like that of Montreal, were carefully avoided by the timid candidates because of their reasonable severity."

Various 'programmes' of questions are printed as suggestions to the examining boards, and we find some matters of great interest in the "Rules and Regulations for the Examination of Candidates ..." referred to above. A copy of this booklet is to be found in an obscure volume of pamphlets in the McGill University Library, and on the fly-leaf there is the inscription stating that the book is the property of the Montreal Board of Examiners.

In the programme of questions in "English Grammar" for the Elementary Certificate we find the trying questions on page 14,

"How many letters are contained in the English Alphabet?"

and on the next page,

"How many vowels are there?"

Truly a 'reasonable severity' !

The unsatisfactory conditions resulting from the lack of uniformity of qualifications (Certificates being valid only in the District in which they were issued) resulted in provisions being made in the Act of 1851 for the foundation of three normal schools - two Roman Catholic and one Protestant. A grant of $50,000 was made by the Legislature and of this the Protestant school was to receive one-third. This proportion,

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1 op.cit., p.489.

greater than was warranted by the percentage of Protestant population, was largely due to the good graces of Chauveau, who, recognising that any division of the grant on the basis of population would result in a poverty of staff and equipment for the Protestant Normal School, recommended to the government the course followed.

It was not however until the year 1857 that the Protestant Normal School was finally opened in Montreal, and from that time onwards we have an unbroken record of teacher-training under government sponsorship.

The development of the Roman Catholic normal schools in point of numbers has, naturally, been much greater, and some sixteen others have since been established, but they are mainly under ecclesiastical control.

When the Protestant Normal School was opened in Montreal in 1857 the Principal appointed was Dr.J.W.Dawson, the Principal of McGill University, and his assistant was Mr. W.H.Hicks who since 1853 had been associated with the training-school formed by the Colonial Church Society in Montreal. Arrangements were made with the Society to take over the school and its headmaster[1] and thus Mr. Hicks came to be associated with the McGill Normal School, in which he succeeded Dr.Dawson as principal in 1871.

(Notice that the Normal School had come to be called the McGill Normal School. The reason for this is that the

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1 Sinclair Laird - "Sixty Years of Training Teachers in Quebec." in The Educational Record of the Province of Quebec, Jan.-March, 1916, pp.11 ff.

administration of the School rested with a committee appointed chiefly by the McGill Corporation, hence the close connection between the University and the Normal School.)

The statement of Dr.Parmelee[2] that "pupils coming up for training as teachers lacked in many instances the literary training necessary as a foundation upon which to build the professional structure. In consequence, the Normal School undertook from the first to combine professional training and a general education..." - is very illuminating as a commentary on the system of teacher-training in the Province, both in the times of which he writes and at the present day.

The duration of the three courses offered was ten months each, and the diplomas which were awarded at the end of the courses of three grades - the Elementary, the Model School and the Academy.

Thus an intending candidate for the Academy diploma received a very good general training, and as the system of education generally improved, various attempts were made to shorten the length of the course of training and to restrict the scope of the subjects studied.

It is greatly to the credit of Dr.Robins, who had been associated with the Normal School since its inception and who had succeeded Mr. Hicks as principal in 1883, that these attempts were resisted until the year 1896, when an optional four-month course was offered for rural elementary

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1 Canada and its Provinces, Vol.XVI, p.486.

teachers as a concession to the demands for shorter courses. At the same time a regulation was made by which no diplomas could be obtained without professional training. Dr.Parmelee,[1] referring to the developments, says:

> "This change, however, met no real heed. The applications never exceeded thirty, and gradually dwindled until in 1908 they had fallen to two or three, and the course was withdrawn. The fact was that young women who wanted professional training at all preferred the higher diploma, because the school boards gave the preference to teachers who had the longer training."

The academy course, because of its overlapping to some extent the earlier years of a university course, was discontinued in 1885, but the academy diploma was still given to graduates in Arts on taking a professional and practical course in the Normal School.

The McGill Normal School continued its work until the year 1907 when it closed, and it is remarkable to note that Dr.Robins, the principal, who gave the closing address, had also made an address at the opening of the school in 1857, and thus completed a fifty years' connection with it. During its existence the school trained 2989 teachers, and to these 4188 diplomas were issued.[2]

By an agreement with the Government of the Province, dated February 25th and 26th, 1907, confirmed by an Act of

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1 op. cit., p.487.

2 The School, January, 1926, p.502.

the Legislature of the Province of Quebec, 7 Edward VII, 1907, chapter 26, it was provided that a school for the training of teachers for the schools under the control of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Education should be established and carried on at Ste. Anne de Bellevue in lieu of the McGill Normal School.[1]

According to this agreement, the government grant of $16,666.66 was waived, the expenses of administration to be met by the College, under the endowment of Sir William Macdonald, its founder, on condition that the money thus saved to the government should be applied to the furthering of rural Protestant education in the Province of Quebec. The result is that the Macdonald College School for Teachers is now in a unique and, in some respects, apparently anomalous position. The control of the course of study and general management remain with the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, while the administrative expenses, such as the staff salaries, and the appointment of the staff, are responsibilities of McGill University.

At Macdonald College, the residential system prevails, and makes for the maintenance of a steady level of work. The various kinds of diplomas awarded are as follow:

(a) The Elementary Diploma, which entitles the holder to teach in the Elementary schools of the Province, and is awarded as the result of a four-month course, which is offered twice a year, from September to December and from February to June. The qualifications for admission are that

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1 Macdonald College, Twenty-fifth Announcement, 1931-32, p.86.

the candidates be over 16 years of age at the commencement of the course and have passed the Grade X school examination.

(b) The Intermediate Diploma, entitling the holder to teach in Intermediate schools in the Province, and awarded after a course of thirty-six weeks' duration. Admission qualifications in this case are the passing of the Grade XI school examination and the attainment of the age of 17 years at the commencement of the course.

(c) Kindergarten Directors' Diplomas, awarded after a one-year course at Macdonald College, following on a two-year course of practice and lectures in Montreal.

In addition to these diplomas granted by the School for Teachers at Macdonald College (or, as we should rather say, on the work done there), we have the High School Diploma, awarded to university graduates of McGill University or Bishop's College who have taken special courses in addition to the subjects of their ordinary degree course. The practice at McGill University has hitherto been to have these special courses taken in the last two years of the undergraduate course, and to have the requisite fifty half-days' practice teaching done during the university vacations, but, as will be shown later, beginning with the year 1932-33, an alternative course will be offered, and those students who enter McGill University with a view to teaching will have the option of taking a special year of post-graduate study and practical work leading to the High School Diploma.

The year's post-graduate study has been in operation at Bishop's College for some time, and there greater facilities

are given for practice-teaching, but it is to be pointed out that while four years are necessary to complete the curriculum for the B.A. degree at McGill University, the course at Bishop's College is only of three years' duration.

Diplomas are issued by the Department of Education of the Province only after the approval of the Protestant Central Board of Examiners, which has certain clearly defined rights, amongst which is that to set one-half of the examinations for the diplomas. It is further enacted that "all results, including examination questions and answers, shall be submitted to the Board by the Dean of the School for Teachers."

The Board has also the right to admit, in exceptional cases, persons whose qualifications may be insufficient for entrance, and may grant diplomas to candidates in special cases upon any examination specifically indicated by it.

Thus, in special cases, permission may be granted to School Boards in rural districts where it is difficult for financial and other reasons to obtain the services of a trained teacher, to engage untrained individuals for a period of one year for a particular post (on the recommendation of the inspector in charge of the district).

This permission is granted by the Department, and the official ruling is that it shall not be granted in the case of persons under 18 years of age, and only after the post has been offered by public advertisement to trained teachers.

The numbers of those who teach by virtue of such permission is steadily decreasing, thanks to the efforts of

Dr. Percival, the Director of Protestant Education, and is now under 100, but it is still the case that in some cases a student leaves school, teaches for a year until he has earned enough money to enable him to learn how to teach, and then comes to Macdonald College to unlearn his mistakes. This may seem harsh criticism, but the whole question will be dealt with in a later chapter.

Macdonald College celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary in 1932, and in the twenty-five years of its existence has trained 4014 teachers. The work has been carried on under the direction of three Deans, Dr.G.Locke, Dr.S.B.Sinclair, and Dean Sinclair Laird, who has now occupied the position for nineteen years.

The task of the College is a heavy one, since it is responsible for the supply of the majority of Protestant teachers in the Province. This task is faced unflinchingly by a staff which is too small for the number of students, which now averages about 200 per year. The members of the staff are keenly alive to the importance of their position in the educational life of the Province and do all that is possible to keep in touch with the actual work of the schools. This is to a great extent rendered possible by the personal contact of the staff of the College with practically the entire teaching personnel of the Protestant public schools.

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CHAPTER III.

