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NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* Dr. R.G. Glassford

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DATED/*DATÉ* May 26, 1975 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ* Don Morrow

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXÉ*

Don Morrow
c/o Faculty of Physical Education
University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

# SELECTED TOPICS IN THE HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN ONTARIO: FROM DR. EGERTON RYERSON TO THE STRATHCONA TRUST 1844-1939

by

© L. DONALD MORROW

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled SELECTED TOPICS IN THE HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN ONTARIO: FROM DR. EGERTON RYERSON TO THE STRATHCONA TRUST 1844-1939 submitted by L. DONALD MORROW in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Supervisor

Gerald Redmond
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.....

.....
External Examiner

Date May 26, 1975

## ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the influence of selected individuals and important factors on the development of physical education in the elementary and secondary schools of the province of Ontario from 1844 to 1939. This development was found to be closely related to general educational changes which occurred during these years. Three primary topics were chosen for discussion, namely, the role of Egerton Ryerson in the emergence of physical education in Ontario, 1844 to 1876; the implementation of physical training programmes, 1877 to 1908; the contributions of the Strathcona Trust to physical education programmes within the province, 1909 to 1939. It was determined that individuals such as Egerton Ryerson, James L. Hughes, Sir Frederick W. Borden and Lord Strathcona exerted the greatest impact on the development of physical education in Ontario. In addition, the important factors of teacher training programmes, books, manuals and syllabuses, the federal Militia Department and the Strathcona Trust were found to have produced the most significant changes in physical education in the province.

# PREFACE

The amount of material pertaining to Canadian sport history has been steadily increasing ever since the publication of the textbook, Sports and Games in Canadian Life, 1700 to the Present.[1] Completed research in this area of academic inquiry has taken the form of theses and dissertations which have examined various sports[2] and factors which have influenced the development and dispersion of sporting activities.[3] On the other hand, few historical studies have been directed at the evolution of physical education programmes in the schools of Canada. Two general works, one by Cosentino and Howell[4] and the other edited by Van Vliet,[5] have been written. Each of these achieved the much needed result of indicating trends in the history of physical education in Canada, and, along with Kennedy's dissertation pertaining to teacher training in health and physical education,[6] have formed the backbone of historical investigation into physical education programmes.

Because every province was guaranteed educational autonomy under the provisions of the British North America Act, a true understanding of the history of physical education in Canada can only be gained from specific, provincial studies in that branch of pedagogical

instruction in relation to the educational framework itself.[7] This dissertation represents an attempt to study some conspicuous aspects of the development of physical education programmes in the elementary and secondary schools of Ontario. The influence of individuals such as Egerton Ryerson, James L. Hughes, E.B. Houghton, Sir Frederick W. Borden and Lord Strathcona was discussed and factors such as teacher training programmes, books, manuals and syllabuses used in the actual physical training programmes, the federal Militia Department and the Strathcona Trust were examined and analyzed.

The concept, physical education, was defined in its narrowest sense as being deliberate or systematic physical training undertaken in the classroom, or, during regular school hours. Thus, it was discussed as one branch or subject within the educational curriculum. As Brailsford contends:

> Both the historians of sport and the historians of physical education are inclined to cover much common ground. There is a strong tendency for historical accounts of physical education to include all developments of sport and exercise, whether they are in an educational context or not, while histories of sport wander at will in and out of the schools. The pursuit of sport may or may not be directly connected with deliberate training....[8]

It was not until the late 1930's that sports and games

became accepted parts of the course in physical training in both elementary and secondary schools in the province. The dates 1844 and 1939 were chosen in order to trace the growth of and changes in physical training programmes from their origin in military drill through the various forms of calisthenic exercises up to the incorporation of sports and games in the curriculum of instruction.

Secondary sources, mostly in the form of theses and dissertations completed at the University of Toronto were relied upon to provide information about educational developments in general during the period under review. Whenever possible, primary source material obtained from the National Archives in Ottawa, the Ontario Archives in Toronto and the Department of National Defence in Ottawa was employed in an effort to present concrete facts and to make logical interpretations based upon such facts.

## NOTES

[1]M. Howell and N. Howell, Sports and Games in Canadian Life, 1700 to the Present (Toronto: Macmillan Co. of Canada Ltd., 1969).

[2]Most notable in this category are the first three doctoral dissertations completed in the area of Canadian sport history: P.L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1969); A.E. Cox, "A History of Sports in Canada 1868-1900" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1969); K.G. Jones, "Sport in Canada - 1900 to 1920" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1970).

[3]Some of these include: I.F. Jobling, "Sport in Nineteenth Century Canada: The Effects of Technological Changes on Its Development" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1970); G. Redmond, "The Scots and Sport in Nineteenth Century Canada" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1972); F. Cosentino, "A History of the Concept of Professionalism in Canadian Sport" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1973); R.S. Lappage, "Selected Sports and Canadian Society 1921-1939" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1974).

[4]F. Cosentino and M.L. Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada (Toronto: General Publishing Company Limited, 1971).

[5]M.L. Van Vliet, editor, Physical Education in Canada (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Limited, 1965).

[6]W.F.R. Kennedy, "Health, Physical Education and Recreation in Canada: A History of Professional Preparation" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1955).

[7]Several provincial histories of this nature have been completed to date. For example: D.A. Downie, "A History of Physical Education in the Public Schools of Manitoba" (unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of

Manitoba, 1961); S. Gill, "A History of Physical Education in New Brunswick Schools" (unpublished M.Sc. thesis, University of Maine, 1963). There is also a thesis, H.W. Copp, "The History of Physical Education and Health in the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Ontario Canada" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Michigan, 1933). However, it represents a pioneer effort to sketch the history of physical education and health teaching in Ontario's schools. This entire history is contained in about sixty pages and some of it is mistaken in factual content.

[8]D. Brailsford, Sport and Society: Elizabeth to Anne (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1969), p. 3.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

> You have a most beautiful and admirably constructed jointed and flexible skeleton, and attached to it are nearly half a thousand muscles - making up half the gross weight of the body - the sole function of which is to produce motion: and do not all these proclaim that you are formed for physical action?[1]

Contemporary physical education programmes in Ontario reflect the practical realization of man's basic need to be physically active. Physical education has achieved full curricular status in the province's secondary schools. Yet in the elementary schools, wherein the children are at a very critical and impressionable stage of their lives, physical education programmes are only recently beginning to be established. Many of the reasons for this dichotomy result from historical antecedents. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of selected individuals and important factors on the development of physical education in the elementary and secondary schools of the province of Ontario between the years 1844 and 1939.

The thesis was delimited to the concept of physical education which is defined as systematic physical training conducted within regular school hours. The study was

confined to an examination of the development of physical education within the public educational institutions now known as elementary and secondary schools in Ontario. In the same vein, only those teacher training institutions sponsored by the Ontario Department of Education were discussed in reference to their influence upon the evolution of physical education within the province. The focus of the study was on policy-making, particularly on administrative guidelines established by the Department of Education. However, the practical results of the Department's decisions and regulations were indicated whenever possible. The period of time under consideration was bounded by the year 1844, which represents the beginning of Dr. A. Egerton Ryerson's career as Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada (Ontario),[2] and by the year 1939 which approximates the time at which the physical education programmes in the schools shifted from the domination of military influences to the more modern reliance upon sports and games in the curriculum.

The body of knowledge pertaining to the history of physical education in Ontario is fragmentary. For example, researchers such as Munro,[3] Cosentino and Howell;[4] Passmore[5] and Lindsay[6] have emphasized Ryerson's action in publishing a series of gymnastic exercises in the Journal of Education for Upper Canada in 1852. However,

no attempt was made in any of these publications or in more specific studies[7] to delineate the actual impact which Ryerson had on the development of physical education in Ontario. This study can be justified on the basis of its attempt to relate Ryerson's role in the latter regard as well as on the merits of its concentration upon the events of the transitional period 1877 to 1908[8] and upon the influence of the Strathcona Trust within the province. The present status of physical education in Ontario can only be understood in relation to its historical foundations.

Several limitations of the study must be noted. A considerable proportion of the data pertaining to Ryerson and the events which occurred between 1844 and 1876 was taken from secondary sources; the thesis did not discuss or relate to physical education from an extra-curricular perspective; while policy-making at the Department of Education level applied to all school districts from counties to cities, the available data tended to apply more to urban than rural schools; finally, the study was limited by the fact that it was based upon post hoc research.

Throughout the research phase of the thesis and the actual interpretation of the facts every effort was made to rely upon primary sources such as the Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, physical training manuals and syllabuses, Ontario

Department of Education files located in the Ontario Archives and the files pertaining to the Strathcona Trust which are stored in the Department of National Defence buildings in Ottawa. The results of the research were analyzed and presented in relation to general educational developments and the conclusions which were made were based upon reasonable inferences of the findings.

NOTES

[1]Elementary Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene for the Use of Schools and Families (Toronto: Hart and Rawlinson, 1879), n.p.

[2]C. E. Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada (Toronto: W. J. Gage and Company Limited, 1957), p. 258.

[3]I. Munro, "The Early Years," in Physical Education in Canada, ed. by M. L. Van Vliet (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1965), p. 2.

[4]F. Cosentino and M. L. Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada (Don Mills, Ontario: General Publishing Company Limited, 1971), p. 13.

[5]J. H. Passmore, "Teacher Education," in Physical Education in Canada, ed. by M. L. Van Vliet, p. 53.

[6]P. L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1969), pp. 336-337.

[7]S. Carlton, "Egerton Ryerson and Educatin in Ontario, 1844-1877" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1950); H. W. Copp, "The History of Physical Education and Health in the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Ontario Canada" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Michigan, 1933); W.F.R. Kennedy, "Health, Physical Education and Recreation in Canada: A History of Professional Preparation" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1955).

[8]It is significant that the findings of the present study relative to the years between 1844 and 1900 corroborate those made by Metcalfe in, A. Metcalfe, "Physical Education in Ontario During the Nineteenth Century," Journal of the Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Vol. 37, No. 1 (September-October 1970), 29-33.

# CHAPTER II

## THE ROLE OF EGERTON RYERSON IN THE EMERGENCE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN ONTARIO 1844-1876

> By education, I mean not the acquisition of certain branches of knowledge, but that instruction and discipline which qualify and dispose the subjects of it for their appropriate duties and employments in life, as Christians, as persons of business, and also as members of the civil community in which they live.
>
> Dr. Egerton Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 8 (Feb., 1855), p. 17.

Dr. Ryerson's definition of education was probably grandiloquent even when he recorded it in the Journal of Education for Upper Canada some eleven years after his tenure as Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada had begun. In 1855 Ryerson was only beginning to mould Ontario's system of education. It was not until the latter decades of the nineteenth century that educational practice actually reflected such a lofty characterization.

### The Development of Education in Ontario to 1840

Prior to the 1840's education had received very little public or governmental attention:

> ...at the time of the Act of Union, the condition of the province as regards school buildings, school equipment and school teachers was, to say the least, lamentable. The chief reason for this condition can be attributed to the fact that the authorities tried to construct their educational pyramid from the apex downwards. This was the case from the very beginning. Simcoe had tried to make Canada into another England; the main concern of the authorities was the education of the aristocracy.[1]

Dupuis' pyramidal interpretation of the structure of early education in Upper Canada is indeed an accurate description of the situation. There was no legislation pertaining to elementary or common schools until 1816. In point of fact, the first educational act that was passed was one which concerned itself solely with secondary or grammar schools:

> The Legislative Assembly of Upper Canada recognized its responsibilities in the educational field in a somewhat inconsistent fashion by concerning itself with secondary and post-secondary education before it made any provision for elementary schooling. In 1796, the Assembly petitioned for a respectable grammar school in each district, and also a college or university. For these purposes, 450,000 acres of Crown lands were set aside, but little was done. Several private schools financed by students' fees were operating in Upper Canada at the turn of the century teaching such subjects as reading and writing, English grammar, composition, bookkeeping, arithmetic, history, oratory, Latin and Greek. For many the first schools were Sunday Schools. In 1807 the District Public School Act was passed which did not establish public education but which resulted

> in the opening of a few grammar schools to prepare the sons of the well-to-do for university. A Church of England clergyman was in charge of each one.
>
> Community schools had their beginnings when groups of parents in various localities erected log school houses and engaged teachers. These schools, called common schools, were formally recognized by the Common School Act of 1816 which provided for the election of trustees and payment of public monies for the teacher's salary if the community had erected a school house and could claim twenty pupils. A sum of £6,000 was provided for the purposes of this act. Three trustees were to be in control of the school in the community; textbooks were to be selected from a supplied list.[2]

The entire period prior to the 1840's was one of experimentation and pioneer efforts in society and government and therefore in education as well. As Bockus pointed out, school and society alike vascillated between the choices of becoming satellites of British imperialism or joining the "subtler imperialism of American frontier expansion."[3] Yet the upper classes had been quick to establish private schools and grammar schools for their sons and, moreover, to have them recognized by officialdom in 1807. Common schools were built partly as a reaction to a growing need for education for all classes of society and in part as a measure of opposition to the exclusiveness and class prejudice so prevalent in the existing grammar school system.[4] Further, administrative control and financial support for public education before

1840 were both delayed because the variety of immigrant groups could not decide upon a mutual approach to resolve the question of education. Pioneer conditions of settlement and public apathy were also major deterrents. Even within the grammar schools the only goal of education was to give a classical education to boys from upper class families in order to prepare such young men for leadership within the colony.[5]

The very fact that first steps were taken in establishing common schools indicates nothing about the quality of instruction or the subjects taught. In the latter case it may safely be assumed that children spent most of their school hours making "pot-hooks and trammels"[6] and learning to read. The poor condition of schools and schooling was reflected, too, in teaching. The "profession" was seen as the last vestige of decency for work and teaching employment offered only a small salary at that.[7] The typical teacher was male and British-born:

> In every part of the province, from the earliest days of settlement, schools were founded, usually as the result of direct community action, but occasionally as the result of the arrival in an area of some pedagogical entrepreneur who offered to hold school, probably because he was incapable of doing anything else.[8]

There were, certainly, no teachers' colleges and the lack of uniformity in education across the province was com-

pounded by the fact that each school area was a law unto itself.[9] Teachers, therefore, were a curious breed; most of the early common schools in Carleton County were conducted by ex-soldiers.[10] Understandably, most teachers were more concerned with making a living rather than with giving an education.[11]

It would be redundant to describe the nature of the typical school of the period except to note briefly the crudeness of the rural school houses which were

> ...generally small, few exceeding 20x24 feet, and all were alike destitute of Maps and Blackboards. The building consisted of one room only, with an old wood stage in the centre; - the seats and desks were placed all round two or three sides of the Building, and directly facing the windows, consisting of 12 lights in each, 7x9 inches, or 8x10. There were no Playgrounds, nor Closets, - the Highway was occupied for the former, and adjoining woods for the latter.[12]

It is not difficult to surmise the importance of physical education within the "curriculum" of these early school teachers and their schools.

The outstanding educational figure was, of course, Bishop John Strachan. Strachan had been influential in forming the 1807 legislation regarding grammar schools and for that reason he has been characterized as the embodiment of Toryism, particularly in the Home District.[13] Few historians give Strachan proper credit for the role

he played in the passing of the Common School Act of 1816.[14] Strachan was appointed head of the General Board of Education which was established in 1823 by Sir Peregrine Maitland to supervise schools and to authorize textbooks for the use of schools. The Board went out of existence without replacement some ten years later.

By 1840 Upper Canada's school system was, despite, Strachan's influence, at best disorganized both administratively and financially. Monitorial schools and schooling had been attempted at York and Kingston and they had succeeded in providing some education for children of the less affluent members of society who would otherwise never have received any education.[15] The problem was not one of lack of concern on the part of politicians but rather a lack of agreement upon one single system to adopt and mould in Upper Canada:

> Although there had been some increase in school grants and some improvement in local financing, the impermanence of the grant, most of it renewable on a year-to-year basis, and the lack of a sound system of local taxation led to considerable uncertainty, and failed to provide the means whereby the systems could be expanded and educational opportunity extended.[16]

Public apathy under pioneer conditions must certainly have been a contributing factor in impeding the growth of a public educational system. The question of whether

to establish sectarian or non-sectarian schools, or both, also hindered progress in unifying pedagogy. The fear of an uneducated mind was a paramount concern of educational promoters:

> The equation of ignorance and vice, schooling and docility, was to appear in the arguments of politicians of all parties throughout the period.[17]

Few teachers or politicians were concerned with the physical activity levels of their pupils and in a rural-agrarian society they probably had no reason to worry about the physical exercise of the pupils. In point of fact,

> ...people did not expect that the schools would be concerned with more than practical matters. Schools were the right arm of the churches in the moral and ethical training of the young. Children were regarded as basically evil and depraved creatures whose salvation depended on their being disciplined severely.[18]

Play was equated with idleness and was definitely not viewed by educators as an agent of the child's moral development. If a common school had any type of facility for play or games it was purely the result of the whim of a particular teacher or particular community. One school in Bertie Township, in 1826, reported:

> Opposite the School House and fastened to the boughs of lofty beech and maple trees are placed two swings, made of

> the bark of the elm and basswood... one for the boys and one for the girls.[19]

Most common schools were devoid of even a suitable open playground for the relaxation and recreation of their pupils. Similarly, the grammar schools, whose special concern was centred in the classics, made few attempts at physically educating their pupils. An exception to this general state of affairs involved the "Old Blue School" of Toronto. As one of the earliest schools in Upper Canada, it was opened in 1807 as the Home District Grammar School at York and some eighteen years later York was fortunate in the acquisition of Rev. Dr. Thomas Phillips who, as headmaster, assumed charge of the school:

> The ground surrounding the School, which in primitive times was slightly undulating, had been cleared of the stumps, and a space of a few hundred square feet was selected for the good old English sport of Cricket, which was cultivated from 1825, under the enthusiastic direction of Mr. George Anthony Barker, who accompanied Dr. Phillips to York, as his principal Assistant in the School, and who was well known as the father of Cricket in old Upper Canada.[20]

Marbles and peg-tops were the more common school-boy amusements at both levels of education and fighting was probably the only kind of vigorous physical activity. Physical education as systematized physical training within the classroom was non-existent. Such instruction

is only possible within a system of education where the prevailing philosophy of education includes the physical as well as the mental and moral training of the child. In Upper Canada prior to 1840 there was not a system of education let alone a philosophy of education.

The only official hint at physical training of any kind prior to 1840 was mentioned in one paragraph of the Report on Education prepared by Doctor Charles Duncombe and submitted to the House of Assembly in 1836:

> An education should be such as to give energy and enterprise to the mind, and activity to the whole man. This depends, in part, upon the physical constitution. Hence the necessity of preserving a sound state of bodily health. To secure this, temperance and proper exercise are requisite. But what exercise is best, as a part of a student's education, is still unsettled. Without stopping to discuss that point at large here, in my opinion, the best kind of gymnastics are the exercises of the field and of the shop, in some kind of useful labour. The moral as well as physical effect of such exercises is every way superior to that of others which have been introduced, to say nothing of the addition they make to the wealth of the community; - and if such exercises are objected to, because they are deemed by many as derogatory to their character, they ought so much the more to be insisted on. It was never designed that fashion and inclination should give rules for Education, but Education ought to direct fashion, and regulate the inclination. But whatever may be the mode of doing it, the strictest attention ought to be paid to the health of the student.[21]

The passage quoted above illustrates a very narrow use of the concept of physical exercise in terms of educating a student physically. The "gymnastics" to which Dr. Duncombe referred were seen as only a means to an end, namely manual labour training in order to enhance the productivity of society. Houston's theme, that education around 1840 was viewed as an instrument of social policy,[22] is borne out in this Report even in reference to physical training. Moreover, Duncombe's commission was to examine common schools along with prisons and asylums.

Education in Upper Canada after 1840 was to move in pendular fashion from parental control over teachers and curriculum content[23] to a state controlled system administered initially by Dr. Ryerson.

## The Life and Sporting Ideals of Dr. A. Egerton Ryerson

> The contributions of Egerton Ryerson to the social history of Canada are well recognized today. He is generally conceded to be the father of Canadian education - the Horace Mann of Canada.[24]

Few persons have the talent or the opportunity to enjoy two separate careers. Adolphus Egerton Ryerson, of Loyalist descent, was able to pursue a vocation as a "saddle-bag" preacher for the Methodist church[25] prior to his appointment, at the age of forty-one, to the position of Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada in 1844.[26]

In both posts Ryerson showed himself to be somewhat of an embodiment of the Protestant work ethic. Very early in his life Ryerson prided himself on his assiduousness at physical work and study. As a young man on his father's farm near Port Ryerse

> ...I did more than an ordinary day's work, that it might show how industrious instead of lazy, as some have said, religion made a person. I studied between three and six o' clock in the morning, carried a book in my pocket during the day to improve odd moments by reading or learning, and then reviewed my studies aloud while walking out in the evening.[27]

At the age of twenty-two, as a Methodist missionary, he was assigned to a circuit near York which took four weeks on horseback and on foot to complete. During each one month period he was expected to conduct twenty to thirty services in addition to personal visits. Extremely poor roadways in the 1820's combined with the hardships of weather, and the lack of a private dwelling would have severely taxed a man of less physical strength and religious conviction.

At this stage of his life Ryerson was, without any doubt, an ascetic. His devotion to his religious work was the paramount influence in shaping his way of thought. For example, he could not understand the frivolity of turf enthusiasts as is indicated in his diary from the entry for May 4, 1824:

> I watched today a large concourse of people assembled to witness horse-racing. I stood at a distance that I might observe an illustration of human nature. Curiosity and excitement were depicted in every countenance. What is to become of this thoughtless multitude? Is there no mercy for them? Surely there is. Why will they not be saved? Because they will not come to Him.[28]

Indeed recreational pursuits and sporting pastimes were never an important part of his personal life. It would appear that he must have absorbed himself in his life work and that he regarded physical, recreational activity as an unimportant part of that life. He did possess a piece of land, on an island, to which he often retreated in his later life. In a letter to his daughter Sophia dated September, 1859, Ryerson wrote:

> I returned home from Longpoint Saturday evening. I, with Charlie, staid [sic] one night at Cousin Edward Ryerse's; we went over to Ryerson's Island -- staid one night -- I shot three ducks and Cousin Edward brought 20 -- reached his place at 5 p.m. Friday -- had a hearty dinner -- left at half past 6 and reached home at a quarter of six the following evening -- driving the ponies all the way -- 91 miles. Charlie, as well as I, enjoyed the visit very much. I had not seen the Island or shot a gun in 40 years.[29]

The above quotation indicates that hunting, as would be expected, was a part of his youth, and the inference might be made also that amusements had been neglected for a major portion of his life. Sports and games became an

area of increasing interest and participation for Ryerson only after 1859. Perhaps the reason was subliminal to him -- a reward of leisure pursuits for hard work.

Ryerson Island and Charlie were the focal points of his latent fascination with physical activity. Ryerson had built a skiff, fifteen and a half feet long, in 1862 which he used to row in Toronto harbour in the early morning. After he had built up his strength and nautical prowess he completed several trips from Toronto to his island both alone and with Charlie. Such a journey would be a considerable feat for a young man even today. But Ryerson was proud of this ability to row and sail as well as to hunt.[30] Moreover, he realized the role of exercise in preventing rapid physical degeneration:

> I feel better than at any time during my tour. All who have known and seen me in former years say how well and healthy I look. I owe this in a great degree to my boating and riding.[31]

Walking, sometimes up to twelve miles a day, and swimming were also activities which he consistently enjoyed in his later life.

Ryerson's home environment near the lake provided the stimulus for daily enjoyment of physical pursuits during his declining years. Thomas aptly concluded that "he reverted to the kind of exercise and recreation that he had taken for granted as a young man and a preacher."[32]

It is very difficult to ascertain the reason for Ryerson's renewed interest in physical activity. His attitude toward public recreation by 1863 definitely illustrated a more positive tone of description than that of the young circuit rider overseeing the crowd at a horse race:

> I am going with Mrs. Bowles to the skating rink, to see how the ladies skate here. It is remarkable to see them walking two or three miles in the country making calls.[33]

Perhaps Ryerson was moved by a reading of Thomas Hughes' novel Tom Brown's Schooldays, first published in 1857. Ryerson was well aware of Dr. Thomas Arnold's work and of at least some of his writings. As Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, Ryerson referred to Dr. Arnold as "one of England's most distinguished and enlightened educationists."[34] Throughout the 1850's, in his "mouthpiece", the Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Ryerson continually epitomized Arnold's ways especially the famous headmaster's Christian-based educational ideals.[35] The "muscular Christianity" exemplified in Hughes' novel may well have inspired Ryerson and therefore re-routed his thinking toward the positive value of sports. This literary influence combined with the dispersion of sports and recreational pursuits during the Confederation decade in Upper Canada could, in fact, account for Ryerson's sporting behaviour.[36]

That Ryerson was acquainted with the British public school sporting ideal is further supported in another letter to his daughter in the early 1860's:

> His Mother has done everything to terrify, to discourage and hinder him from riding, or driving, or skating, or engaging in manly exercises.[37]

The passage above shows that Ryerson very definitely believed in the value of exercise in the growth and development of his son Charlie. The word "manly" would seem to indicate that Ryerson was aware of the character training through athletic games ideal. In the same vein, a considerable tempest was stirred in Methodist circles when Ryerson sent his two daughters, Lucilla and Sophia, to a private school which taught dancing. The girls' father spent two hours arguing in favour of dance instruction at a Wesleyan Conference meeting.[38] It is doubtful that his arguments presented to the Conference were based on any internal desire on Ryerson's part for his daughters to engage in some form of physical activity. In all likelihood, he probably saw the activity as one of the school's methods of teaching feminine social graces.

Egerton Ryerson was first and foremost a social conservative[39] -- a radical, or even an innovator, he never was.[40] Ryerson's views were those of a spokesman of the middle class of society[41] and it was this class

of people who was making a decided effort in the 1860's to engage in sporting pastimes.. Ryerson's views on sports, physical activity and sporting practices, like all of his opinions on societal matters,[42] were shaped by British sanction and frequently by American example. Certainly then, it has been demonstrated that by the early 1860's Ryerson was "a believer" in participation in some form of physical activity both in a personal sense and in a social sense. Although he realized, perhaps, that he would never be able to include sports and games as a branch of instruction in the public education system, it was his penchant for some form of physical activity which provided the motivation for the encouragement of various forms of physical training for the schools.

## The School That Ryerson Built

> The bulk of Ryerson's work for education is to be found in the public schools. For him education was a pyramid rather than a ladder; and he was preoccupied more with its base than with its apex.[43]

Ryerson's appointment to the position of Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada in 1844 came at a prime time for an efficient administrator to assume that office:

> The influx of population with its concomitant industrial growth and economic betterment made times ripe for education -- and Ryerson.[44]

His life among the common people during his ministry enabled him to gain tremendous insight into the sentiments of the Canadian population. In the year 1835-1836 Ryerson had visited England to secure a royal charter for the Upper Canada Academy.[45] This trip was the first of several European tours which gave him first-hand experience in the field of international educational systems which he so skilfully used to mould the Ontario system. His administrative experience had been gained as the first principal of Victoria College between 1842 and 1844, and his ideas on mass education as opposed to class education were formed as early as 1831:

> On the importance of education generally we may remark, it is as necessary as the light -- it should be as common as water and as free as air.[46]

As a member of the "middle class" and as a minister he was imbued with the Protestant ideal of "the priesthood of all believers". Therefore, basically what he wanted in an educational system was free schooling and universal educational opportunity. Such goals were not to be achieved until 1871.[47]

Ryerson, as Chief Superintendent, was a collector of ideas not an inventor of new ones:

> Training teachers, state-run schools, compulsory property assessment and compulsory education up to a certain age are all ideas associated with

> Ryerson. But none was original with him. Many American states attained free schools before Ontario.[48]

Nevertheless, it was Ryerson who did all of the groundwork in establishing a foundation for Ontario's school system. Everything which he did, or tried to do, between 1844 and 1876 was designed to "elevate the mind of a colonial society."[49] For example, he established Canada's first public museum travelling throughout Western Europe in 1855-1856 and collecting for the museum a variety of artistic and scientific objects. But he was no "human Sunday":

> For his own personal use Ryerson did not neglect the opportunity to send home a supply of choice European wines, which in fact, had it been known, would have raised the eyebrows, if not the [illegible] some of his Methodist brethren [illegible]d already voiced their disapproval [illegible] giving Sophia dancing lessons.[50]

[illegible]be noted that Ryerson's appointment was vested i[illegible] Governor and not the Executive Council because [illegible]e thought that by such an arrangement he was a servant [illegible] the country and not of any political party."[51] Had Ryers[illegible] been shifted in and out of office with each election, it is doubtful if the system would have been developed as quickly and as smoothly as it was. Just as important to highlight is the tremendous power which Ryerson held over the schools and school districts by

virtue of the fact that he was able to withhold provincial financial grants from an area that did not follow departmental regulations.[52] Strong central control was the essence of Ryerson's administration, although each locality was given a voice in operating the schools:

> Upper Canada was divided into forty-two counties, each county into ten townships, about ten miles square, and the townships were divided for school purposes into school sections of from two to four miles square. The respective authorities, all elective, were the County Council, the Township Council, and the Trustees of the School Section.[53]

Most trustees and school boards concerned themselves simply with financial matters and how to keep the schools operating.