To come to the details of the two systems of training under discussion, it is perhaps best if we compare seriatim the classes of teachers which offer an approximate ground for comparison. On this basis we may compare the 'non-graduate' general teachers of Scotland with the Elementary teachers in Quebec, the graduate general teachers with the Intermediate teachers, and the teachers of special subjects in High Schools with the Quebec High School teachers. It must of course be clearly understood that the comparison is not strictly parallel, more especially in the first case mentioned, but the point is that we have these three classes in each system, ranking in the order stated in professional status. The subject of this chapter is the comparison of the first two classes - the 'non-graduate' teachers in training in Scotland and the Elementary teachers in Quebec.

First let us consider the 'non-graduates'. They are candidates, as has been previously stated, for the Teacher's General Certificate; the requirements for admission to training are the holding of the School Leaving Certificate and the attainment of the age of 17. The course is of three years' duration, and all of this time may be spent in the Training College, or the first year may be spent in continuation at school as a course of preliminary training under supervision, and the last two years at the Training College. Previous to

1931 this course was only of two years' duration, but new regulations[1] issued that year superseded the 1924 regulations which were in effect up to then.

According to the provisions of the Regulations[2], the curriculum shall include "instruction in School and Personal Hygiene including Physical Exercises, in the Principles of Teaching (including Psychology, Ethics, and Logic, in their direct bearing upon the work of the teacher), in School Management (Discipline, Organisation, and General Method), in Methods of Teaching the several subjects of the Primary School curriculum, in the History of educational systems and theories, and in Phonetics and Voice Training (speaking and reading). It shall further provide for every candidate ... adequate practice in Teaching, under proper supervision, each of the subjects of the Primary School curriculum."

In addition to this comprehensive curriculum of professional studies, permission is given to the Training Authorities for the revisal or development of the Student's knowledge of the subjects of general education to such an extent as they may determine. This provision is probably intended to meet the needs of students who may be weak in certain subjects or even in general educational attainments as the result of being educated in some of the smaller country schools, and in practice most of the 'general revisal and development' is given during the first year of the course, leaving the two

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1 The Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training, and Certification of Teachers ... (Scotland), 1931, dated February 25, 1931 ... (H.M.Stationery Office, London, 1931).

2 ibid., p.5.

other years for devotion to the professional side of the work.

The details of the curriculum differ but slightly in the four Training Centres, and we may refer to the curriculum issued by the Glasgow Training Centre[1] for these details. In the first year, the subjects are:

SUBJECTS.	HOURS. Per Session.	Average per Week.
I Professional Subjects-		
1. Physical Training - - - - - - - - - -	60	2
2. Methods - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
3. Practice in Teaching - - - - - - - -	250	7½
II General Subjects-		
1. English and History - - - - - - - - -	90	3
2. Nature Study- - - - - - - - - - - - -	60	2
3. Principles of Arithmetic & Method -	60	2
4. Geography - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
5. Singing - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
III Additional Subjects for Primary Schools, Special Qualification:- Preliminary Courses in-		
1. Drawing - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	60	2
2. Educational Handwork- - - - - - - - -	60	2
or Needlework, or Music - - - - - - -	60	2

It will readily be seen from the above syllabus that a satisfactory amount of practice teaching is given. After all, the best way to learn how to teach is by doing it in the right way, and the ratio of teaching practice to theoretical instruction (7½ : 1) is a fitting one.

The 250 hours are made up of one complete day's practice each week in the schools, with demonstration and criticism lessons, together with an intensive period of two

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1 National Committee for the Training of Teachers in Scotland - Prospectus of General Information ... Session 1931-32, p.5.

weeks' practice. This ensures a constant contact with the work of the schools and, at the same time, as is shown by the syllabus, adequate provision is made for the extension of the general knowledge of the students.

In the second year of the course the curriculum as shown in the syllabus[1] is as follows:

	SUBJECTS.	HOURS. Per Session.	Average per Week.
I	Professional Subjects-		
	1. Hygiene and Physical Training - -	90	3
	2. Logic and Psychology- - - - - - -	60	2
	3. Phonetics and Voice Training- - -	30	1
	4. Methods - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
	5. Practice in Teaching - - - - - -	90	3
II	General Subjects-		
	1. English - - - - - - - - - - - - -	60	2
	2. Principles of Arithmetic & Method	60	2
	3. Nature Study- - - - - - - - - - -	60	2
	4. Geography - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
	5. History - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
	6. Singing - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
	7. (Optional) Gaelic or French - - -	(60)	(2)
III	Additional Subjects for Special Qualification (Primary Schools):-		
	1. Educational Handwork-		
	(a) For Senior and Junior Classes -	60	2
	(b) For Infant Classes (with Drawing (60) and Needlework (60) for Infants and Juniors)- - - -	120	4
	2. Arts and Art Crafts - - - - - - -	60	2
	3. Singing - - - - - - - - - - - - -	30	1
IV	Religious Instruction - - - - - - -	30	1

A point which is worthy of particular note in connection with the scheme of work above shown is the opportunity which is given for special qualification in certain additional subjects which would otherwise be carelessly taught.

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1 ibid., p.6.

It is perhaps fitting to complete the survey of the course by giving the syllabus for the third year, which is as follows:

SUBJECTS.	HOURS. Per Session.	Average per Week.
I Professional Subjects -		
1. Physical Training	60	2
2. Psychology and Ethics	60	2
3. Education	90	3
4. Methods	30	1
5. Practice	120	4
6. Phonetics and Voice Training	30	1
II General Subjects -		
1. English	60	2
2. Principles of Arithmetic and Methods (for failures in previous years)	(30)	(1)
3. Nature Study	60	2
4. Geography	30	1
5. History	(30)	(1)
6. Singing	30	1
7. (Optional) Gaelic or French or Mathematics	(60)	(2)
III Additional Subjects (as in First Year).		
IV Religious Instruction	30	1

The syllabus of the course of study for the three years shows quite clearly the comprehensive training that is given in the course, and the system of supervision of the practice teaching, where one methods master or mistress is in charge of a small group of students (about 30), gives a greater opportunity for individual attention and criticism, although the system is not without its critics on the score that the personal prejudice of the methods master may

militate against the student. No one can deny this possibility, but at the same time it is true of any system of training that the personal element must enter into the question. Teaching is not something which is purely objective and can be judged by hard and fast impersonal standards, and the personal element must at times prove an inconvenience. However, till someone can suggest a real solution to the difficulty, we must continue to submit to the system.

The great merit of this course is that it gives in the first place an assurance of (a) a sufficient general education on the part of the teacher, and (b) an adequate professional training under proper supervision, while at the same time provision is made for the training of teachers in special additional subjects, such as Drawing, Handwork, and Music, as shown in Section III of the programmes above quoted. Satisfactory completion of courses in these subjects entitles the teacher to recognition under Article 37 (b) of the Regulations.

In Article 37 (a), it is enacted with regard to the subjects of Music and Drawing that "applicants for the Teacher's General Certificate must have undergone a sufficient discipline therein during their school course. But the relative mark of proficiency shall not be essential to recognition as a Certificated Teacher."[1]

Article 37 (b), however, recognises the necessity

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1 Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training, etc. ... of Teachers, ... 1931, pp. 9-10.

for duly qualified teachers of those subjects in Primary Schools, and provides for an adequate proportion of teachers on the staff of all Primary Schools who are qualified to teach these subjects.

The detailed courses of study for the various subjects of the curriculum, which the writer has been able to obtain through the kindness of the Director of Studies of the Glasgow Training College, Mr. George A. Burnett, show that a sound foundation is given in the theory of teaching the various subjects of the Primary School, and that the theory is at the same time constantly related to the subject matter and practice. The completeness of the courses offered may well be illustrated by citing the Scheme of Work for the course in Education and the History of Education in the Second Year of the training.

PRINCIPLES and HISTORY of EDUCATION.

Time - 90 hours.

I. INTRODUCTION:

Comparison of Ancient and Modern Views of Education.

II. PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION:

Aim: Need for Aim. Having an aim - acting intelligently. Functions and Advantages of Aim.

Avoidance of Aim: Pragmatic attitude. Empiricism - facts require selection and classification hence need for principle. Relation of Science to Philosophy of education.

Search for Aim: Resort to derivation. Induction from popular views. Induction from views of educationists. Philosophic induction.

Philosophies of Education: Naturalism or education from the biological standpoint. Pragmatism or education

from the practical standpoint. Idealism or education from the spiritual standpoint.

Idealistic interpretation of Education: Aim:- enrichment of personality. Implication of term "personality". Nature of human endowment. Significance and analysis of human environment. Conflict and reconciliation of various factors.

III. SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION.

Function of education in a social community. Span of education. Various educational agencies in a social community.

Life: Value and limitations of first-hand experience. Education as participation in life; comparison with recapitulation and preparation views of education.

Home: Advantages of and limitations as educational agency.

School:

Administration of Education: Relation of school to other social agencies. Nationalisation of educational facilities. Local control. Compromise - 'ad hoc' or County Council control.