The Chief Superintendent and his Council were invested with the authority to make regulations respecting the training and licensing of teachers, the authorization of text-books, the courses of study in the public (common) and high (grammar) schools and all other matters relating to state-supported education within the province. Ryerson's first task was to draft a school bill which became the Common School Act of 1846:

> This was the first of a series of acts culminating in 1871 in the attainment of free and universal elementary education. Similar steps were taken to organize the province's secondary school system through legislation in 1853 and

> 1865 resulting, also in 1871, in the transformation of the grammar schools into "high schools" or "collegiate institutes."[54]

The 1846 Act was essentially a blueprint which Ryerson drew up in shaping the educational system for Canada West.

In 1844 Ryerson again toured Europe to study various systems of education. One of the results of his tour was his firm conviction in the belief that education was more than the "mere acquisition of knowledge":

> Ryerson took European models for his curriculum but justified their selection by reference to their successful adaptation to American use.[55]

The reference made to physical training in the 1846 Report was no exception to this method of vindicating courses of study for the schools:

> On the development of the physical powers I need but say a few words. A system of instruction making no provision for those exercises which contribute to health and vigour of body, and to agreeableness of manners, must necessarily be imperfect. The active pursuits of most of those pupils who attend the public Schools, require the exercise necessary to bodily health; but the gymnastics, regularly taught as a recreation, and with a view to the future pursuits of the pupil, and to which so much importance is attached in the best British Schools and in the Schools of Germany and France, are advantageous in various respects,- promote not only physical health and vigour, but social cheerfulness, active, easy and graceful movements. They streng-

then and give the pupil a perfect command over all the members of his body. Like the art of writing, they proceed from the simplest movement, to the most complex and difficult exercises - imparting a bodily activity and skill scarcely credible to those who have not witnessed them.

To the culture and command of all the faculties of the mind, a corresponding exercise and control of all the members of the body is next in importance. It was young men thus trained that composed the vanguard of Blutcher's army; and much of the activity, enthusiasm and energy, which distinguished them, was attributed to their gymnastic training at school. A training which gives superiority in one department of active life, must be beneficial in another. It is well known, as has been observed by physiologists, that:

"The muscles of any part of the body, when worked by exercise, draw additional nourishment from the blood, and by the repetition of the stimulus, if it be not exercise, increase in size, strength and freedom of action. The regular action of the muscles promotes and preserves the uniform circulation of the blood, which is the prime condition of health. The strength of the body, or of a limb, depends upon the strength of the muscular system, or of the muscles of the limb; and as the constitutional muscular endowment of most people is tolerably good, the diversities of muscular power, observable among men, is chiefly attributable to exercise."

The youth of Canada are designed for active, and most of them for laborious occupations; exercises which strengthen not one class of muscles, or the muscles of certain members only, but which develop the whole physical system, cannot fail to be beneficial.

The application of these remarks to Common Day Schools must be very limited.

> They are designed to apply chiefly to boarding and training, to Industrial and Grammar Schools - to those Schools to the Masters of which the prolonged and thorough educational instruction of youth is entrusted.
>
> To physical Education great importance has been attached by the best educators in all ages and countries. Plato gave as many as a thousand precepts respecting it. It formed a prominent feature in the best parts of the education of the Greeks and Romans. It has been largely insisted upon by the most distinguished educational writers in Europe, from Charon and Montaigne, down to numerous living authors in France and Germany, England and America. It occupies a conspicuous place in the codes of School Regulations in France and Switzerland, and in many places in Germany. The celebrated Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg incorporated it as an essential part of their systems of instruction, and even as necessary to their success; and experienced American writers and physiologists attribute the want of physical development and strength and even health, in a disproportionally large number of educated Americans, to the absence of proper provisions and encouragements in respect to appropriate physical exercises in the Schools, Academies and Colleges of the United States.[56]

Herein lies the "first official plea for a physical education program."[57] Yet it was a plea somewhat paradoxical in aim if compared to Ryerson's general educational objective which was to establish a system firmly based on elementary education. In the Report cited above, Ryerson carefully marshalled British, European and American example, presented physiological evidence concerning the value of physical training and then suggested

that his remarks on physical training pertained only to boarding schools and grammar schools. Was this the British public school influence which restricted the sports and games tradition to public school boys who were mostly of secondary school age? Did Ryerson believe that parents or the pupils themselves at the elementary level would supervise the physical training of common school students? An affirmation of these two rhetorical questions plus the knowledge which Ryerson had of the state of development of elementary education in Upper Canada must have convinced him that it would be difficult to introduce a physical training system into the common schools for some years to come. As he noted in 1845:

> With few exceptions, the school houses are deficient in almost every essential quality of places adapted for elementary instruction. Very few are furnished with anything more than desks and forms of the most ordinary kind, and have no apparatus for instruction, nor appendages, or conveniences either for exercise or such as required for the sake of modesty and decency.[58]

The most important unit in the machinery which ran Ryerson's system was the Toronto Normal School. Housed in various government buildings between 1847 and 1853, this teacher training institution, the first one in Ontario, was opened on a new site in conjunction with the model school and Education Department buildings in 1853.[59] A "model" common school was a vital part of the

Toronto Normal School; it served as an ideal school in which prospective teachers could train:

> The object of the Normal and Model Schools is...to do for the teacher what an apprenticeship does for the mechanic, the artist, the physician, the lawyer - to teach him practically and theoretically how to do the work of his profession.[60]

An American visitor to the Model School described it and the adjacent building from a functional standpoint: "the Normal School is called the School of Instruction by lecture, the Model School is called the School of Instruction by practice."[61] Prospective teachers and the pupils themselves throughout this period, were carefully separated by sex:

> In the 1870's male and female students at the Normal School were still carefully segregated, visited the Art Gallery on the upper floor on separate days, and were forbidden even to recognize one another on the streets as fellow pupils. Any infraction of these and other rules usually meant instant dismissal, but in spite of all sorts of spying upon them the sexes did manage to get together.[62]

Pupils in the Model School were similarly divided by sex and subdivided into divisions and sections.[63]

A Model Grammar School was built adjacent to Model Common School in 1857 but it was not well attended "the opinion being that the holding of a university degree was sufficient in itself of ability to teach in a grammar

school."[64] Ryerson, apparently, was not attentive to the promotion of this Model Grammar School. His first and overriding concern was with the common school system.[65] This school was closed in 1863 leaving the only requirement for a grammar school master to attain being honours matriculation from a secondary school:

> Thus both the extension of the principle of professional training to the secondary school level and also its integration into the Normal School program were not pursued by Ryerson. Had he done so, the dichotomy of training which is still extant in Ontario might have been modified at least.[66]

The grammar schools themselves were designed only to be feeders toward a university education until the School Act of 1871 allotted this objective to collegiate institutes and formed high schools for those desirous of attaining an education beyond the elementary school level.[67]

As late as 1877, only seventeen per cent of Ontario teachers had any professional training[68] despite the Normal School in Toronto. Six years prior to that date, female teachers had begun to outnumber male teachers.[69] Furthermore, inspectors, prior to 1871, were lay people, often clergymen or physicians, few of whom, if any, had ever taught or had teacher training.[70] Any physical training taught within the Normal School prior to 1877 would only affect seventeen per cent of the Ontario

teachers; any adaptations to the female department in the physical training teacher instruction would become increasingly more evident, theoretically at least; inspection of physical training instruction would have been decidedly unqualified and probably of little concern to inspectors. If grammar school teachers received little or no teacher training and the grammar school curriculum was classical in scope,[71] few efforts in promoting physical training at the secondary school level would have been successful.

Such faults were characteristic only of the embryonic system as it began to take shape. Ryerson was careful not to ignore physical training at the Normal and Model Schools. When the Model Grammar School was built, that is circa 1857, from each of its two wings "extended a long wooden shed built to provide play space for Model School pupils."[72] Presumably there was a shed for the boys and one for the girls, the idea being to provide a play area in case of inclement weather. From a picture taken in 1860, which is duplicated on the next page, it appears that each shed was very much like a railway station platform, that is, equipped with a wooden roof and supporting pillars but open at one side.[73] The land on which the Toronto Normal and Model School was situated was an eight acre square. Two acres were devoted to a



Plate 1. Toronto Normal and Model Schools, with Play Sheds, 1860.



Plate 2. London Normal School Gymnasium, circa 1930.

botanical garden, three to agricultural experimentation "...and the remainder to the Buildings of the Institution and Grounds for Gymnastic Exercises of Students and pupils."[74]

In 1852, Mr. Henry Goodwin was appointed to be gymnastic master of the Normal and Model Schools "at a salary of Fifty pounds per annum."[75] Goodwin was Irish-born, had fought in the Battle of Waterloo and when he received his discharge in 1818, he enlisted in the King's Light Infantry and was soon made head drill instructor.[76] During three years in France

> ...he acquired great proficiency in fencing, gymnastics, and sword exercises. He was awarded the highest prize for sword and gymnastic exercise in every country he had visited: France, Spain, Italy, England and Ireland. In the last two countries he kept schools for instruction in gymnastics and the use of the sword.[77]

At the age of fifty-five he emigrated to Canada, opened a school to teach calisthenics and riding, and, upon the recommendation of Lord Elgin, he was hired by Ryerson two years later. In 1877 "Colonel" Goodwin wrote:

> I will continue to teach as long as I can give satisfaction to the establishments with which I am engaged, namely, Normal and Model Schools, Upper Canada College, Bishop Strachan's Ladies School, Mrs. Neville's Ladies School, Mrs. Nixon's Ladies School, and private families.[78]

The rank of "Colonel" was apparently bestowed upon him

while at Trinity College School, Port Hope, between 1865 and 1868, where Goodwin was "the man adored by all the boys."[79]

Thus, from the opening of the Normal School on its new site in 1853, Ryerson, for whatever reason, provided for the physical instruction of the prospective teachers. Exactly what Goodwin taught is difficult to determine. "Gymnastics" in the 1850's could probably be equated with the contemporary term, exercise. At Trinity College School, he was employed to drill the cadet corps and to teach the boys there "the manly art of self defense,"[80] viz. swordsmanship. Similarly, at Upper Canada College, Goodwin taught cadet drill at least as early as 1863.[81] At both of these private boys' schools the drill instruction was once per week throughout the academic year.

Goodwin's efforts at the Normal and Model Schools were

> ... evidently held in high regard, for, in 1859, his assistance was engaged by several of his ex-pupils and gentlemen of the town, for the purpose of organizing a gymnasium in Toronto. Goodwin retained contact with the club after its inception by joining as a member even though, at that time, he was sixty-four years of age.[82]

He may well have taught apparatus gymnastics, although the only record of any apparatus being available to the instructor was through the Educational Depository. The

Depository had been established by Ryerson in 1850 as a supply store from which school boards could purchase various school supplies. Miller claims that "vaulting benches, parallel bars, and dumbbells"[83] were available from the Depository. More likely, Goodwin restricted himself to teaching drill and calisthenics, and perhaps fencing, since most of his training was in that area. The only actual references to what was being taught to the future teachers concerns the fact that the hours from two thirty to three fifteen on Wednesdays and from eight to nine on Saturday mornings, in 1869, were used to teach drill to the males and calisthenics to the girls.[84] During Goodwin's first summer, in 1853, he taught "calisthenics" to the girls early on Friday mornings and to the males, late on Thursday afternoons, he taught "gymnastics".[85] Once again the question arises as to what constituted gymnastics. In the Model School, the boys were given two "gymnastic" lessons per week and the girls were given the same number of calisthenic lessons. The total number of all lessons given in each division in this, the Model Common School, was forty nine.[86] When the Model Grammar School existed, between 1858 and 1863, "gymnastics and drill exercises" were given by Goodwin to the pupils.[87] The teacher-in-training must surely have pondered over the reason for taking drill, gymnastics and calisthenics. To them, it was probably seen as a method

of instilling discipline in their future pupils and/or a means of recreation in contrast to the more serious intellectual work.[88] "Colonel" Goodwin at least, may be termed Ontario's first physical education instructor within the public education system.[89]

Finally, it is important to note that the only textbooks which were authorized for the use of teachers-in-training and of teachers already in the field to guide them in physical training instruction were two or three general health texts, plus:

> "Field Exercises and Evolutions of Infantry Drill. Her Majesty's Stationery Office. England: W. Clowes and others, 1867. Retail price, 30¢ (Authorized 1867-1877)"

and,

> "Spencer, Charles. ' Modern Gymnast. England: F. Warne and Co., 1867. Retail price, 30¢ (Authorized 1867-1877)"[90]

In regard to the former book, it was probably of some value to teachers who were concerned enough to care about the physical training of their students. Its nature and content is indicated in the title. Spencer's book, on the other hand, was definitely not suited to physical training instruction at this time. From an examination of the work[91] it appears to be a source for someone wishing to establish a gymnasium. Careful attention is

paid to selection of ash wood "of straight grain"[92] for such pieces of equipment as the horizontal and parallel bars. The exercises described are all apparatus exercises and all forms of calisthenic exercises are condemned as "... too difficult, something the average person does all day long as a matter." [93] All illustrations depict a bearded gymnast and while the exercises and movements are described in progressive sequence, most of them are really complex exercises especially for elementary school children. Spencer's book was definitely too advanced for its inclusion as an authorized textbook for the Ontario school system up to 1876; too few teachers were trained to teach apparatus gymnastics and too few school boards would have been willing to purchase even the materials to build such apparatus. Such were probably the reasons for its discontinuance as an authorized text immediately following Ryerson's administration.