Organisation of Education: Function of school. Types of schools. Co-education. Individual and class systems. Principles of classification - chronological, capacity, etc. The Gary Plan. Individual Methods - Montessori, Dalton, etc.

Adjuncts to School education: Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, etc; Cinema, Wireless, etc; Co-operation of various agencies.

IV. MORAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL DISCIPLINE:

Discipline: Dependent on philosophy of life. Stages in development of discipline - authority, supervision, freedom. Modern school discipline based on freedom. Philosophy of freedom. Freedom a development.

Moral Ideals and Moral Code: Historical evolution of ideals - Knowledge, Pleasure, Duty. The Greek Virtues. Modification of Greek virtues by Christian influences. Characterisation of the good man.

Ethical Endowment and Development: Old views of endowment - conscience, moral sense, instinct, sentiment. Modern view. Stages in ethical development, and importance of these in moral training of pupil.

Moral Training and Instruction: Discussion of Training v. Instruction; also of systematic v. incidental methods. Psychological treatment of disciplinary difficulties.

V. INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION:

Curriculum: Why there is a problem of curriculum. Necessity for revaluation of educational values. Principles determining curriculum - tradition, utility, Spencer's and Dewey's frequency of use. Philosophical determination of curriculum. Invalid principles - formal training, recapitulation.

Course of Study: Organisation of curriculum. Conditions affecting application - community restrictions; school restrictions; pupil restrictions - immaturity, length of school life, etc.

General Method: Meaning of "Method". Psychological and logical orders of presentation - invalid opposition. So-called psychological methods - heuristic, conductive (sic), Socratic. Deductive methods - deduction, pragmatic. The Project method. Correlation.

Apperception; Interest: The Play-way.

Exposition: Indirect - suggestion; Direct - Herbart's doctrine of instruction.

Illustration: Concrete, Verbal.
Types of concrete and of verbal illustration.

VI. AESTHETIC EDUCATION:
The nature and principles of aesthetic experience. Relation of executive skill to appreciation. Stages in aesthetic development.

VII. HISTORY OF EDUCATION:
The doctrines of the great educators and their influence on modern practice.

This scheme is a representative sample of the work which is done in the training of these teachers for work in the Primary Schools, and we may feel reasonably safe in saying that it would be difficult to better the course as it is now constituted.

As we have previously mentioned, only women students are admitted to this course, and men must be university graduates before they can be admitted to a course for the General Certificate.

So much for the training received by the lowest grade of recognised teachers of general subjects in the primary schools in Scotland. Let us now turn to the nearest equivalent in Quebec, of which it may in all truth be said that it is "proximus, sed longo intervallo." In the case of candidates for the Elementary Diploma, tha age requirement is 16 years, and the scholastic standing is that of the Grade X school examination, which I should say is at the very least one scholastic year below the standard of the Scottish School Leaving Certificate.

The course for the diploma is stated in the Macdonald College Announcement[1] as comprising the following divisions:

"(a) A general review of the subjects taught in rural schools.

(b) Lectures in methods of teaching the specific subjects of English, History, Geography, Primary Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, French, Scripture, Nature Study and Elementary Agriculture, Drawing, Music, Hygiene and Physical Training.

(c) Lectures in the Principles of Education, School Management and School Law. While there is no opportunity for a specific course in Psychology, nevertheless the bearings of Modern Psychology upon educational theory and practice will be emphasised.

(d) It being the aim of the Staff to make the work for this Diploma as practical as possible, opportunities for

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1 Macdonald College, Twenty-fifth Announcement, 1931-32, p. 97.

observation and for practice teaching, both in graded and ungraded schools, will be afforded, and much emphasis will be laid on the ability displayed in this phase of the work by teachers-in-training."

This gives a statement of the scope and objects of the course, and it remains for us to consider how far this is carried out and to decide whether it is a sufficient training.

In the first place, we must note the length of the course. As we have previously mentioned, this course is offered twice a year, and candidates may enrol for the course lasting from September till Christmas or for that from February till the beginning of June. This means in effect that the duration of the first course is approximately 14 weeks, while that of the second is roughly 17 weeks. Now it is a far cry from this to the three-year training we have spoken of in the case of the Scottish students, and in this respect a comparison of the two classes is bound to be detrimental to the Quebec system.

To turn to the outline of the course quoted above, the first section - the 'general review of subjects taught in rural schools' - is significant. The level of scholarship of the candidates for the Diploma is in the main low, and hence we have the necessity for supplementing their general knowledge in the short period allotted to the course. During the past year the writer has conducted in both of the Elementary classes the courses in English Literature, and can say without fear of contradiction that while the students have been particularly keen and eager in their work, the necessary scholastic background has been lacking. Mistakes are made

with a frequency which cannot but point to the lack of a sufficient basic education, and the result is that the task of the instructors in the School for Teachers is rendered doubly hard. The subject of English has been taken as the example which most readily springs to mind, but the same criticism applies in a greater or less degree to the other subjects of the course. The result of all this is that the period of review is in undue proportion to the second section of the scheme, namely the lectures in methods of teaching the specific subjects.

The following table shows the amount of time devoted to the various subjects of study on the basis of the time-table at present in effect. Of course, in this table, 'French', 'English', etc. include the time spent on review as well as methods instruction, and the exact proportion cannot be given. Taking the average length of the course as 15 weeks the table is as follows:

SUBJECT.	HOURS. Per Session.	Average per Week.
Education	78¾	5¼
English	45	3
French	45	3
Primary Methods	22½	1½
Art	22½	1½
Geography	22½	1½
History	11¼	¾
Arithmetic	45	3
Music	22½	1½
Physical Training	22½	1½
Nature Study	22½	1½
Religious Instruction	22½	1½
School Practice	22½	1½

In connection with this table it must be noted as regards the last item, 'School Practice', that the time here shown is that spent in teaching and observing in the graded

Macdonald High School. Part of the time shown is spent in demonstration lessons by the staff of the College, and in practice the student has the opportunity of teaching on an average two twenty-minute lessons a week over a period of about 8 weeks. In addition, at the end of the course, the 'ungraded school' practice referred to in section (a) of the syllabus is given when a sample 'rural school' is made up by selecting pupils from the various grades of the Macdonald High School. Demonstrations are given in this by the College Staff, and some of the best and some of the worst students are given the opportunity to try their powers in conducting such a school for a morning or an afternoon. It may thus be seen that the absolute maximum amount of practice teaching which is available for the students of the course (i.e. about sixteen twenty-minute lessons and one half-day in the model 'rural school') is about 8 hours. The statement in the Announcement as regards 'practice teaching, both in graded and ungraded schools', is rather misleading, for the work is all done with the pupils of one school, who are, as will be shown later, over-run with the practice teaching of students, and the 'ungraded' school is only an approximation to the conditions which have to be faced by these Elementary teachers when they go out to the rural schools of the province.

From this criticism, it must not be inferred that no good thing comes out of this Elementary course. On the contrary, some of the best teachers amongst the students in the College are to be found in this class, but the student who is in this happy position is like the poet: nascitur, non fit.

It is of course all very well for an outsider to hold up his hands in holy horror at a system which allows the certification of teachers after such a short course, but there are many circumstances which combine to foster the prevailing system, and it is difficult to obviate them.

The most important feature of all is an economic one. The pay offered to holders of Elementary Diplomas rarely exceeds $50 a month for a ten-month year, and the result is that value for money is obtained. In a word, the money for the support of the rural schools comes to a great extent from the taxpayer by direct taxation, and the proportion contributed in the form of government grants is very small. The result is that the school commissioners in the rural districts, like the heritors of olden time in Scotland, 'prefer parsimony to probity' and the standard of education is correspondingly low.

Obviously it is unjust to insist on a lengthy course of training for teachers whose remuneration is likely to be so miserable, and the government of the province is in many respects like Shakespeare's Julius Caesar - 'constant as the northern star'. The net result is that their refusal to make larger grants in aid of education leads to a general lowering of the standard in the rural areas, particularly where the tax-paying body is small and consequently the number of children attending school is similarly restricted. In this respect, however, considerable progress has been made in recent years in the matter of consolidation, but there is still a disinclination amongst parents to send their children any distance to a consolidated school, everyone naturally

wishing to have the school as near his own home as possible.

In 1922, a survey of the rural schools in the Province was conducted by Dr.Parmelee and his staff, and again in 1930 the officials of the department prepared another survey which is of some interest in this question. The report, entitled "Rural School Conditions in the Province of Quebec", is signed by A.K.Cameron, Chairman of the Sub-Committee on Consolidation, and gives the following illuminating figures:

	1922	1930
1. Total number of schools reported - - - -	607	623
2. Number of uncertificated teachers - - -	290	135

These figures show at a glance the satisfactory feature of the decreasing number of uncertificated teachers employed in the rural schools, but the proportion of 135 uncertificated teachers in 623 schools is still dangerously high. The report further says: "We now have nearly 40 consolidated schools in successful operation. It may be safely estimated that there are at least 15 to 20 further consolidations that may be made with good results all around."

Consolidation, then, is doing much to improve the standard of rural education, but it has still a long way to go. The fact of the matter is that there is a vicious circle in operation. The pupils attend rural schools under the principalship of, in many cases, uncertificated teachers, and their own general level of education is correspondingly low. They then take the Elementary training course which is all too short, and return to complete the cycle. There is, of course, some improvement as time goes on, but in a case where the student, on completing the Grade X work, teaches in a rural school under permit for a year, and then comes

to Macdonald College for the short course, the year's practical work is in some cases of value, but as has been previously pointed out, there are many mistakes which have to be unlearned.

The greatest value of the course at Macdonald College is that it gives an insight into what can be done in education, and the influence of the staff there is sufficiently strong to make itself felt indirectly in the rural schools. Further, the interest of the students can be aroused to such an extent that they later continue their studies in the theory of teaching at the Summer Schools which are held at the College.

Our summing up of the Elementary training course must be that it is unsatisfactory as judged by any absolute standards, but in view of the circumstances and the conditions in the Province of Quebec, it is the best that can be done.

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CHAPTER IV

The next two classes of teachers which may be compared are the 'Ordinary' graduates who are candidates for the Teacher's General Certificate in Scotland and the Intermediate teachers in Quebec. The main basis of comparison is to be found in the fact that both have to undergo a one-year course of training, and in the present system the majority of the teaching body is drawn from them. Of course, it may justly be argued that it is unfair to compare university graduates with high-school graduates, and this cannot be denied, but the comparison only shows the difference in the status of the main body of teachers under the two systems.

Under Article 15 (c) of the Regulations, persons eligible for the one-year course of training leading to the Teacher's General Certificate are "graduates of a Scottish University or of any other University approved for the purpose." This provision ensures at once a high level of general education and the training authorities are thus relieved of the task of educating the students generally before turning to the professional side of the work. The result is that a sufficient time can be spent on the practical work, and this will be at once apparent from the syllabus shown below. The degree of the University is taken as a sufficient guarantee of scholarship, and the prospective teacher is thus enabled to devote the requisite time to actual practice.

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1 The Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training ... of Teachers ... (Scotland), 1931 ...p.4.

The syllabus of work, again taken from the Prospectus issued by the Glasgow Training Centre,[1] may conveniently be quoted as typical of the National System.

SUBJECTS.	HOURS. Per Session.	Average per Week.
1. Hygiene	30	1
2. Physical Exercise	50	1.66
3. Principles of Teaching (including Logic, Psychology, & Ethics)	90	3
4. Experimental Psychology	20	0.66
5. Education	90	3
6. Nature Study	40	1.33
7. Methods and Practice	360	9
8. Geography	10	0.33
9. Principles of Arithmetic	10	0.33
10. Singing	60	2
11. Phonetics and Voice Training	30	1
12. Optional - Additional Subjects		
13. Religious Instruction	30	1

We must note however that in the case of students whose University course has covered the requisite ground, exemption is granted from Numbers 3, 5, and 6 of the above scheme, and exemption may also be obtained from singing, with the condition of course, that the teacher is not given the qualification to teach it.

As regards item 12 on the syllabus - Additional Subjects - it may be mentioned that these represent subjects in which candidates are allowed to take special qualifications, dependent on the standard attained in their University courses, allowing them to teach these subjects in schools conducted

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1 p.4.

under the Regulations for Secondary Schools, where the services of a teacher qualified under Chapter V of the regulations (i.e. 'Honours' graduates) cannot reasonably be required.[1]

These qualifications are generally spoken of as 'Article 39' qualifications, and give the teacher who has a particular bent towards certain subjects an opportunity for some degree of specialisation. The usual limit on the number of such Article 39 subjects which may be taken is two, but permission is also given for obtaining qualification in additional subjects under Article 37 (b), for Primary Schools (see p.39 above), provided that the total number of extra qualifications does not exceed two, i.e. two Article 37 (b) qualifications, or two Article 39, or one of each.

The general organisation of the whole course in a large centre such as Glasgow is worthy of notice. The students are divided into two main sections, A and B, one of which is engaged in intensive practice teaching in the schools while the other is taking lectures at the training college. This system obviates the difficulty of students having to make up the lee-way of missed lectures during periods of practice teaching. Each section has a period of three weeks' teaching in the schools, alternately, and the first period of teaching usually extends to four weeks, with the result that some 16 weeks in all are spent in the schools of the city.

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1 Regulations for the ... Training ... of Teachers... (Scotland), 1931, p.10.

The students are assigned to the various schools of the city, and are under the supervision of the headmasters of the schools, and, more directly, of the class-teachers. Provision is generally made for the student to have a week in one class at a time, although the practice varies greatly with the individual schools.

The teaching of the students continues from Monday to Thursday of each week, and Friday is spent at the Training College where such subjects as general methods and special subjects are dealt with. The student thus spends some 22 hours per week in the schools, and his sixteen weeks of such practice gives him the adequate total of about 354 hours, which figure of course includes demonstration and criticism lessons. The practice which is frequently followed is for the master of method in charge of a group of students (about 30) to make arrangements for their assembling at one particular school on the Monday morning, and having say two criticism lessons and one demonstration, together with a short lecture on applied methods.

The value of this system is obvious, and the student is thus well prepared for his duties by thorough practice. Since the greater part of the teaching practice is carried out between the months of September and May, and the climate of Scotland conducive to colds and influenza, the regular teachers are not infrequently absent, and the student is usually given full charge of the class - a practice which helps to give him considerably greater confidence.

During teaching practice, a diary of the work done and observed is kept by the students, and they are instructed to have prepared for each day at least two lessons, which they may be called upon to teach upon the appearance of their methods master. Written evidence of preparation must be given in a book specially kept for the purpose, and this as well as the diary mentioned is liable to inspection at any time.

The exactness of the demands is sometimes felt as irksome by students coming from the greater freedom of the university, but it is clear that it is an excellent training or 'breaking in' for the more routine demands of an ordinary school life. Considerable help can be, and often is, given by members of the staff of the schools to students in the course of training, and the task of the beginner may thus be greatly lightened.

It is only by this first-hand acquaintance with the work of the schools, particularly in such matters of organisation and administration as the marking of the attendance registers, playground supervision, and general professional duties, that an adequate training can be obtained, and the Friday morning discussion in the General Methods lectures help to straighten out many of the problems of the school.

A short time of intensive practice such as this soon brings to light any glaring defects in the make-up of the prospective teacher, and it is provided in the Prospectus[1]

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1 p.5.

issued by the National Committee for the Training of Teachers that

"All enrolments will be provisional and liable to cancellation on failure at the end of the first term to obtain the teaching mark of "G" in Methods and Practice, and an average mark of "G" in the other subjects,"

Despite the awesome nature of this threat, Training Authorities are as a rule reluctant to bundle out anyone neck and crop (although more will be said in this connection later), but the practice followed is to issue a solemn warning to those students whose work fails to reach the necessary standard that their possibilities as teachers are very limited. The amount of heed which is paid to the warning varies, and the result is either (a) an improvement in application and zeal or (b) the requirement of an additional session of training, or even more, until the Director of Studies is satisfied.

Enough has been said of the practical side of the work done in this course to give an idea of its adequacy, and we must not forget the other subjects.

The method adopted in the treatment of these subjects is to emphasise the 'methods' rather than the subject-matter - not in the worst sense, but in the sense that a knowledge of the subject-matter is taken for granted and an attempt is made to give some practical hints on the best devices for teaching.

Such a subject as hygiene, of course, is not so treated, and the need for some greater knowledge of the principles of health on the part of the teacher is recognised and met.

As regards phonetics and voice training, this part of the work is looked upon as a necessary evil by many of the students-in-training, but its importance cannot be sufficiently emphasised. The child who is in contact with the teacher for the greater part of his early years, when his habits of speech are being formed, cannot help being influenced to some extent, (and this is particularly true in the junior classes) by the manner of speech of his teacher.

Thus an attempt is made to correct any slovenliness of speech on the part of the students before it is perpetuated in the school. The success of the course depends, naturally, on the co-operation of the students, which varies greatly. I have in mind one outstanding case in my own experience where a student who suffered from a double impediment in his speech, - a "burr" and a "dark 'l'" - was able in the course of the session to master the difficulties in the pronunciation of both of these sounds under the direction of the instructor in phonetics.

Phonetics and voice-training should have a part in every programme of teacher-training - not elocution, which God forbid, but the real art of correct speech and the use of one's voice to the best advantage.

It must not be imagined for one moment that an unqualified certificate of excellence is automatically bestowed upon every Scottish graduate who completes this course. In the ranks of University graduates, as elsewhere, there are to be found those who are 'misfits'. The recent subsidising of education in Scotland by the Education Authorities in the

Counties and the generous assistance offered in the Universities by the Carnegie Trust, has led to the rise of a class of students who are not qualified to follow the best traditions of university learning. The commercial aspect everywhere becomes predominant, and many of this class, having cleared by the smallest possible margin the hurdles of the university degree examinations, ensconce themselves in the training colleges.