Teachers, then, had only one physical training manual which could be of any practical use to them - a manual of military drill. Ryerson's efforts to have gymnastics (apparatus gymnastics) taught at the Normal School and spread to the school system were premature.[95] Female teachers, who outnumbered male teachers by 1871, did not have any manual on calisthenics and Normal and Model School students alike were restricted to physical

training in military drill and calisthenics.[96] At the same time, Ryerson was continually trying to push the Normal School, and therefore the schools in general, ahead even with respect to physical training. As a final example of his foresight, it might be noted that at the 1867 Paris Exhibition Ryerson purchased models of a small and a large gymnasium to be put on display in his Educational Museum of Ontario.[97]

## The Intended and Actual Influence of the Journal of Education for Upper Canada

Ryerson had gained considerable journalistic experience as editor of the Christian Guardian during the 1830's. He applied this practical experience to a monthly publication called the Journal of Education which was first issued in 1848. It is a matter of conjecture and some controversy as to the actual influence of the Journal. Wilson, for example, stated that the paper was " ... a powerful force in publicizing Ryerson's views."[98] Any journal publicizes its editor's views even if just by the organization of the material presented. The question is, what was the effect of the Journal on its readers?

Althouse, an authority of some renown on nineteenth century educational development in Ontario, held the

opinion that " ... the Journal exerted real influence"[99] while Guillet, contrariwise, noted that it " ... furnished but little inspiration to the profession."[100] Finally Roberts, in discussing the relative merit of the Journal of Education, stated:

> The number of articles of this nature [that is, pertaining to sport], when considering that this journal covered a thirty year span, was not great .... For that matter, there is even some reason to doubt whether the Journal was even available for the teacher to read! In 1869 the Globe stated that many trustees did not even bother to pick it up from the post-office. ... the effectiveness of the journal's influence falls further into doubt when we consider the process by which it was distributed. Five thousand copies were printed up each month and sent to the trustees in each school. They picked it up at the post-office, supposedly; read it, hopefully; and then passed it on to the teachers, maybe. Then, of course, the teacher has to read it....[101]

Roberts' reasoning is sound and probably represents closely the value of the Journal in disseminating information on physical training from the point of view of the influence of such information upon teachers.

What is reflected in the Journal is Ryerson's early enthusiasm for physical training and, undoubtedly, a sincere desire to propagandize the subject in his general quest for practical education. Historians have pointed to the series of articles entitled "Physical Training In Schools" published in the Journal between

January and September of 1852[102] as though it indicated something extraordinary about Ryerson. In fact, the articles were merely the product of coincidence. Ryerson was on the verge of seeing the new buildings completed for the Education Department, the Normal and the Model Schools. In addition, he had just hired "Colonel" Goodwin to be the "gymnastic master" at the new Normal and Model Schools. As an editor, he was constantly searching for material for the Journal when:

> In the "English Journal of Education" for January, 1852, and succeeding months, we find a large space occupied, and numerous wood cuts given, in illustration of this subject [physical training] .... We therefore lay them before our readers with extracts from the preliminary and accompanying remarks of our English contemporary.[103]

The engravings and accompanying articles on gymnastics in Switzerland and a brief history of the ancient Greek national athletic festivals were later published in pamphlet form to be sold at twelve cents each.[104] The book or pamphlet, and the articles in the Journal may have attracted some preliminary interest. Very probably, it was the first time teachers, trustees, and inspectors had ever seen such exercise descriptions.[105] Certainly no teacher had any training to qualify himself to teach the gymnastic exercises. But it was a start, an important start, in educating school personnel about the subject of physical training. Once again, Ryerson was

moving in advance of possible educational innovations.

The Chief Superintendent continued to publish British and American articles concerning the importance and value of physical training methods within the schools. Notable among these were articles such as "Gymnastics and Calisthenics" (1857) advocating apparatus gymnastics in the school yard as well as exercises with "dumb-bells" and the "backboard" for girls[106]; another, of American origin, on "Gymnastics as a Branch of Education"[107]; one on Calisthenics for females extracted from the New York Times in 1860[108]; selected papers on physical exercise, mostly taken from American sources in 1860.[109] Most of the articles up to 1860 were of a general nature advocating some form of "gymnastic exercise" in order to relieve the child from the staleness of the school room and from his intellectual studies. During the 1860's, the articles pertaining to physical training within the schools became decidedly military in nature, due no doubt to the influence and proximity of the Civil War to the south.[110] The military emphasis and the incorporation of military drill in common and grammar schools between 1860 and 1865 led to considerable controversy over the inclusion of such physical training within the schools, especially the elementary schools. As a result, in 1866, Ryerson devoted ten pages to various

articles stressing the necessity and importance of military preparedness and military drill in the schools.[111] In other words, society was in need of persons trained in military fashion; Ryerson was a social conservative and answered the need by strongly supporting military drill as a branch of instruction at all levels of education.

The articles between 1867 and 1877 pertaining to physical instruction varied in topics ranging from advocating apparatus gymnastics, calisthenics for girls and military drill for boys. By 1877, the form of physical training which Ryerson favoured was described under drill and calisthenics for public schools:

> 1. - Teachers to take their own boys and form them into companies according to strength. To extend them into open file, and put them through Extension Practices and Motions. Dressing. Saluting. File Marching. Right, Left, and Right and Left About. Slow and Quick time. Balance step on the halt and on the move. To change step.
>
> 2. - The Boys to be arranged in companies, sized from both flanks, numbered and told off in half-companies and sections. To be put through the formations, Right, Left and Right and Left About as a Company. To increase and diminish the Front. To form a company Square. Fours, Right, Left, Deep. Calisthenics for Girls.[112]

Obviously, military drill had taken precedence as the primary form of physical training for elementary grades in Ryerson's mind. The events of 1860 to 1865 had influenced the Journal, which is to say, Ryerson. If the paper had any influence after 1860 it was to firmly

establish military drill in the schools. Ryerson's early interest in appartus gymnastics was precocious in the sense that society was not even ready to be persuaded about its value let alone incorporate any such system of physical training within the schools.[113]

Physical Training Programmes Within the Schools

The word "exercise", when spoken within the school walls of the 1850's, was connected with recitations in the classical languages such as Greek and Latin, or, at the elementary level, it was usually made in reference to general lessons such as reading exercises. The most physical elements of education in the same period were related to discomfort and floggings. In the following decade educators were never concerned about how a child learned, but rather about which methods and textbooks achieved their desired results. Lessons were arranged logically overlooking the fact that " ... children are not so much logical as psychological beings."[114] The child as an individual was never even considered as anything more than one member of a group of "scholars" to be disciplined and trained via the most efficient means. The importance of play to the development of the child was no special concern of the teacher, or of the school boards, as yet.

In 1847, Ryerson reported that out of some 2500 school-houses in Upper Canada, 1,378 were destitute of a playground and only 357 were provided with an area which Ryerson described as a "suitable playground."[115] In the next few years he advised his inspectors to determine " ... what playground is provided; what gymnastic apparatus, is any;...."[116] As late as 1871, Ryerson had to indicate to high school trustees that "no Grammar or High School shall be entitled to receive any grant unless suitable accommodations shall be provided"[117] for each school. Among the "suitable accommodations" Ryerson desired a playground, or some other provision for physical exercise, which was fenced in and off the road.[118] Superficially at least, he recognized the value of a play area. But what physical educator today would not shudder at Ryerson's suggestion to withhold the recess privilege as a means of punishment:

> When admonition, remonstance and reproof fail in securing proper attention, the offender is required to stand on the floor during a part or the whole of the play-time. Should this fail, the pupil is condemned to idleness during a lesson, or is sent home for a part, or the whole of the day.[119]

Even to Ryerson, then, the end justified the means.

With regard to more specific facilities for physical training, Ryerson was faced with two extremes of development. Northern Ontario was just beginning to be

developed in the 1850's with the first school in that large district having been built in 1850 at Bruce Mines.[120] The earliest provision for physical training was probably the recreation room built into Sault Ste. Marie High School's basement in 1877.[121] At the other end of the spectrum were the University of Toronto and private school facilities for physical training. Regarding the indoor facility at the University of Toronto in 1865:

> It was a frame structure, little better than a shed .... It housed a limited amount of equipment such as horizontal bars, a vaulting horse, flying rings and other appliances usually found in a gymnasium.[122]

The University's facility was comparable to physical training provisions made at some of the province's private institutions.

In describing the grounds of the London Collegiate Institute in 1867, Ryerson said it was the best of the private schools in Ontario:

> Walks and carriage drives are run over the land, while in rear a large enclosed shed is erected for gymnastic exercises. Here all manner of pulleys, ropes, and cross-bars will be erected whereby the bodily growth of the scholars may facilitate their mental advancement. A racket-court and cricket-ground have been prepared, to further amuse the students, while a large pond has been made for skating.[123]

These facilities probably represented an ideal situation to Ryerson and the passage quoted indicates that he was most concerned about physical training for a change of pace from mental activities. The "gymnasia" at Trinity College,[124] Toronto, and at Trinity College School,[125] Port Hope, were generally of the same description as the gymnasium at the University of Toronto. Ryerson, therefore, had no real gymnasium models from which he could pattern indoor facilities for the public education system. It is not surprising then, that the physical training system adopted in some schools prior to 1876 was of a military and calisthenic nature. Any swimming or skating or recess games must have been organized by the students themselves.

The only secondary institutions to teach "gymnastics" prior to 1876 were the Galt Grammar School[126] and the Hamilton Central School[127] which was reported to have two gymnasiums, probably in the form of play sheds, in 1853. High costs, and the need for caution in adding a non-academic subject such as physical training, foreseen by the Toronto Board of Education in adding gymnasia to schools were the reasons for that Board's refusal to build gymnasia in 1862.[128] It became increasingly apparent why Ryerson's encouragement of apparatus gymnastics could have had little or no influence on the school

system. Writing in 1938, Putman interpreted the reason for the lack of gymnastic facilities in the 1870's:

> Sixty years ago in scarcely any town or city in Ontario would public opinion have permitted a public school board to spend the taxpayers' money on a gymnasium or on playground equipment.[129]

Ryerson was overzealous in his promotion of gymnastics relative to the existing situation in Ontario.

Military drill, on the other hand, was a convenient form of physical training. Instructors, in the form of retired or discharged military personnel, were abundant; such training was inexpensive in terms of equipment needed; it could be conducted out of doors; and, it fitted in very nicely with the pattern of ignoring the opposite sex in education. Further, the homuncular view of the child predominated " ... so that the way to discipline boys was to emulate the way it was done in men, in the Army and Navy."[130] Prompt obedience was the epitomized goal of every teacher working under Ryerson since the pupil was never expected, or allowed, to think critically. Presumably, military drill complemented this ideal. Perhaps too, military drill was seen as one step up from the harsher forms of discipline in the 1850's. Miller noted that military terminology and practices even contributed to the efficient functioning of the class as a single unit.[131] Teaching and instructing by command

is still the easiest teaching style, even if the least respected and epitomized on the spectrum of contemporary teaching styles. Ryerson, by 1861, was impressed with two advantages to military drill:

> The first reason is that Military Drill is designed to foster in the youthful mind a love of Country and its Institutions .... The other reason ... is, that nothing else is so well adapted to secure those habits of obedience and discipline in the Schools as Military Drill per se.[132]

He was quick to recognize that what society would accept for itself, would be easily applied to the schools, although he suggested changing the name of the exercises to "military gymnastics."[133] Ryerson and the school teachers must also have recognized the fact that this form of training was the easiest way to exercise the largest number of children without pandemonium resulting in the classroom.

Military drill was taught in many common and grammar schools, especially in the larger cities and towns, throughout the 1860's. By 1870 such instruction was waning in the secondary schools.[134] This fact is related to the incorporation of the "payment by results" system which was in effect by that time. Under this plan, schools received their financial grants in proportion to the successful results of pupils in passing their examinations. No grants were available for examinations in

military drill. In the elementary schools, the actual physical value of military training must have been minimal. The curriculum was already overcrowded and for that reason the additional branch of instruction received a very small time allotment.[135] Drill instruction was usually only provided to the senior "grades" in the elementary schools. Military drill at the public school level was never required during Ryerson's term of office. In 1875, Ryerson noted that "Gymnastics, Drill and Calisthenics are to be provided for at the discretion of the Trustees."[136] Toronto, according to Hodgins, was the first city to introduce a regular system of military training into the public schools; it did so in 1876.[137]

In 1866, the Upper Canada Teacher's Association advised that "regular military drill should constitute part of the regular exercise of every school."[138] However, it was neither Ryerson nor any educational body which prompted the inculcation of military drill in the schools. The impetus came from the desire for military preparedness brought on by the proximity of Canada to the United States and involvement of Upper Canada in the events of the Civil War. Ryerson, as would be expected, was sympathetic to the people's fear of becoming enveloped in military warfare. He announced in his 1863 Report that drill was being taught in the Normal and Model Schools and

that several cities such as Toronto and London had introduced military drill into their schools.[139] Thousands of youth either joined the services of the North voluntarily[140] or were pressed into service:

> The period of the American Civil War, 1861-1865, was one of unusual tension along the border. From the Civil War emerged two nations, for not only was the Union preserved, but the Confederation of Canada was hastened as the war revealed its awesome lesson of the destructive fruits of separatism. Canada's political institutions owe much to the Civil War; the war is a part of her history.[141]

Conscription, or at least potential conscription, Winks noted, was a topic of great controversy during the war years. In all probability, Macdonald's government was defeated in 1862 over the issue of conscription.[142] The adoption of military training in the schools during this period represented society-in-miniature reacting to felt needs of the war. Physical education as one part of the curriculum of education in Upper Canada owes its origins to the Civil War. The activities of the Fenian brotherhood during the 1860's served to reinforce any attention given to military training.

The influence of the Civil War on the incorporation of military training in the schools was ultimately reflected in the twelfth section of the Grammar School Improvement Act of 1865:

> It shall be lawful for the Governor in Council to prescribe a course of Elementary Military Instruction for Grammar School Pupils, and to appropriate out of any money granted for the purpose, a sum not exceeding fifty dollars per annum to any school, the Head Master of which shall have passed a prescribed examination in the subjects of the military course, and in which school a class of not less than five pupils has been taught for a period of at least six months; such classes and instruction to be subject to such inspection and oversight as the Governor in Council may direct.[143]

This section of the Act has been misconstrued by several historians as being applicable to military drill only and as being applicable to elementary as well as seondary schools. However, the Act applied only to the grammar (secondary) schools and the monetary allowance

> ... does not relate to military drill in the school, but to a preliminary course of elementary military studies, such as military history, drawing etc. No regulations have as yet been prepared on the subject.[144]

The intention of this section of the Act was to enable the grammar schools to "become feeders to some Canadian Sandhurst, or West Point Military Academy."[145] That is to say, Ryerson was attempting to establish a link between the public education system and the federal Department of Militia and to receive a grant for doing so. Teaching military drill was to be only a part of the requirement which was necessary to be fulfilled before receiving the

fifty dollar grant.[146] No record was found which indicated that the grant was ever awarded. Any intended stimulus toward the teaching of any form of military instruction within the grammar schools must have been ineffectual, since, as already noted, even military drill had virtually ceased to be taught in most schools by 1870.