The merit of the system is that such students are to a greater or less degree found out there, and the nature of the certificate issued to them is usually a true reflex of their ability.

Fortunately for the state of education in Scotland, this class of student is still well in the minority, and the level of graduate teachers is highly satisfactory. The danger of a great influx to the ranks of teaching due to the attractions of an assured position and supposedly short hours is now being acutely felt, and the developments of recent years, which will be more fully discussed in our conclusion, are tending to a limitation of the numbers of students to be accepted for admission to training.

We come now to the discussion of the course of training which qualifies the main teaching body of the Protestant Public Schools in the Province of Quebec. The qualification is known as the Intermediate Diploma, and the admission requirements are the passing of the Grade XI examination (practically speaking, the equivalent of the Scottish School Leaving Certificate) and the attainment of the age of 17. Provision

is also made for the admission to the course from the period from Christmas to June of holders of the Elementary Diploma who have the necessary academic qualifications. The full duration of the Intermediate course is from September to June, or some 36 weeks.

The curriculum of the course is extensive and provides for most of the requirements of the school. Under the time-table at present in effect it is as follows:

SUBJECTS.	HOURS. Per Session.	Average per Week.
1. Education	108	3
2. Primary Methods	54	1½
3. Mathematics	108	3
4. English	108	3
5. Geography	54	1½
6. Physical Training	81	2¼
7. Scripture	54	1½
8. French	108	3
9. Manual Training	54	1½
10. Hygiene	27	¾
11. History	27	¾
12. Nature Study	27	¾
13. School practice	27	¾
14. Music	54	1½
15. Drawing	54	1½

The programme shown above, however, needs some explanation. In the first place, it must be mentioned that the students are divided into sections - in years when the numbers are large, into three sections, A,B and C - with about 50 students in each. This is not with a view to any distinction in the nature of the course but purely as a matter of convenience. This means in effect, that when there are three such sections, the instructors have to give the same lecture to three groups in the course of one or two days - a fact

which entails a considerable loss of time which might otherwise be more valuably spent by them.

The period of school practice shown above is apparently very small, but it must be mentioned that on the Wednesdays one section goes for practice teaching under supervision to the schools of Montreal. This means that under the existing arrangements each section makes some six trips to the city, and thus the student obtains an additional amount of school experience amounting to some thirty hours. Further, at the Christmas and Easter vacations, arrangements are made for the students to do practice teaching either in the schools of the city or, where this is possible, in schools near their homes. In this way, another nine days' teaching is obtained, or some 45 hours, and further practice is given in periods of 'intensive teaching' in the Macdonald High School for periods of three and five days at a time. The students thus add some eight days to their total of teaching, or another 40 hours, making a grand total of over 140 hours, or an average of about four hours per week over the whole course.

The time shown in the table above as school practice is that devoted to demonstration and criticism lessons in the Macdonald High School, and the students have the opportunity of seeing their fellows making the same mistakes to which they themselves are prone. It should be mentioned that the Macdonald High School has in all a little over 300 pupils, and there are available for the practice-teaching of the students eight classes - Grades I to VII, including two sections in Grade II.

The pupils in the school have thus a constant stream of student instructors while the practice teaching is in operation, two students at a time being assigned to each classroom, and the result is that they become thoroughly sated with students. Woe betide the unfortunate unsophisticated student who fails to meet the acid test! The degree of familiarity with which the pupils in some cases come to treat the students who are thrust upon them does much to breed contempt which in certain cases borders very closely upon insolence.

This is the side of the picture which shows the woes of the student: on the other hand, one cannot deny that the practice is an excellent discipline for the students and gives them an insight into what it means to be in charge of a class where personality counts for much. The practice is, as we have said, the acid test, and it does not take long for the students who give promise of real ability as teachers to make themselves conspicuous.

As regards the supervision of the teaching, the system may be briefly outlined as follows: In the case of the Wednesday visits to Montreal, the students are accompanied by the Dean and the lecturer in Education. Practice is done in four schools each week, the students being divided amongst them. Two lessons are previously assigned to each student, one for the morning and one for the afternoon, and each supervisor has the duty of seeing the students in two schools. The method is for each supervisor to visit one school in the morning and one in the afternoon, and this means that he is required to see and criticise some twelve or thirteen lessons

in the morning and a similar number in the afternoon - a total of about 25 lessons in some four hours, or about 10 minutes to each lesson.

The time allowance seems short, but it is remarkable how much one can see in that short period. The writer has had the privilege of accompanying the supervisors on their visits during the past year, and the system, while it may appear cramped when stated on paper, in reality enables one to form quite a satisfactory estimate of the student's powers and capabilities.

The practice teaching in the Macdonald High School, on the other hand, is open to supervision by all the members of the staff of the School for Teachers at any time at which they may be free to go there, and the estimate of the class teacher is also taken into account.

The intensive teaching at the Christmas and Easter vacations is supervised in the case of the city schools by the members of the college staff, and in certain cases students who are doing their teaching at home may be visited by a member of the staff to whom that area is accessible.

The matter of practice teaching has been sufficiently discussed and it remains for us to consider now the other subjects in the course of study. The subjects are dealt with generally in those points which are of interest to the teacher and particularly with reference to the syllabus of the work done in the Protestant schools of the Province. The fact that the curriculum is pretty well standardised for the whole province, and especially for the City of Montreal leads in some cases to a rather narrow treatment of certain aspects of

the subjects, but there is no doubt that the definite nature of the educational requirements in the Intermediate Schools makes it easier for the School for Teachers to supply students who have a thorough grasp of the main essentials of their job.

In some subjects there is a slight tendency for more time to be spent in actually teaching the students more about the subject itself than in showing them the method of imparting it, and while this may be all very well from one point of view, it must be remembered that the scholarship required for admission to the course is taken by the regulations as that of Grade XI. It would be foolish to argue that this standard is sufficient for a teacher, but it would be better to leave the furthering of the student's knowledge until after the year of training, and in the meantime teach him how to expound what he does know, which will probably be sufficient for the instruction of pupils up to Grade VII, which is the highest grade the student will likely have the opportunity of teaching in his first year. In fact, only a very few teachers are given this responsibility immediately.

The subject of French is of course compulsory for all teachers in the province, and, it may be argued, rightly so, but it must not on that account be inferred that every student who leaves college with a Diploma has the necessary ability to teach French. The French which is spoken by many - indeed the majority of the students, is very much "after the scole of Stratford-atte-Bowe", and one can easily see the reason for this as lying in the fact that their own teachers knew no

better. Much has been done recently to introduce specialist teachers of French, who have taken additional summer courses in the teaching of the subject, to the schools in the province, and this is a step in the right direction. It is farcical to ask students who have no ability in this direction to undertake the teaching of the subject, and the same may be said of the subjects of Art and Music, particularly the latter.

The students who come to the College have in many cases no previous musical training, and it is impossible for an instructor both to teach music and the art of teaching it in the short time allowed. In the case of the men students this musical ability is particularly lacking, and one is tempted to suggest that the time wasted - there is no other word for it - by the men on the pretended study of music, would be better spent in a course of real handwork or in a course of civics and economics which would be of some value to them in the teaching of the upper grades.

The fact that students have to teach these subjects and do so practically under coercion easily leads to the recognition that the results are commensurate with the antipathy shown.

It may not be amiss to say a few words regarding the composition of the body of students taking the Intermediate course. In previous years the number of men students has been small, rarely exceeding five or six, and has reflected the remuneration offered. This year the number is much larger, there being some twenty men students, and this development

may be traced, I think, rather to the prevailing situation in the economic world than to any appreciation of the nobility of the profession.

The remainder of the students are girls, some of whom have previously taken the Elementary Diploma and have returned to complete the course for the Intermediate Diploma.

In the present class, it is worthy of note that some 20% of the students are Jewish. This large proportion is a reflection of the growth of the Jewish population in Montreal. In the matter of education, the Jews are ranked with the Protestants, and the dictates of equity suggest that the Jewish pupils be taught by teachers of their own religious faith. The number of Jewish students who will receive appointments in the city of Montreal, which is practically the only place in the province in which they are allowed to teach, will probably be much smaller than the total taking the course.

The general educational standing of the students varies: some have been admitted 'on trial' under special regulations by the Central Board of Examiners without even the minimum academic qualifications, while others again have spent two or even three years in university courses, the results of which are at once apparent in the work done by these students.

Ability is certainly not lacking in the students as a whole, and while in some cases the educational system is to blame for the lack of a sufficient background, I have been impressed during the past year by the keenness and eagerness

shown in their work by the students. They realise the amount of work that has to be done in the one-year course and are not slow in its performance. A great degree of neatness is characteristic of their work in general, and in this respect the comparison with the graduate students in Scotland, whose three years' university course has made them somewhat careless, is to the advantage of the Quebec students.