During his years with the Education Department, Ryerson attempted to build a library system by forcing a library scheme on the public. The project was premature[147] and Ryerson failed to establish a public library system because his scheme was ahead of its time.[148] With respect to his actions concerning the incorporation of a physical training system within the schools, Ryerson was limited by the educational system and its state of development. His ideas on physical training were British and American based, mostly in apparatus gymnastics. The dearth of equipment and the lack of readiness of a taxpaying public to support such a system combined with the paucity of trained teachers who could advocate such a physical training system prevented Ryerson's ideas from being crystallized. Ryerson did react to the social pressures of the Civil War in promoting military drill within the schools. Some of Ryerson's ideas, such as regular physical training instruction in the schools, the provision of gymnasiums and equipment and the training of teachers in this subject were to take shape after 1876.

## NOTES

[1]L.J. Dupuis, "A History of Elementary Teacher Training in Ontario" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Ottawa, 1952), pp. 10-20. An excellent general outline concerning Upper Canada's public education system may be found in Adam Shortt and Arthur G. Doughty, eds. Canada and Its Provinces: A History of the Canadian People and Their Institutions, Vol. 18 (Toronto: The Edinburgh University Press, 1914), pp. 277-341.

[2]W.T. Newnham and A.S. Nease, The Professional Teacher in Ontario: The Heritage, Responsibilities and Practices (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1965), p. 19.

[3]E.C. Bockus, "The Common Schools of Upper Canada, 1786-1840" (unpublished M.A. thesis, McGill University, 1967), p. 7.

[4]Ibid., p. 15.

[5]A.H. Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, University of British Columbia, 1968), p. 233. The same objective became more pronounced throughout the nineteenth century not only in Canada but also in Great Britain within their public schools.

[6]W.S. Herrington, History of the County of Lennox and Addington (Belleville, Ontario: Mika Silk Screening Ltd., 1972), p. 121. Pot-hooks and trammels refer to the up and down strokes of the pen.

[7]J.G. Althouse, The Ontario Teacher: An Historical Account of Progress, 1800-1910 (Doctor of Pedagogy dissertation, University of Toronto, 1929), pp. 1-18.

[8]Bockus, "The Common Schools of Upper Canada, 1786-1840," p. 64.

[9]Shortt and Doughty, Canada and Its Provinces, Vol. 18, p. 288.

[10]E.C. Guillet, Early Life in Upper Canada (Toronto: The Ontario Publishing Company Ltd., 1933), p. 53. Spragge gives the same impression of the inferior quality of teachers prior to 1840. See, for example, G.W. Spragge, "Monitorial Schools in the Canadas 1810-1845" (unpublished Doctor of Pedagogy dissertation, University of Toronto,

1935), pp. 80-125.

[11]J.G. Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. I (Toronto: Printed and Published by L.K. Cameron, 1910), p. 60.

[12]J.G. Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 5 (Toronto: Warwick Brothers and Rutter Printers, 1897), p. 272.

[13]Toryism is a term used to connote an amalgam of pro-British, anti-American, anti-French and anti-Catholic attitudes. It was strongest and had the most profound effect on social life in Toronto and the surrounding district known as the Home District (now known as Peel, York and Ontario counties). See, Susan E. Houston, "Politics, Schools and Social Change in Upper Canada Between 1836 and 1846" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Toronto, 1967), pp. 16-45. The district system was only changed to the system of counties in the early 1850's. Strachan was the dominant figure in education in Upper Canada for the first four decades of the nineteenth century.

[14]Bockus, "The Common Schools of Upper Canada, 1786-1840," pp. 88-101. Bockus makes the point that Strachan was very much in favour of an elementary system of education for the masses and that the proposals which he set down for such a system in 1815 were ones which were eventually adopted by the Legislative Assembly the following year. Phillips, on the other hand, in C.E. Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada (Toronto: W.J. Gage and Company Limited, 1957), pp. 107-114, does not credit Strachan with any involvement in the 1816 Act. See also, J.D. Purdy, "John Strachan and Education in Canada, 1800-1851" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1962) who makes a strong case for Strachan being largely responsible for most of the major accomplishments in the realm of public education.

[15]See, G.W. Spragge, "Monitorial Schools in the Canadas 1810-1845" (unpublished Doctor of Pedagogy dissertation, University of Toronto, 1935).

[16]Bockus, "The Common Schools of Upper Canada, 1786-1840," p. 115.

[17]Houston, "Politics, Schools and Social Change in Upper Canada Between 1836 and 1846," p. 16.

[18]Bockus, "The Common Schools of Upper Canada, 1786-1840," p. 122. Floggings were the most common form of

child discipline and these beatings were often brutal in nature. Johnson attributes the widespread acceptnace of harsh discipline to the Calvinistic belief in the fundamental depravity of children. See, F.H. Johnson, "Changing Concepts of Discipline and Pupil-Teacher Relations in Canadian Schools" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1952), p. 24, cited in Bockus, "The Common Schools of Upper Canada, 1786-1840," p. 123.

[19]J.G. Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 2 (Toronto: Printed and published by L.K. Cameron, 1910), p. 143.

[20]Ibid., Vol. 1, p. 9. The Home District School was open only to boys until 1871. It was merged into Upper Canada College for a while and then re-opened again in the mid-1830's at a different site, the original 6-acre plot of land being given over to Upper Canada College. The merger into U.C.C. explains Barber's association with that private boys' school and his pioneer efforts in cricket at that latter school. See for example, P.L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1969), p. 335. Barber was also the first superintendent of schools for Toronto from 1844 to 1852 and from 1853 to 1858 he was both superintendent and secretary for the Board. For the sixteen years prior to his death in 1874 he was secretary of the Toronto Board. Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 1, pp. 16-24.

[21]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 1, p. 293. See also pp. 289-308 for a full copy of the Report.

[22]See, Houston, "Politics, Schools and Social Change in Upper Canada Between 1836 and 1846," pp. 16-50.

[23]R.D. Gidney, "Elementary Education in Upper Canada: A Reassessment," Ontario History, Vol. 65 (September, 1973), 184-185. Gidney makes an excellent point in his article concerning the fact that, "Occasionally there are those who point out that no matter how many schools existed, they were still not numerous enough to accommodate all children between the ages of five and sixteen; and thus, in the final analysis, educational provision in Upper Canada was both quantitatively and qualitatively inadequate. The premise is correct but the conclusion is inappropriate .... And attempts to judge Upper Canadians by a standard of attendance and enrolment which, in fact, was hardly

attained in Ontario in the 1930's, let alone a century earlier, is a particularly flagrant form of historical whiggism." Ibid., 184. By the same token, historians of physical education must be careful to judge education in a particular time period by the quality, and quantity, of its physical education programme based on a modern perspective.

[24]F. Henry Johnson, "A Colonial Canadian in Search of a Museum," Queen's Quarterly, Vol. 77, No. 2, (Summer, 1970), 216.

[25]Ryerson's father was strictly Anglican; his mother was a Methodist. The sectarian influence of Mehetabel Ryerson on her family must surely have been profound - five of her six sons became Methodist preachers, each of no little consequence to the Canadian Conference during the nineteenth century. The Methodists were the religious pioneers of the Canadian wilderness. The Anglican church tended rather to ignore the backwoods areas in Upper Canada. Thus it was from the common folk that the Methodists gained their support.

[26]A.E. Ryerson, The Story of My Life, ed. by J.G. Hodgins (Toronto: William Briggs, 1883), pp. 342-343.

[27]Ibid., p. 25.

[28]Ibid., p. 40. On a mission to the Chippewa Indians on the Credit River during his second year in the ministry a large portion of his time was devoted to working alongside the Indians clearing land and building a church and a schoolhouse. His bed consisted of a board and two blankets "... yet I was never more comfortable and happy: - God the Lord was the strength of my heart and - 'Jesus, all day long was my joy and my song'." Ibid., p. 58. Such asceticism was constantly being reinforced through correspondence with his mother. The following extract of a letter from her in 1834 is typical of her guidance: "Oh, my son, be continually on your guard. You have need to believe firmly, to pray fervently, to work abundantly. Live a holy life, die daily; watch your heart; guide your senses; redeem your time; love Christ; and long for glory." Ibid., p. 140. C.B. Sissons, Ryerson's principal biographer, in defense of Ryerson against his critics, wrote: "But in spite of what has sometimes been said, political interests were secondary with him. The primary and dominant motive of his life was religious." C.B. Sissons, Egerton Ryerson: His Life and Letters, Vol. 1 (Toronto: Clarke, Irwin and Co. Ltd., 1937), p. 3.

[29]C.B. Sissons, ed., My Dearest Sophie: Letters from Egerton Ryerson to His Daughter (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1969), p. 3. Charlie was Egerton Ryerson's son.

[30]See for example, a letter to Sophie in 1866 describing his and his son's success in navigating during a gale. Ibid., p. 87. Ryerson's wife saw his recreation in a different way: "I cannot but feel sorry that he is so infatuated with boating and shooting. I think he's too old for such amusements. Besides I do not think it looks well for a minister to be sporting so much of the time." Ibid., footnote, p. 75.

[31]Ibid., p. 83.

[32]Clara Thomas, Ryerson of Upper Canada (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1969), p. 126. Thomas' book, while brief in many ways, is one of the few books written about Ryerson which provides interesting reading material for the layman. Sissons' works require considerable knowledge, not only about Ryerson but also about Upper Canada, as a prerequisite to examining his documentary-biographical approach.

[33]Sissons, My Dearest Sophie, p. 50. It is, of course, quite possible that it was the gambling and "rowdyism" which bothered him most about the horse-racing incident. Yet he made no specific reference to those characteristics of early turf meetings; rather it seemed to be the fascination and devotion to the sport reflected in the spectators' faces which caused him to despair over their welfare.

[34]Reverend Egerton Ryerson, ed., Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 6, No. 1 (January, 1853), 16.

[35]See, for example, Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 11, No. 8 (August 1858).

[36]The writer contends that the speculation concerning Hughes' novel and its impact on Ryerson is quite possible. Ryerson's own society was becoming increasingly sport conscious in the 1860's and therefore Ryerson's newfound avocation in physical recreation may simply have been a product of his times. The societal influence would seem to be the most sound hypothesis since Ryerson's concident behaviour in supporting military drill in the schools in the same decade was definitely a product of a society so profoundly influenced by the American Civil War. See, infra, pp. 47-52.

[37]Sissons, My Dearest Sophie, pp. 38-39, underlining mine. Charlie was fifteen at the time.

[38]Sissons, Egerton Ryerson: His Life and Letters, Vol. 2, p. 128.

[39]This characterization of Ryerson was made and well supported by Houston, "Politics, Schools and Social Change in Upper Canada Between 1836 and 1846," p. 66. See also, pp. 46-66. Ryerson's only objective was to maintain the status quo as he perceived that state of affairs.

[40]The same point is very carefully made in, J. Donald Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," Canadian Education: A History, edited by J. Donald Wilson, et al. (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1970) pp. 214-216, in reference to Ryerson as an educational reformer.

[41]Houston, "Politics, Schools and Social Change in Upper Canada Between 1836 and 1846," p. 46. Houston went on to explain that in that class can be seen the sentiments which promoted a common school system in 1846. His class perspective and social conservatism as they were manifested in Ryerson's educational aims are further supported by, Pritam S. Dhillon, "An Historical Study of Aims of Education in Ontario, 1800-1900 (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Toronto, 1961), pp. 43-90. For example, Dhillon notes that Ryerson's political aim of education was simply to educate them in his firm conviction in the belief that an educated people are always a loyal people to good government; his social aim was to curb pauperism and crime. Simply then, Ryerson's aims of education originated in the society, not in the schools. Ibid., p. 115. Ryerson wanted a common school system "at once the mint and mirror of Upper Canadian society as he saw it." Houston, "Politics, Schools and Social Change in Upper Canada Between 1836 and 1846," p. 66, underlining mine.

[42]It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to discuss Ryerson's attitudes towards minority groups, politics or religion. What the writer has attempted to illustrate up to this point is that Ryerson was a diligent worker whose primary motivation, even in his sporting attitudes, was social conservatism. In particular, it has been shown that at least as early as 1860 Ryerson was well aware of the value of physical activity not only for himself, but also for his children.

[43]Shortt and Doughty, Canada and Its Provinces, Vol. 18, p. 357.

[44]Sylvia Carlton, "Egerton Ryerson and Education in Ontario, 1844-1877" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1950), pp. 15-16. This thesis is the most comprehensive account of Ryerson's educational career.

[45]The college was founded by the Methodists in 1832. It later became Victoria College and was moved from Cobourg to Toronto. Ryerson had also been instructed to beg subscriptions for the new college while in England.

[46]J.H. Putman, Egerton Ryerson and Education in Upper Canada (Toronto: William Briggs, 1912), p. 71. A concise, but interesting and informative summary of Ryerson's educational career is to be found in a chapter entitled "Reading, Writing and Ryerson" in Thomas, Ryerson of Upper Canada, pp. 93-108.

[47]The School Bill of 1871 made education compulsory for all children between the ages of five and sixteen for at least four months of the year. Rate bills were abolished and taxation based on property ownership was established.

[48]Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," p. 215.

[49]Johnson, "A Colonial Canadian in Search of a Museum," p. 216.

[50]Ibid., pp. 222-223. It was, in Ryerson's view, an "educational museum." See, N. Burwash, Egerton Ryerson, The Makers of Canada, Vol. 13 (Toronto: Morang and Co. Ltd., 1910), pp. 183-185.

[51]Putman, Egerton Ryerson and Education in Upper Canada, p. 135. As Miller points out, the Provincial Department of Education was not a department of education for its head was neither a cabinet minister nor a member of parliament. Ryerson's department was called the Council of Public Instruction and was composed of nine members plus Ryerson; the nine were appointed by Ryerson. Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 99.