Of course, as we said at the outset, it is unjust to compare a one-year course with one of three times that duration, but we must take things as they are, concluding that the Intermediate course gives a good general training for the type of work to be undertaken, and leaving suggestions as to its improvement to the concluding chapter of this work.

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CHAPTER V.

The third broad comparison to be undertaken is that between the Teachers of Special Subjects (i.e. the High School teachers) in Scotland and the High School teachers in Quebec. Here again it may be objected that the comparison is not parallel, but the answer is that the basis of comparison is that these teachers are recognised as holding the highest professional status.

Article 43 of the Regulations for the Training, etc., of Teachers in Scotland (1931)[1] reads as follows:

"Either apart from or in addition to recognition under Chapter IV of these regulations, a student may obtain a Certificate of special qualification (the Teacher's Special Certificate) to teach any of the following subjects:- English, History, Classics, a Modern Language other than English, Mathematics, Science, Geography, Economics. Training Authorities may admit to training for this special qualification applicants who hold the degree of a Scottish University (or other approved degree) with First or Second Class Honours in the subject to which their application relates, and also applicants who have obtained such Honours after graduation.

"In addition, every applicant for recognition in any Modern Language other than English must submit to such further test (oral or other) of knowledge of the language as the Department may impose, and must have spent a year of study,

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under conditions approved by the Department, in some country in which the language concerned is spoken."

This regulation shows us the high academic qualifications required for recognition to teach in secondary schools, and the development of a system of specialist teachers in the subjects of the secondary school curriculum has done much to raise the standard of secondary education. We may here remark that the system of specialisation is as yet in a primitive and undeveloped state in the Province of Quebec.

The duration of the course for the Special Certificate is, in the case of candidates who come direct from the university and have had no previous training, thirty-two weeks, and in the case of those who already hold the Teacher's General Certificate discussed in the previous chapter, a special ten-week short course is offered. In practice, many students coming direct from the university take both certificates, the work being done concurrently over a course of 40 weeks.

Only in very exceptional cases does a candidate hold a double honours degree, but recognition may be obtained in two subjects of different honours groups, e.g. Classics and English, at the discretion of the Training Authorities, in the usual term of training, in which case an equal number of hours is given to each subject. A condition of this concurrent training is that the two subjects for which the qualification is given be recognised by the Department as sufficiently cognate (or correlated) - as, e.g. Mathematics and Science or Classics and English.

If, however, the two subjects do not fulfil this requirement and are " wholly different in kind", as in the case

of Mathematics and Classics, the requirement is that an addition -al course be taken in the Methods and Practice of the second subject, extending to 180 hours, and the course is extended for an extra term.

Under Article 44 of the Regulations[1] provision is made for the inclusion in the course of instruction in General School Methods as well as in the practice of the special subjects, and training is also required in the organisation and management of Secondary schools in general.

A point which is worthy of especial note is the fact that candidates who have taken only the course for the Special Certificate, omitting the training for the General Certificate, are recognised as qualified to teach only in secondary schools, and the certificate issued to them does not qualify them to teach in Primary Schools. This provision obviates the danger of a teacher who has become thoroughly imbued with the academic spirit of the university being plunged into the teaching of children in the elementary classes of the school, where the teacher finds great difficulty in coming down to the level of the children, and the children are at the same time estranged by the apparent aloofness of the teacher.

It may be mentioned that the Honours examinations of the Scottish Universities are in many cases held towards the end of the month of September, with the result that the candidates who proceed to the training colleges at the beginning of October are mentally and physically worn out as the result of a prolonged

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1 p.12.

and searching examination. The effect of this is that their work in the training college suffers in a considerable measure during the earlier part of their course. Recognition of this has led recently to a movement to have the date of the Honours examinations changed to the month of June so as to obviate this inconvenience.

The following table gives us some idea of the contents of the course of study.

SUBJECTS.	AVERAGE HOURS PER WEEK.
1. Principles of Teaching (including Logic, Psychology, & Ethics)	3
2. Experimental Psychology	0.66
3. Education	3 or 4
4. Methods and Practice in Teaching	12
5. Secondary School Organisation and Management	0.33
6. Laboratory Arts (for Science Students)	2
7. Hygiene	1
8. Physical Training	2
9. Phonetics and Voice Training	1
10. Religious Instruction	1

In the case of the subjects numbered 1 and 3 above, exemption may be obtained on the score of sufficient previous university study in these subjects.

In Phonetics and Voice Training, the subject includes, in the case of English or any other Modern Language, a course in the phonetics relative to that language.

From the table, it will be seen that almost half of the time is spent in the practical work, and in the case of the Glasgow Training Centre, the practice followed is the same as that in the training for the General Certificate - namely periods of three weeks of alternate practice teaching and training college study. The first period of such teaching in

this course also extends to four weeks, and is usually spent in the upper classes of the Primary School with the idea, no doubt, of giving the student some conception of the background which precedes the first years of the Secondary School. The fact that the student has been away from the atmosphere of the Primary School for a period of some ten years is well worth remembering. The plunge into the past brings the realisation of the lapse of time and has a salutary effect on his outlook on school life in general.

The total period spent in teaching is again 16 four-day weeks, the Fridays being spent in the training college taking lectures in General Methods and the Special Subjects. As in the case of the General Certificate students, the discussion of these lectures is invaluable.

After the preliminary four weeks in Primary School work and three weeks in college, the student is assigned to a secondary school in the city, where he is under the supervision of the headmaster of the school, the principal teacher of his special subject, and also of the class teacher. Notice of visits by the college master of method for the special subject is given, and the practice usually followed is to visit each student about twice in the course of the three weeks. On these visits the methods master has the opportunity of seeing the student conduct a class for the regular school 'period' of 40-45 minutes and, as the result of his total observation, during which he is able to see the student in action in most of the classes, he is well qualified to form a satisfactory

estimate of his teaching capacities.

The principal teacher of the student's special subject, on the information obtained from his subordinate class teachers, and also on his own observation, submits an estimate of the student's work as well, and this is taken into account in the final adjudication.

In the case of students who take the Special Certificate and the General Certificate concurrently, the order of the work is as follows: (a) a three-week period of work in the training college, (b) three weeks in the primary school, (c) three weeks in college, (d) three weeks in the secondary school -- in regular rotation. The combined training thus obtained is very complete.

This completeness may be seen by referring to the course of study shown in the previous chapter, but it may be noticed that in the case of a student who chooses deliberately to omit the General Certificate qualification, as is possible in virtue of Article 46 of the Regulations, the tendency is for the curriculum to become unduly biased in the direction of the special subject. Thus in the case of a student who has taken in the course of his university work the classes necessary to secure exemption from the Education and part of the Principles of Teaching in the Training College syllabus, and who does not take the Laboratory Arts (for Science students only), the proportion of time left to be devoted to the other subjects is very small indeed. Fortunately, however, the usual practice is to take both courses concurrently, as we have said, and the

balance is thus preserved.

The most valuable feature of the course for the special certificate is that it serves to bring down the student from the plane of higher learning which has become characteristic of his latter days at the university. He is gradually brought to realise that the conditions of the school are different, no matter what some idealists would desire, from those of the university, and he has to learn how to adapt himself once again to conditions which he left behind him some four or five years previously.

The principal teachers of special subjects in the secondary schools in Scotland are generally men whom not mere length of service but real teaching ability has placed in their positions, and if the student is fortunate enough to be in close association with the principal teacher of his subject, he has an excellent opportunity of seeing the best methods in operation and, speaking from my own experience, I should say that the first three weeks' practice and observation in the secondary school is an invaluable aid to the student. Much, of course depends on the individual teacher, but it is the general rule that the student receives many helpful suggestions, and criticism is given, when asked for, in a spirit of friendliness and interest which does much to make the way of the student easy.

The methods masters in charge of the special subjects at the training colleges are men of outstanding reputation in their own subjects and contrive to give to the students in their lecture and demonstration courses an idea of methods which have

been proved by experience to be satisfactory in their results. A student who has the background of a university education is assumed to be capable of selecting and applying for himself that portion of the methods which he judges to be suitable to his own case.

Questions of curriculum are discussed in the meetings of the students, which practically amount to seminars, and the benefit of this method can easily be imagined. Complaints brought in from the schools regarding the text-books in use or methods adopted by particular teachers are discussed 'in camera' and the student is thus well prepared for the problems which he is likely to encounter in his actual school work.

The general result of the whole training is that it secures for the secondary schools of Scotland a standard of teaching which is uniformly high.

The course leading to the High School Diploma in the Province of Quebec may be taken, as we have mentioned, either at McGill University or at Bishop's College. In the case of the McGill students, the work has up to the present been combined with the four-year course leading to the B.A. degree and certain subjects of the B.A. course are compulsory for the High School Diploma. These are: English, French, and three of the following: Latin, History, Mathematics, a Science subject. This is rendered necessary by the fact that it is not the rule in the province to have specialist teachers of all subjects in high schools, but rather for the teacher to have the responsibility of teaching all the subjects up to Grade XI standard.