[52]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 93.

[53]Ibid., p. 99.

[54]Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," p. 218.

[55]G.S. Tomkins, "Some Aspects of American Influence on Canadian Educational Thought and Practice" (unpublished M.A. thesis, McGill University, 1952), p. 248.

[56]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 6, pp. 161-162. Most of Ryerson's 1846 Report is cited by Hodgins in this volume.

[57]I. Munro, "The Early Years," Physical Education in Canada, edited by M.L. Van Vliet, (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada, Ltd., 1965), p. 2.

[58]J.G. Hodgins, Ryerson Memorial Volume (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1889), p. 81.

[59]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 1, p. 33.

[60]The Normal School for Ontario: Its Design and Functions (Chiefly Taken from the Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education for Ontario, For the Year 1869). Toronto: Hunter, Rose and Co., 1871.

[61]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 17, p. 41. The visitor was a certain Mr. J.N. McJilton of Baltimore, Maryland who subsequently wrote a short description of "a day in the model school." See, Ibid., pp. 40-41.

[62]E.C. Guillet, In the Cause of Education. Centennial History of the Ontario Educational Association, 1861-1960 (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1960), p. 62.

[63]Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 8, No. 2 (February, 1855), 26-27. The division was as follows: a male and female department; each department was subdivided into 3 divisions, the first division being the lowest "grade" level; and each division into 7 sections, consisting of 10 pupils each. If each teacher during his practice teaching was assigned to only one section, then teachers were training under an ideal pupil/teacher ratio even by today's standards.

[64]J.C. Boylen, et al., eds., Toronto Normal School 1847-1947 (Toronto: School of Graphic Arts, 1947), pp. 42-43.

[65]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 264.

[66]Ibid., p. 268. Although hindsight is recognized as the gift of the historian, Miller's conclusion, while true, is not fair in terms of analyzing Ryerson's situation. The prospective teachers attending the Normal School were very often deficient in their educational background such that the primary object or emphasis at the School during Ryerson's tenure was on teaching the would-be teachers subject matter. It was not until very late in the 1870's that teaching methodology could be concentrated on to any degree.

[67]Ibid., p. 269. Most teachers who attended the Normal School prior to 1871 therefore had only a common school education. This fact lends itself to an understanding of why high school graduates as prospective teachers preferred not to attend the Normal School. When high schools were created, the emphasis in curriculum shifted from the classical form of education to English, commercial courses, agriculture and other courses designed to suit the majority of the people who would enter the more common walks of life. See, Althouse, "The Ontario Teacher," p. 109. This is not to say that the high school system was readily accepted. For example, in the 1870's a lot of people were against the move to create high school districts in Perth County because of the problem of transporting rural children to the high schools. These rural taxpayers could see no benefit to such secondary education and they needed their children, at that age level especially, on the farm. See, W.S. Johnston and H.J.M. Johnston, History of Perth County to 1967 (Stratford, Ontario: B-H Press, 1967), pp. 253-310.

[68]F.H. Johnson, A Brief History of Canadian Education (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada Ltd., 1968), p. 78.

[69]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 382.

[70]Ibid., p. 111. These inspectors were paid a small sum based upon the number of schools visited annually. The amount paid prevented employment in this occupation on a full time basis.

[71]In regard to the forms of secondary education, it is necessary to point out that in the early 1850's the building of union schools was endorsed. These schools were designed to combine the functions of the common

schools and the grammar schools. Inefficiency of such schools meant their demise by 1879. Many parts of the province were not covered by secondary school districts, therefore many rural students were forced to board within the secondary school administrative districts, that is, within the towns and cities. In this case their fees were paid, after 1871, by the council of the county in which they lived. Another avenue open to rural students in the latter years of Ryerson's administration was the Continuation School or combined elementary and high school to grade twelve. These continuation schools, often housed in an adjacent room to, or on the second floor of, the elementary school, were established at the discretion of elementary school boards located outside secondary school districts. Entrance requirements to secondary schools were in the form of an oral exam by the grammar school principal, prior to 1871, and thereafter of a written examination, both based on knowledge, attained at the elementary school level. Prior to the Grammar School Act of 1865, Legislative grants were sent to the counties in proportion to their population; it wasn't until after this date that the fund was distributed on the basis of daily average attendance of pupils in each school. See, Newnham and Nease, The Professional Teacher in Ontario, pp. 26-30. Girls in grammar schools were frowned upon even in the mid 1860's. For grant purposes, they counted only as half a pupil each. It was mostly through the insight and efforts of George Paxton Young, who was appointed Grammar School Inspector in 1864, that major changes in grammar schools were made to make them open to more members of the general public, including girls. See, Johnson, A Brief History of Canadian Education, p. 43 and Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," p. 226.

[72]Boylen, Toronto Normal School 1847-1947, p. 46.

[73]The picture is shown in, Boylen, Toronto Normal School, 1847-1947, p. 54. Boylen also notes that the play sheds were removed in 1888 and describes their absence as "a great improvement from an ornamental and sanitary point of view." Ibid., p. 54. The grounds were always well cared for with great pride taken in landscaping. The sheds must have detracted from the beauty of the buildings and grounds and were probably run down by 1888.

[74]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 10, p. 6. The passage quoted was extracted from a speech made by Ryerson sometime in the early 1850's.

[75] Ibid., p. 245.

[76] N.F. Davin, The Irishman in Canada (Toronto: Maclear and Co., 1877), p. 620. See also, pp. 620-622.

[77] Ibid., pp. 620-621.

[78] Ibid., p. 621. Goodwin was a busy man. He also taught at Trinity College School from 1865 to 1868 and was store-keeper for the Militia Store Department from 1856 to 1877, the latter being the year of his death. In addition, he was receiving a pension since his discharge from the King's Light Infantry in 1837. Any money which he did earn was probably well spent since he married twice: "By his first wife who died in 1835 he had five children. He married his second wife in 1837. By her he had eleven children." Ibid.

[79] A.H. Humble, The School on the Hill: Trinity College School 1865-1965 (Toronto: T.H. Best Printing Company Ltd., 1965), p. 9. His proper rank, according to Humble, was Sergeant-Major.

[80] Ibid., p. 10. Humble, quoting a man who knew Goodwin, Canon Jarvis, called the drill instructor "a gentle and persuasive teacher."

[81] G. Dickson and A.G. Mercer, A History of Upper Canada College 1829-1892 (Toronto: Rowsell and Hutchinson, 1893), p. 105. Rev. T.F. Fotheringham, a student himself in 1863, recalled: "What boy of that day does not remember him with affection? A strict disciplinarian, yet liking better to silence a frolicsome private with a harmless witticism that held him up to ridicule, than to bid him 'fall out'.... The kindhearted old Major always seemed sorry the moment after, for in the next breath he would temper his rebuke with a cheery word and good-natured apology for the offender. He was bluff and boyish, although his shoulders stooped and his head was grey. He loved the boys with all his heart and they fully returned his affection. His quarters in the old Bathurst Street barracks were always free to them, and his happiest moments seemed to be when reciting his favourite 'Tam o'Shanter' to an admiring crowd who never wearied of applauding the really splendid elocution." Ibid.

[82] P.L. Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1969), p. 338. Lindsay notes further that the boys were encouraged to learn and play cricket under Goodwin. Ibid., pp. 338-339.

[83]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 330. Miller further stated: "Most of these items were beyond the reach and interest of the average school section, but by advertising Ryerson reminded them of the possibilities and the low prices enabled progressive areas to avail themselves of the apparatus." Ibid. The writer was unable to verify Miller's claim concerning the items for sale at the Depository. However, Miller's conclusion about the purchase of such equipment by the schools is probably an understatement. The Depository itself was discontinued in 1881.

[84]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 22, p. 67 and Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education for Ontario, 1869, pp. 16-17. No other courses of instruction were listed after 9 a.m. One wonders how strictly attendance was enforced for the Saturday morning sessions.

[85]Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, 1853, p. 113. Both sessions were one hour long, therefore the course of instruction in physical training was not deemed to be of any great importance. Certainly Goodwin did not spend all of his time at the Normal School.

[86]Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 8, No. 2 (February 1855), pp. 26-27.

[87]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, Vol. 1, pp. 33-34.

[88]If there was a gymnasium constructed in connection with the Toronto Normal and Model Schools prior to 1876, the writer could find no description of it. The only reference which is even indicative of such a structure concerns expenditures charged to the account of the Normal and Model Schools between 1864 and 1868. Amounts ranging from $4.25 to $21.45 are listed for "gymnasium repairs" and "fitting gymnasium." Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education for Ontario, 1869, pp. 206-218. The amounts spent would seem to indicate that "gymnasium" may have been the word used to describe the play sheds. In 1867, there was a bill for $200.00 listed as an expense for the "Drill Shed" which might indicate that Goodwin had a small building constructed for indoor drill purposes. Ibid., p. 214.

[89]See appendix B for a list of physical education instructors who taught at the Toronto Normal School from 1852 to 1940. A fictionalized account of life in the Toronto Normal School is provided in, Robert Barr, The Measure of the Rule (Reprint. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1973). Barr was in attendance at the Normal School in 1873 and is perhaps better known to physical educators as the subject for a portrait plaque completed by R. Tait McKenzie in 1905. See, C. Hussey, Tait McKenzie: A Sculptor of Youth (London: Country Life Ltd., 1929), p. 102. In The Measure of the Rule, Barr depicted Goodwin as "a doddering old veteran" and noted that, "Perhaps one of the regulations at which we chafed with the greatest persistence was the hour of military drill on Saturday." Barr, The Measure of the Rule, p. 192. Barr's minimal description of Goodwin's teaching practises alluded only to military drill, especially marching exercises. Barr delighted more in telling of roll call pranks played on the unsuspecting drill-sergeant rather than describing or analyzing the merits of the physical training given by Goodwin at the Toronto Normal School.

[90]A. Marling, A Brief History of Public and High School Text-Books Authorized for the Province of Ontario 1846-1889. Prepared by the Education Department (Toronto: Printed by Warwick and Sons, 1890), p. 36. Also see, V.E. Parvin, "Authorization of Textbooks for the Elementary Schools of Ontario 1846-1950" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1961), pp. 258-262. The health texts were simple hygiene books outlining, in straightforward fashion, the care of the skin, teeth, eyes and so on. The textbooks were probably available through the Depository for purchase or through the Education Library on a loan basis and were authorized by Ryerson himself.

[91]Charles Spencer, The Modern Gymnast: [illegible] Practical Instructions on the Horizontal Bar, Parallel Bars, Vaulting Horse, Flying Trapeze, Etc. Etc. Etc.; With a Description of the Apparatus, and Hints on Somersault-Throwing (London: Frederick Warne and Co., 1866), pp. 7-125.

[92]Ibid., p. 29.

[93]Ibid., p. 22, underlining mine.

[94]The criticism of the book is not to say it has no value. The exercise descriptions and the suggestions for

building each piece of equipment are certainly indicative of the method of doing such exercises in the 1860's.

[95]The physical training which was actually taught within the schools will be discussed in a following section. See, infra, pp. 42-52.

[96]The word "restricted" may be construed to indicate that what was taught was somehow deficient. By contemporary standards, drill and calisthenics would represent a minimal programme of physical training. However, prior to 1876, these exercises were quite in keeping with the times and they represent the roots of a physical training system which was, due mostly to Ryerson's promotion of that system, to form the basis of Ontario's later physical education programmes. The same point concerning the development of a physical education tradition in Great Britain is made in, P.C. McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800 (London: G. Bell and Sons, Ltd., 1968) p. 11. See also the chapter, "Gymnastics and Drill Before 1870," pp. 77-105.

[97]Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education for Ontario, 1867, p. 106.

[98]Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," p. 221.

[99]Althouse, "The Ontario Teacher: An Historical Account of Progress, 1800-1910," p. 68. This dissertation is often cited in contemporary educational history sources.

[100]Guillet, In the Cause of Education, p. 20.

[101]Terry Roberts, "The Influence of the British upper class on the Development of the Value Claim for Sport in the Public Education System of Upper Canada from 1830 to 1875" Canadian Journal of History of Sport and Physical Education, edited by A. Metcalfe and M. Salter, Vol. 4, No. 1 (May, 1973), 38, brackets mine.

[102]See, for example, Lindsay, "A History of Sport in Canada, 1807-1867," p. 336, and F. Cosentino and M.L. Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada (Toronto: General Publishing Company Limited, 1971), p. 13 and pp. 73-92.

[103]Physical Training in Schools, In a Series of Gymnastic Exercises Illustrated by Upwards of One Hundred Engravings of the Different Positions of the Gymnast; With

an Introductory Sketch of the Athletic Games of Antiquity. Toronto: Educational Depository, Department of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, 1852 (T.H. Bentley Printer), brackets mine.

[104]Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 7, No. 2 (February, 1854), p. 18. This thirty two page pamphlet is the one listed in footnote 103, above.

[105]The exercises must have appeared but little different from gymnastic stunts performed at fairs and carnivals. If so, then "serious" educators concerned with the three R's would have had considerable difficulty in perceiving their educational value.

[106]Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 10, No. 8 (August, 1857), pp. 115-116. The backboard was a postural device consisting of a board strapped to the back.

[107]Ibid., pp. 116-119.

[108]Ibid., Vol. 13, No. 1 (January, 1860), p. 11.

[109]Ibid., Vol. 13, No. 5 (May, 1860), pp. 71-72. These articles are reproduced in their entirety in, Cosentino and Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada, pp. 93-98.

[110]See, for example, Ibid., Vol. 15, No. 8 (August, 1862), pp. 113-114 for three articles pertaining to military drill and military training.

[111]Ibid., Vol. 19, No. 10 (October, 1866), pp. 145-154. More discussion on the influence of the Civil War on the development of physical training in the schools appears in the following section, infra, pp. 47-52.

[112]Ibid., Vol. 30, No. 7 (June, 1877), pp. 89-90.

[113]It is interesting to speculate on what the influence of the Journal would have been, had the American Civil War not taken place, in terms of an early form of physical training other than military drill.

[114]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 139.

[115]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 7, p. 167.

[116]Ibid., Vol. 9, p. 211.

[117]Ibid., Vol. 23, p. 116.

[118]Ibid.

[119]Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 8, No. 2 (February, 1855), p. 29, underlining mine. The phrase "condemned to idleness" suggests that Ryerson was well aware of a child's proclivity for activity; at the same time one wonders how much of a "punishment" it would be to be sent home from school from the pupil's point of view.