In addition to the compulsory subjects stated, the candidates for the Diploma are required to take two courses in Education (Education I and II), Course I being taken usually in the third year of the course and Course II in the last year.

These courses meet three times each per week over the full university session, and thus involve a total attendance of some 75 hours each.

Special classes also are obligatory in the teaching of the subjects of French, Music and Drawing. These classes are held in the afternoons and are taken during the latter part of the course over a period extending from October to February or about 15 weeks, with one hour's instruction per week in each. They are conducted in Montreal High School by fully-qualified exponents in each case, and are of considerable value to the students.

Perhaps the most important part of the whole training, however, is the practice teaching. The minimum requirement, which is, owing to the circumstances, usuallly also the maximum, is fifty half-days. This is done in the city schools and is supervised by the Dean of the School for Teachers at Macdonald College, who is also a professor of Education in McGill University. This is in a sense the only real link between the affiliated College and the University itself in the matter of teacher-training, but as will be seen later, an attempt will probably be made in the near future to bring the university into closer touch with the School for Teachers at Macdonald College.

The fact that the practice-teaching is done during

the university vacations enables complete concentration for the somewhat short period, and the practice is to have arrangements made for each student to teach two lessons each morning and one lesson in the afternoons on the days when he is not required to attend for criticism lessons along with others at a certain school. The students are divided into two groups, one of which attends for criticism lessons while the other remains in the schools.

The period of practice-teaching is short, and must require considerable effort on the part of the supervisor, but the wide experience of the man at present in charge is a sufficient guarantee of thoroughness in the work done.

As we have said above, a recent development has taken place in McGill University in connection with the training of high school teachers. Under the sponsorship of the Professor of Education recently appointed, a scheme has been proposed and approved for a year's post-graduate course as an alternative to the method at present in effect. Professor Clarke, on coming to the Province of Quebec must, like any other with experience of teacher-training in Great Britain, have been struck by the somewhat undeveloped state of the training system in general. No reflections, be it understood, can be or should be cast on any individual. The difficulties are not of a personal but rather of a circumstantial nature. While the need for a post-graduate year of professional training may seem apparent, it must be remembered that the B.A. course extends over four years and involves a considerable expenditure. Add to this another

year and we have the straw which, in effect, breaks the camel's back. The fact is that the remuneration offered in the teaching profession (and particularly in the earlier stages of high school work) is by no means commensurate with the time, effort and money expended. When we remember that the student coming direct from high school and taking the one-year course leading to the Intermediate Diploma at Macdonald College starts under the Montreal School Board at a salary of $1300 (for males), or $200 per annum less than his graduate confrere who has spent four years in his preparation, we see the force of this.

Of course, it may be pointed out that the possibilities of increment in high school work are greater, but it may be answered to this objection that a capable male teacher with the Intermediate Diploma has bright prospects and an almost certain principalship assured to him in the near future.

The difficulties of the situation have been borne in mind in the framing of the new course, and since the obstacles in the way of making such a course compulsory at first have been fully realised, it is being offered as an alternative, and hopes are entertained firstly of a greater remuneration for those who thus equip themselves and secondly, of its eventually becoming the regular course. How far these hopes will be realised time alone will show.

The main criticisms which can be offered against the present system may be briefly stated before we proceed to an outline of the proposed new course.

In the first place, there is too much of a divorce

between lecture-room study and the practical studies in school. This objection, of course, can be offered to many systems of training where the university and the training college are difficult to bring into alignment.

Secondly, the simultaneous pursuit of the courses on the one hand for the university degree and on the other for training purposes makes for a tendency to 'scamp' one part or other of the course.

Thirdly, we must note the insufficiency or lack of certain subjects in the course such as: Physiology, Educational Psychology, Phonetics and Voice Training.

In the scheme proposed for introduction in the session 1932-33, some attempt is made to remedy the defects suggested in the above criticism. The outline of the course is briefly as follows:

1. Education I and II.
2. Psychology.
3. Special courses.
4. Physiology.
5. Phonetics and Voice-Training.
6. The existing courses in Montreal High School.
7. Practice Teaching.

It will thus be seen that the proposed scheme is somewhat wider in its scope and includes some necessary elements which have hitherto been lacking. The only danger will be that of treating certain subjects, e.g. Psychology and Physiology, too little from the aspect of their practical value to the teachers. With due care, this can be avoided, and the course will only show its merits or defects in operation. Any new scheme has its dangers, but we must withhold criticism until after the event.

In the matter of practice teaching, I understand that an attempt will be made to cement the relations between the School for Teachers at Macdonald College and the Education department at McGill by having the practice teaching done in the Macdonald High School, possibly still under the supervision of the Dean of the School for Teachers. The arrangements have not as yet been publicly announced, but the suggestion is an excellent one. There is no need to have two struggling schools of education when they can work in harmony together.

We turn now to the course offered for the High School Diploma by Bishop's College, Lennoxville. In this case, the B.A. course extends over only three years (the session being somewhat longer than that at McGill), and the Diploma is obtainable only after a year of post-graduate work. The work done is very thorough, and the courses are as follow:

1. History of Education.
2. Principles of Secondary Education.
3. Methods of Teaching.
4. Special Methods of Teaching.
5. School Management and Law.
6. Educational Measurement.
7,8,9. Practice Teaching.

In connection with the last item, we may quote from the Calendar:[1]

"7,8,9. Practice Teaching. - This course consists of actual class-room teaching under supervision. Students will be given sections of the high school curriculum to teach and will be held responsible for teaching these units of subject-

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1 The Calendar of Bishop's University. - 1931-32, p.88.

matter. Lesson-plans will be required, and the teaching closely watched and fully criticized. Successful teaching is essential to the securing of a high school diploma."

Here it may be noted that the number of students in training for the high school diploma is not so large as that at McGill. The average number at McGill per annum is in the neighbourhood of 30, while at Bishop's the average is just about half of that number. This fact, of course, makes for greater attention to the individual students, and generally, the whole year devoted to the professional training and preparation cannot but have a salutary effect.

Provision is also made for the issue of Special High School Certificates, qualifying to teach special subjects in which honours courses have been taken by university graduates, by the Central Board of Examiners, but these are not valid for the Principalship of a High School unless so endorsed by the Director of Protestant Education.

It is fairly obvious, from the references already made, that the system of secondary education in the Province of Quebec is quite different from that of Scotland. In Scotland the high schools are in the main staffed by specialist teachers: in Quebec they are not. The reason for this is not hard to find. The population is more scattered in Quebec, particularly the English-speaking population, hence the need arises for small schools in which it often falls to the lot of one teacher to teach several grades. In a school which comprises in its 11 grades some 100 pupils in all, it is obviously impossible to

have specialist teachers for each subject. Often the principal has to teach Grades IX, X, and XI himself and supervise the work of the school as well. This means in effect that a general rather than a specialised training is needed for the main teaching body. Steps have of course been taken for the provision of special teachers of French, Music, Handwork, and Art, especially in the city schools, and, in the case of French, more generally in the Province.

These 'French specialists', as they are called, are not specialists in the sense that they necessarily have taken honours university courses in French, but are in most cases practically bilingual through being born of French and English parents. Special summer courses may be taken leading to the recognition as 'French specialists', but it is not merely an academic qualification which fits the teachers who occupy these positions; in fact, they are, as it were, carefully 'hand picked'.

While it is true that specialist teachers are an impossibility in the rural districts, one feels nevertheless that more could be done with advantage in this matter in the cities.

There is no doubt that progress has been made, if somewhat slowly, in the training of high-school teachers, and we can only hope that, as the result of the recent developments in McGill and a general appreciation of the greater needs as education advances, that progress will be maintained.

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CHAPTER VI.

Before we come to a general summing-up of the position we may note that in addition to the classes of teachers previously described there are others, both in Scotland and in Quebec.

In Quebec there is the Kindergarten Director's Diploma, issued after a very thorough course extending over three years - two years of supervised practice in the schools of Montreal, and one year of practical and theoretical work at Macdonald College. The Kindergarten class in the city schools of Montreal is rather a sociological than a purely educational institution, the object being rather the solution of the social problem of the pre-school years than the teaching of the rudimentary school subjects. It is however made explicit in the Macdonald College Announcement[1] that it is hoped to prepare the Kindergarten Directors "for the difficult task of training young children effectually in the rudiments of ordinary school work in succession to the work of the Kindergarten, bridging over the chasm that too frequently separates the Kindergarten from the Primary Class."

The work done in the city schools is very successful, and the Kindergarten Directors, with the thorough training they have received, are able to make great progress in the pre-school years. It is unfortunate that the numbers of students

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1 Twenty-fifth Announcement, 1931-32, p.98.

in training for the Kindergarten Director's Diploma are small, there being only one in the Macdonald College course at present, but it must be remembered that the demand is not heavy.

The teachers of technical subjects, such as handwork, in the Province of Quebec, do not have any specially organised course provided for them at a teacher's training college, as is the case in Scotland where, in accordance with Chapter VI of the Regulations, the Teacher's Technical Certificate is issued after a course of training of varying length, as a qualification for teachers of such subjects as Art, Applied Science or Technical Industry, Agriculture or Horticulture, Commercial Subjects, Domestic Economy, Physical Education, Educational Handwork and Music.

The general training, in the case of the Scottish teachers, includes such subjects as Hygiene, Physical Training, Phonetics, and such other subjects as may be relative to the technical subjects taught, together with a course of practice in the special subject extending from 300 to as much as 390 hours.

This condition is interesting as throwing further light on that aspect of training which is the subject of this thesis, as has been made clear in the preface. The point is that we have two systems of teacher-training which have a general basis of comparison in the fact that they provide three main classes of teachers for the general school subjects. As we have said, however, the comparison is entirely from the evolutionary standpoint. In Quebec conditions have been and still are

against the development to the logical, or rather ideal, conclusion. The result is that the training system is in general somewhat behind that of such a Province as Ontario, where conditions are quite different. In Ontario, the Protestant-Catholic ratio of population is quite the reverse of that in Quebec, and the result is that the English-speaking communities have been able to develop the educational system with much greater freedom.

It is no disgrace to the Protestant people of the Province of Quebec that the system is as it is; rather must we assign all credit to the Department of Education for the fight which it is making to secure trained teachers for the schools.

When we remember that there are in parts of the province places in isolated districts where there are only six or seven English-speaking families, and that they have practically to provide their own educational facilities, it may easily be seen that it is impossible for them to pay a trained teacher: in fact, no trained teacher (or indeed any other) could be prevailed upon to live under the conditions which exist in some of the more isolated spots in the province.

There are so many rural elementary schools in Quebec where the numbers of pupils are so small that salaries are necessarily meagre, that it is in the nature of things that the ten-week course of training should continue in operation. Attempts have been made to improve upon it but have so far failed. We may hope that some day the duration of the elementary course will be extended to a year. The experiences of David Stow in

the matter of the extension of the training period are illustrative of the development that can take place under conditions which are not too adverse. In Quebec, however, things are different, and unless there is a great change in rural conditions, there does not seem to be much prospect of improvement as regards the length of training.

From one point of view, there is a gleam of hope in the fact that there is a migration to larger centres which, combined with the gradual absorption by inter-marriage of the English-speaking families in rural communities, may eventually lead to the dying-out altogether of English-speaking people in the rural districts.

The bright spot is in the fact that the numbers of untrained rural teachers have been brought within a decade from almost 300 to under 100 and, while the number is yet large as judged by any absolute standard, the decrease must be regarded as a highly satisfactory development and a guarantee of further progress wherever possible.

To come to the Intermediate teachers of Quebec, it must be recognised that the standard of their work is very satisfactory, considering the deficiencies, in many cases, of the rural schools in which they were educated. From the evidence I have seen on visiting the city schools in Montreal, I should say that there is apparently more general interest in their work than is shown in the ordinary schools of Scotland. There seems to be a healthy spirit of rivalry in the matter of brightening the classroom, and I have been impressed by this same

spirit among the students at Macdonald College. No matter what project may be assigned in connection with the general work of the course, the artistic level is always uniformly high. Some of the creative work which I have seen done by the students is of an order which would do credit to any teaching body.

If any criticism or suggestion of improvement in the training is to be offered, I would refer once again to the subjects of Music and Art, which might rather be optional, and those who have not the aptitude for these subjects might be given such a choice as I have already indicated - Handwork, Civics, or Economics. While there is no organised course in speech training, it must not be imagined that deficiencies in speech are not criticised: still, one feels that a regularly organised course in Phonetics and Voice-training would be of considerable value.

These are again matters which are rather a question of development in a system. If the need becomes sufficiently felt, the requirements will no doubt be met.

A course of one year's duration from the stage of the school leaving examination is in many respects dangerously short. Few would deny that two years would enable a greater range of training to be given, but conditions hitherto have been against this development also. The fact that Macdonald College is a residential college, with most of the students living at considerable distances from their homes, makes the expense of training very high, and, as we have previously pointed out, financial conditions, which are impossible to alter, do not

offer satisfactory remuneration for a longer period of training.

If however, as has been the case in Scotland, the numbers of those in training as teachers gradually increase until there is an excess of supply over demand, the development may possibly take place.

In this point the comparison with Scotland is interesting. After a long struggle, the minimum duration of any general course was raised to two years. Increases in numbers recently have made possible a further year's extension, and the minimum period is now three years. Subsidised school and university education combine to entice prospective teachers to spend the extra year in securing a university degree as well, with the attendant increase of pay.

The numbers of 'ordinary' graduates have in late years increased to a remarkable extent, and the result has been a glut of teachers which has had one satisfactory result - that of inducing specialisation to obtain an assured position.

Everything has been in favour of development along these lines in Scotland - a well-established national system of education, with a minimum national scale of salaries for the teachers, and subsidised education for those in need from school right through to the university. In rural districts the policy of centralisation has within the last decade played a great part. The pupils, on the attainment of the age of 11 or 12 and the passing of the 'qualifying' or 'control' examination, are transferred to either the central high school or advanced division, where the course is open to the university or a technical training.

All this has combined to facilitate education. The country is small and centralisation is easy to bring into effect. Conditions in Quebec are entirely different; progress must of necessity be slower and is along certain lines completely blocked.

The numbers of students who have qualified recently as teachers in Scotland are so great that many who finished their training college courses two and even three years ago have not yet secured permanent appointments. This has given rise to a somewhat drastic step - to be taken in 1932-33 - that of limiting the numbers of students to be accepted for training in Scotland to a total of 1000.

I am afraid it will be a long time ere it will be necessary to take such a step in the Province of Quebec. For men in particular there is no great attraction in the profession, and a university course leading to a commercial career gives much greater prospect of material success. It is small wonder that young men are not attracted to teaching.

Another point of interest from the aspect of the gradual development of the training system is the fact that in the Province of Quebec, dating from June 1929, all diplomas will be interim in character. They will be valid for one year, and on the inspector's report of successful work done during that period, will be extended for another year, at the end of which time they will be made permanent on the same terms that applied to the extension.

This is a valuable provision and we may notice that it is similar to the practice which has long been in effect in

Scotland. The student, on completion of his course, is awarded the interim "Teacher's Probation Certificate" (Form 69T.), which, after satisfactory teaching for a period of two years, on the report of the Chief Inspector for the Division, may be exchanged for the appropriate form of Teacher's Certificate.

This is a reasonable and useful safeguard against the odd case where a student may elude the vigilance of the training authorities and escape with a diploma when he is not worthy of it.

The problem of the unsuccessful teacher may be solved in various ways. In the Province of Quebec the practice of engaging a teacher under contract for one year is in this respect admirable. The incompetent teacher simply does not have the comtract renewed, and thus a school is safeguarded against the permanent infliction of one whose abilities are insufficient to meet the minimum demands. In Scotland, a teacher may be dismissed for incompetence, but only after abundant proof and by a two-thirds majority of the education committee under which he is serving.

The Quebec system has the advantage above stated, but lacks the security of tenure of the Scottish system. Thus a teacher may find herself without a contract for no other reason than that the Chairman of the School Board wishes to have his niece engaged as the local teacher. Here again we may foresee a development which will give the teacher some option in the matter of re-engagement.

The difficulty has been mentioned in a previous

chapter of having so much of the practice teaching of the Quebec students done in one school. The solution of the problwm is apparently perfectly simple. Transfer the training college to the city of Montreal and everything will be rendered easy. However, the solution is not so simple as all that.

Although there are at Macdonald College three schools, the School of Agriculture, the School of Household Science, and the School for Teachers, the tendency seems to be towards a falling-off in the numbers of Agriculture students, particularly from the Province of Quebec, and the transference of the School for Teachers would leave a serious problem as to the disposal of the buildings and in fact would seriously interfere with the financial basis of the college.

Again, the residential system, as we have noted, makes for a steady level of work. In the city the distractions would be greater and the work could hardly be covered in the short time available.

On the other hand, there can be no doubt that a greater variety of practice teaching in the city schools, which is to some extent given by the Wednesday visits of the students in the Intermediate Class, is desirable. The objection is that it would be difficult to obtain the necessary facilities from the Montreal School Board, and while it is true that the regular work of the school is to some extent interfered with by the visits of the students, one feels that greater facilities for practice would in the end be reflected in the work done in the schools.

At any rate, conditions at the present time do not point to any transference, and the chances are that Macdonald College will continue to be the Normal School which provides the great majority of the Protestant teachers in the province.

In conclusion, we may remark that the status of the teacher has always been higher in Scotland than in Quebec, and natural conditions have led to a regular and systematic development of a training system. In Quebec, on the other hand, the development has been slower, as is only natural in face of the conditions, but nevertheless it has been, and continues to be, on a broad basis, a development in a similar direction.

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