[120]J.B. MacDougall, Building the North (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1919), p. 39.

[121]Ibid., p. 58.

[122]T.A. Reed, The Blue and White: A Record of Fifty Years of Athletic Endeavour at the University of Toronto (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1944), pp. 1-2.

[123]Ryerson, Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 20, No. 3 (March, 1867), p. 51.

[124]A. Watson, et al., eds., Trinity 1852-1952. Published as a Special Centennial Issue of the Trinity Review (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1952), p. 30.

[125]Humble, The School on the Hill, p. 13.

[126]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, Vol. 1, p. 86. Its head master was Dr. William Tassie who patterned the operation of the school, including the games tradition, after Upper Canada College.

[127]Ibid., p. 94.

[128]E.A. Hardy and H.M. Cochrane, eds., Centennial Story: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto 1850-1950 (Toronto: Thomas Nelson and Sons Limited, 1950), pp. 48-49.

[129]J.H. Putman, Fifty Years at School: An Educationist Looks at Life (Toronto: Clarke, Irwin and Co. Ltd., 1938), p. 116.

[130]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 362.

[131]Ibid., p. 366.

[132]Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 17, p. 235.

[133]Ibid., p. 236. Ryerson was perhaps trying to "sugar-coat" the method to achieve the goal of physical training within the schools which he had long sought.

[134]Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, 1870, pp. 112-115 and p. 5.

[135]See, for example, the crowded curriculum of Toronto public schools as late as 1877. Annual Report of the Toronto Public School Board, 1870, p. 28 and p. 64.

[136]General Regulations for the Organization, Government and Discipline of Public Schools (Toronto: Printed by Hunter Rose and Co., 1875), p. 38.

[137]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, Vol. 1, p. 26. Cadet corps instruction, for the purposes of this study, was not considered to constitute a physical training programme.

[138]Minutes of the Meetings of the Teacher's Association of Upper Canada, 1866, p. 4. The subject was not discussed again in the Minutes prior to 1876.

[139]Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, 1863, pp. 22-23.

[140]M. Burkholder, Out of the Storied Past (no date or publisher listed), pp. 158-161. She noted that youths were often enticed by the promise of money to join the federal army.

[141]R.S. Winks, Canada and the United States: The Civil War Years (Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press, 1960), x.

[142]Ibid., pp. 115-116.

[143]J.G. Hodgins, ed., Grammar School Manual. The Consolidated Acts Relating to Grammar Schools in Upper Canada Together with the Revised Programme of Studies, and the General Regulations and Instruction for Grammar

Schools, with a Copious Analytical Index (Toronto: Lovell and Gibson, 1866), p. 12.

[144]Ibid. Ryerson made the same point in the Journal of Education for Upper Canada, Vol. 19, No. 10 (October, 1866), p. 145.

[145]Hodgins, Grammar School Manual, p. 12.

[146]A careful reading of Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 19, p. 26, 29 and pp. 35-38 clarifies this point.

[147]Lorne Pierce, "The Ryerson Press," Canadian Library Association Bulletin, Vol. 9 (March, 1953), p. 137.

[148]Miller, "The Theory and Practice of Education in Ontario in the 1860's," p. 45. Apparently, Ryerson thrust the system on the schools and on the people. The libraries closed soon after Ryerson retired.

# CHAPTER III

## THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PHYSICAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES, 1877-1908

> The fact is, that all breeches of the laws of health are physical sins. When this is generally seen then, and perhaps, not till then, will the physical training of the young receive all the attention it deserves.[1]

Regarding the administrative change which took place in Ontario in 1877, Mulvany wrote:

> There can be no doubt of the fact that the efficiency of the Education Department has been greatly advanced since it has been under the charge of a Minister responsible to Parliament. Dr. Ryerson was a dictator at a period when dictatorship was needed, but Responsible Government is now the order of the day in every department of the public service.[2]

Whether or not Ryerson was autocratic is a matter of personal conjecture. The point is that education had become invested in a political ministry, a ministry patterned after the former Chief Superintendent's Department of Education. Stamp,[3] in fact, claims that education in Ontario stagnated between the years 1876 and 1900 since the "ghost of Ryerson's 'perfect system' lived on" instead of being replaced by growth and progres-

sion. Ryerson's innovations, real or perceived, concerning the subject of physical training were felt at least until 1900.

Althouse interpreted the years following Ryerson to 1900 as a "period of paradoxes."[4] The system, which Stamp characterized as stagnant, was described by Althouse as one fraught with the problems of "transient" teachers and a short supply of money due to the protracted financial depression which lasted until 1897.[5] Yet, despite these negative factors, changes were made. In general, these modifications can be summarized in the form of two tendencies common to the period: the inclination to magnify the importance of children in education, and the proclivity to introduce practical subjects into the schools.[6] If one person reflected these two tendencies, in reality, if one figure stands out in the growth and development of education in Ontario during the thirty two years under consideration, it is James L. Hughes. The power and vitality of Hughes' philosophy of education is apparent in the following passage:

> Educators of all ages have been misled by the fallacy that "knowledge is power." Knowledge is not a power by itself. Man is the power -- knowledge a means at his disposal. The growth of the being is of vastly greater importance than the storing of his mind with knowledge. The training of character is the highest function of the school.[7]

By the 1870's, with the newly created opportunity to attend secondary schools, the elementary school had changed its focus from being a terminal institution to one designed to prepare the pupil for a high school or collegiate institute level of education.[8] Toward the turn of the century

> ... schools added practical courses and de-emphasized somewhat the preparation for high school. Between 1875 and 1900 subjects such as literature, composition and history became firmly entrenched in the elementary school curriculum, while bookkeeping, drawing, music, physical education, health and temperance (urging total abstention from alcohol) often appeared in the larger urban schools.[9]

This, as Stamp points out, was not to say that such new subjects were fully accepted at par with the more "traditional literary and mathematical studies."[10] Although physical education gained a foothold within schools before 1908, the problem of justifying it as a subject in Ontario's educational system was and is a recurring one even at the present time.

Administratively, provincial uniformity brought about by a strong central authority meant improved methods and qualifications in inspection and teaching. In addition:

> Provincial grants were another device for ensuring local acceptance of provincial dictates; funds for the use of authorized texts, for the hiring

> of qualified teachers and for the provision of school libraries all aimed at provincial uniformity.[11]

It was precisely this provincial grant scheme which established "physical education" as one branch of the curriculum of instruction within the public, or elementary, and secondary schools.

## Physical Training at Private Schools and at the University of Toronto

McIntosh, in his classic work Physical Education in England Since 1800, outlined the evolution of two traditions in physical education prior to 1900.[12] Within the public schools of Great Britain there developed a games tradition which concentrated on character training through sports and games, while the elementary school tradition was more of a physical training approach which emphasized discipline and the physiological effects of systematized exercise.[13] The historical situation in Canada, and in Ontario in particular, was not entirely parallel to the two distinct conventional developments of Great Britain. In Ontario, sports were pursued as extra-curricular activities, yet in the provision of at least some of the private schools' exercise facilities and in the appointment of physical training personnel there was reflected a growing awareness of the need for

systematic physical training. Developments in this regard tended both to precede physical training advancements in the public educational system and to provide a model for the growth of physical training in elementary and secondary schools. It is important, therefore, to describe the nature of the facilities for, and the programmes in, physical training and, where possible, to interpret the influence of these facilities and programmes at the private schools and at the University of Toronto on the public system of education.

At the "Canadian Eton"[14] or Upper Canada College, Goodwin had been appointed to the position of drill master at least as early as 1863.[15] Some twenty years later, Sergeant Thomas Parr was hired as the master of drill and calisthenics at the boys' school.[16] His appointment in 1884 is indicative of the fact that drill was definitely seen at least as one facet of the educational process at Upper Canada College. This early, militaristic form of physical training must have been a fair weather activity, indoor facilities at the College being quite meager even in 1888. For example, in that year the gymnasium was "renovated". A picture of the structure as it existed following renovation[17] shows the facility to be well equipped for the period. The picture indicates as well that, at least in the private sector of education, there was some instruction in apparatus

gymnastics by 1888. The gymnasium appeared to be rather like a long, narrow barn with single rings suspended from the ceiling near one side wall; three sets of double rings and a pair of trapeze all fastened to the cross-beams in the roof such that they hung down in the centre of the gymnasium. On the opposite wall from the single rings was an incline ladder built at approximately a forty-five degree angle to the side wall running upwards from the centre of the floor. The only other structure or piece of apparatus, aside from two small mats, was the wooden high bar attached from a vertical beam to the same side wall as the incline ladder. Although "crude" by contemporary standards, it and its predecessor undoubtedly served their purpose in early physical training classes, as the following nostalgic description signifies:

> Old boys who come to visit the new school are greatly struck with the smart, business-like appearance of the Gymnasium, but they think with a feeling of fondness of the time-honoured, old building at King Street, with its dirty sawdust, its draughts and its peculiar equipment. How the timid "new boy" used to stand by that door and watch the boys indulge in the forbidden excitement of "going off the beam!" And what a proud, yet anxious moment it was when some senior took him under his protection, and, carefully adjusting him to the trapeze, initiated him to his delight. Who will forget the drill that used to take the form of "tag," in which Sergeant Parr joined with greatest zeal?"[18]

Military drill, calisthenics and gymnastics formed

a part of the programme of instruction at Upper Canada College. The nature of the gymnastic facility is indicative of the fact that when secondary schools were required to build gymnasia in the late 1880's[19] the resultant structures were little more than large rooms. The status of physical instructors such as Sergeant Parr in relation to the other masters can be inferred from an account of one boy's sojourn at the College in the mid 1880's. Stephen Leacock remarked that one of the drill sergeant's duties was to draw up lists for the boys to go over, one-half dozen at a time, to the tuck shop called the "Taffy" for twenty minutes each afternoon.[20]

By 1888, military drill at Upper Canada College was separated from instruction in "calisthenics and gymnastics,"[21] the implication being that perhaps the latter forms of physical exercise were seen as the more suitable activities in physically training the boys. However, the Minister's Report for the following year showed that almost one hundred more boys took military drill than the number enrolled in calisthenics and gymnastics.[22] Military drill, then, retained its importance as the primary, required form of physical instruction despite the fact that it was not deemed to be worthy of inclusion in the curriculum of the sixth or senior form[23] -- a practice which was copied in public secondary education.[24]

By the end of the first decade of the twentieth century, at Upper Canada College:

> A special feature of the College, as compared with other educational institutions, is the great care and systematic attention paid to the requisite conditions for Physical and Hygienic culture. The possession of a well equipped Gymnasium including a Swimming Tank, under the charge of competent and painstaking Instructors, renders possible and feasible an amount of direction and supervision that are all but impossible in ordinary day Schools ....
>
> The Time Table is judiciously arranged, the various subjects being assigned time commensurate with their importance. The Physical Training, consisting of Drill and Gymnastics, is done mostly after school hours; so, also, is Swimming and Military Drill.[25]

Several points need to be emphasized in connection with the above passage. The first is that drill was still a major part of the programme in systematic physical training. It is, therefore, improbable that anything more than a basic programme of drill and calisthenics could be expected to have taken place within the public elementary and secondary schools. Hodgins' description also indicates that "gymnastics," meaning, probably, apparatus gymnastics judging by the gymnasium facilities in 1888 and by the efforts of A.L. Cochrane as gymnasium supervisor to learn the apparatus skills,[26] were <u>becoming</u> a popular medium of physical training. The instruction in swimming was a product of Cochrane's

enthusiasm for the activity. Cochrane, in fact, succeeded in having a branch of the Life Saving Society in England established at Upper Canada College one year after his arrival.[27] Swimming programmes were a luxury very few schools within the public educational system were able to enjoy prior to 1908 primarily due to the lack of financial support for the construction of swimming pools.

Military drill was just as prevalent at other private schools in Ontario as it was at Upper Canada College. Trinity College School was opened in 1865 in Port Hope with the objective being "... to furnish a first class education on the general lines of the great Public Schools of England."[28] Built in 1885 its gymnasium was constructed of brick and connected by a passageway to the main building.[29] Military drill formed a very important part of the course of instruction as late as 1896.[30] At the same time period, Bishop Ridley College, St. Catherines, had one wing of its building fitted up as a gymnasium:

> It is seventy-five feet long, and is amply large for all requirements. It is well lighted, and heated by steam, and is fitted up with the best gymnastic instruments obtainable.[31]

Attention was paid to the regular, physical exercise of Ridley boys, and:

> Every boy in the College is obliged to take the instruction in Military Drill. The College is divided into two squads. The squads are drilled on alternate days, except Wednesday and Saturday.[32]

The physical training programme was conducted by Captain Thairs who was appointed to the post during the first year of Ridley's existence, 1890. Thairs' bias toward teaching military drill at Ridley was readily apparent:

> The following year [1891] Captain Thairs heard the militia was being taught a new drill, but he refused to wait until instructions reached the 19th Regiment, of which he was adjutant. He went to Toronto at his own expense to watch the Queen's Own and Royal Grenadiers being put through new paces, borrowed a drill manual, and then drilled his Ridley squads long and hard until they had mastered it. They soon knew how to form a "British square" on a single command and even knew ceremonial formations.[33]

All private schools then, were placing a heavy premium on military drill; this tendency to instruct in military drill persisted into the 1900's as the dominant form of systematic physical training within these highly respected institutions. Did the boys enjoy such regimentation? The question was unthinkable at the time:

> But maintaining their interest was hard-going; even the chuck of just one drum to lift their step would have helped. To many of the boys, the drill squads were tedious and boring and detested next to detention.[34]

To the boys of Ridley, the sports and games, the bathing

crib[35] and the river would most certainly have provided more attractive forms of physical exercise.

Less well known private schools also sponsored extra-curricular sports and games activities as well as a "physical culture" programme as a part of their regular course of studies. Albert College in Belleville constructed a gymnasium, in 1896, some forty years after its opening.[36] By 1910 its "course in Physical Culture (Swedish and Delsarte) included exercises both for strength and grace."[37] Ladies colleges as early as 1883 were advertising "exercise" aspects of their instruction. At Ontario Ladies College, Whitby, Ontario, for example:

> Exercise .... A regular system of training in walking, riding, and calisthenics has been initiated with very encouraging results, under the skilful instruction of Major Dearnally [sic] of the Queen's Life Guards. All the pupils are expected to take a course of lessons in walking and calisthenics during two terms each year. They should be provided with a loose jacket, and short black lustre skirt.[38]

Riding lessons cost five dollars extra per term while the calisthenics instruction was figured into the basic tuition charges. By the end of the period under consideration the majority of private schools included regular lessons in calisthenic exercises, exercises with dumbbells and indian clubs, apparatus gymnastics and military drill at boys' colleges. Such programmes served as

an inducement for the acceptance and implementation of physical training programmes in the public educational system.

The University of Toronto also stimulated the effectuation of physical training in the schools. At Trinity College, one of the early church colleges eventually to become affiliated with the University of Toronto, there existed, during the 1890's, one of the most advanced physical training programmes. This was due solely to the efforts of one man, Professor Edward Wynn Huntingford, M.A., who had come to Trinity, in 1891, from England:

> Professor Huntingford although rather eccentric was regarded by many as the greatest character in the College .... Certainly ... no one more versatile was ever connected with Trinity. He could ride, row, run, and box, paint, write verse, sing, render first aid, set bones, sew cuts (without anaesthetic); he could organize a picnic, stage a play, train a choir (St. Margaret's), deliver public lectures, and preach. A picturesque and privileged person, he was withal a thorough gentleman. "Hunty," as he was affectionately called by staff and students alike, had been a first-rate cross-country runner at Oxford and from the time of his arrival took his morning exercise over the hills and dales in the open country north of the College, accompanied by his faithful bull-dog Isaac. So alarmed were near-by residents on Crawford Street at this unprecedented exhibition the first morning after his arrival that fear was expressed that he might have been a "trusty" or a patient from an institution for the feeble-minded a few hundred yards westerly on Queen Street.[40]

Perhaps the first jogger in Ontario, Professor Huntingford spread his cross-country enthusiasm to the boys in the form of compulsory physical training runs each morning before breakfast:

> The formation of this "Hunt Club," as it was called, was not a popular move at first, but in time the physical improvement of the men was noticeable and this preliminary training was of great benefit to those taking part in games.[41]

Huntingford returned to England in 1899 having made a significant contribution to "physical culture" in at least one educational institution.

However, military personnel were far more common as physical training instructors in the private schools. Even at the University of Toronto, the Athletic Directorate appointed Sergeant Instructor Alfred ("Casey") Williams as physical training instructor in 1893.[42] Williams' background was mostly in fencing, although he also organized classes in apparatus gymnastics, boxing, wrestling and bayonet fighting before his retirement in 1922.[43] Prior to Williams' tenure, any physical instruction classes were conducted mostly in military drill, the prestigious University Rifle Company providing a stimulus to such training.[44] The building used for physical training purposes between 1893 and 1912 contained a bowling alley and a swimming tank, although swimming instruction was not introduced until 1906

> ... when the Board of Trustees engaged C.H. Corsan to give a six weeks course to such students as were willing to pay a small fee to the Bursar.[45]

Corsan was hired later, during the years immediately prior to the first world war, to give swimming instruction to prospective teachers in some normal schools. To the efforts of Sergeant Williams, the University of Toronto probably owed its excellent gymnasium facilities. The gymnasium itself was one hundred feet long and half as wide,[46] or the same dimensions as Hart House gymnasium at the time of this writing. The picture on the opposite page, taken in 1900, shows the gymnasium to have been equipped with numerous wall pulleys, all kinds of gymnastic apparatus and a running track which Reed stated was twenty-one laps to the mile.[47] It is reasonable to assume, therefore, that "gymnastics" as taught by Sergeant Williams meant appratus gymnastics. Such instruction would have very little practical application to more than a few of the larger urban secondary schools prior to 1908. The University of Toronto saw its way to hiring a full time physical director, Dr. James Warren Barton, M.D., in 1907, to supervise all forms of physical activity at the University over the following fifteen years.[48]

The examples set by the private schools and by the University of Toronto with respect to the establishment and maintenance of physical training programmes were

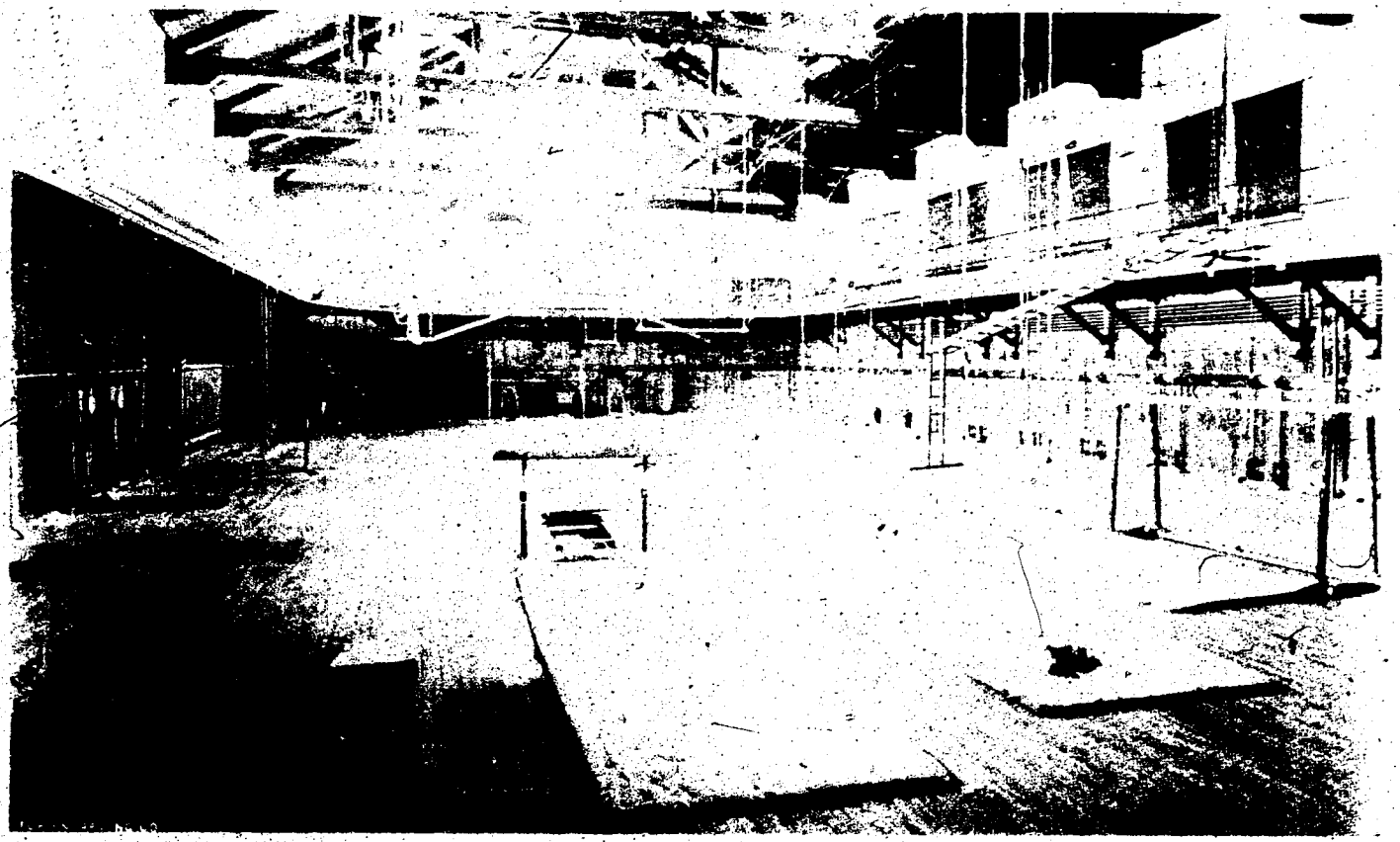


Plate 3. University of Toronto Gymnasium, 1900.

tremendously important to the implementation and direction of corresponding programmes in the public educational system during this period. Such features of physical training instruction as the emphasis on military drill, the teaching of calisthenics and apparatus gymnastics, the use of dumbells and indian clubs, the provision of gymnasiums, the appointment of specialized instructors as well as the actual acceptance of physical training as a significant aspect of the educational environment in these more prosperous educational institutions were all elements incorporated in some degree into the elementary and secondary schools between 1877 and 1908. However, the provision of gymnasium facilities was minimal especially at the elementary school level.

## Elementary and High School Physical Exercise Facilities

At the Ontario Education Association meeting in 1873, one member described the conditions of playground at the public schools as "... unsuitable, often muddy, uneven, exposed - no shade trees, no play-shed - nothing but dreary, tiresome days, theirs at school ...."[49] Playground facilities up to 1908 changed very little from being large open fields in rural areas to more compact yards adjacent to urban schools. Gymnasia were out of the question financially and philosophically.

Most educators believed that the two, ten-minute recess periods and the noon hour spent on the playgrounds provided sufficient time on adequate accommodations for physical exercise and recreation, or "atmospheric washing"[50] as some called it. Hodgins, in awesome respect for the facilities of the Model Common School in Toronto, recommended, in 1886, that:

> No school should be without a comfortable play shed for wet weather, and for young children in the heat of a summer day. The play-shed might be placed at the sides of the separate playgrounds, for boys and girls. They would thus be placed apart from each other and the boys and girls would then be free to enjoy their play hours without interruption or annoyance from each other, or from any unruly pupils of the school. The girls' playground might have one or two shade trees in it, and a few bench seats around the shade trees.[51]

Hodgins' tone suggests that his "hints" were theoretical and not yet in practice in the elementary schools. He further recommended a separate section for the primary department on the school play area and the use of grass, preferably sown with "red-tap grass, with a little admixture of white clover."[52] The Deputy Minister also advised that the boys' playground be free from shade trees since they would only be in the way during children's games, and further, "they are liable to be used as screens to conceal doubtful actions from the eye of the teacher."[52] The irony in Hodgins' suggestions

regarding shade trees was that most of his ideas were taken from American sources[53] and furthermore that one of the most popular[54] customs in Ontario schools during this time period was the traditional Arbor Day set aside for the first Friday in May when rural and village school pupils were required to clean up the grounds, plant shade trees and make flower beds.[55] Nevertheless, it is clear that the only exercise facility which an elementary school could boast prior to 1886, and, to the writer's knowledge, prior to 1908, was the great outdoors.

Improvements in physical exercise facilities began at the secondary school level. Indoor accommodations, those which did exist, prior to 1885 were in the form of play sheds and play rooms. The School Act of 1871 announced that grammar schools were in future to be known as high schools and that seven of the older grammar schools were to be designated as collegiate institutes.[56] The latter type of secondary school was generally intended to educate students who showed potential for a university education. George Paxton Young established these two types of secondary school just as he did the system of awarding or retaining provincial financial grants depending on individual school's efforts to conform to the Ministry's changing standards in secondary education. His most famous, or infamous by contemporary analysis, innovation

was the implementation of the British "payment by results" system which was in effect between 1875 and 1882.[57] Payment by results guaranteed that provincial grants were awarded on the basis of academic excellence. Apparently, the plan was withdrawn in 1882 due to "a storm of protest against the sacrifice of all other education values for the attainment of this end."[58] The grant precedent had been set and was found to be effective as an inducement to progress and to achieve uniform standards in secondary education.

One of the requirements that any one of Ontario's one hundred and four high schools had to fulfill to become a collegiate institute in 1882 was that it had to have "suitable buildings, outbuildings, grounds and appliances for physical training."[59] The payment by results scheme delayed developments in providing for physical training at the secondary level since that plan made no provisions for any proficiency in physical training. Thereafter, Departmental circulars, pertaining to the topic of physical training, were distributed frequently to high schools and collegiate institutes. However, these circulars were not always indicative of existing conditions. For example, the following circular was issued from the Ontario Education Department in October, 1885:

High School and Collegiate Institutes
Equipment recommended under Regulation 97.

The following supplies are recommeded [sic] for the equipment of a Gymnasium, under the High Schools Act. Those marked with an asterisk are considered indispensable. The Education Department would recommend for the use of the Teacher in Calisthenics, MacLaren's Physical Education, Clarendon Press, Oxford. It must be definitely understood that no pupil shall be required to purchase the book.

Introductory Exercises.
*The Dumb Bells
The Bar Bells

Exercises of Progression.
The Leaping Rope
*The Leaping Pole
The Horizontal Beam
*The Vaulting Bar
The Vaulting Horse

Elementary Exercises.
*The Fixed Parallel Bars
*The Trapezium
*The Pair of Rings
*The Row of Rings
The Elastic Ladder
The Bridge Ladder
The Plank
The Ladder Plank
The Inclined Ladder

Climbing.
*The Vertical Pole
The Vertical Pole, fixed
The Slanting Pole
The Turning Pole
*The Pair of Vertical Poles
*The Vertical Rope
*The Rosary or Knotted Rope
The Mast

For girls a suitable supply of Indian Clubs should be provided.

Toronto, October, 1885.[60]

This 1885 circular, which was undoubtedly drafted in order to promote changes in the schools, was, nevertheless, premature. Few gymnasia were present in the secondary schools in the Toronto vicinity where inspectors reported that physical training, even in the form of drill and calisthenics, was not common in 1885.[61] The inspector in Barrie at the time suggested using an old building behind the Barrie Collegiate Institute as a gymnasium.[62] In eastern Ontario only five schools had erected gymnasia:

> Of these only two, Guelph and Ottawa, have provided systematic instruction in Gymnastics. Drill and Calisthenics are also taught in these institutes and in four other schools; Calisthenics alone in three, and Drill alone in three. From this showing it is clear that physical education is not valued highly in the east. The main causes of this neglect are the pressure of other subjects and disinclination on the part of boards to expend money needed for gymnasia. Unfortunately, Drill, Calisthenics, and Gymnastics cannot be placed upon the examination list; and as matters stand, it is only natural that these subjects should be undervalued or neglected.[63]

The above comments made by Inspector Seath provide valuable insight into the situation as it existed in the mid 1880's. Circumstances with regard to physical training facilities at the secondary level would have to be changed through central authority directives. The impetus was provided in 1886.

All high schools were to provide a playground,

and "all other necessary provision for physical exercise," while trustees of high schools would have to produce a statement showing "the size and equipments of the gymnasium and the extent of outside conveniences" before a high school could be classed as a collegiate institute.[64] After July 1, 1886 the annual legislative grants to high schools and collegiate institutes were distributed on the following basis:

1. Schools with two masters having a gymnasium and equipment valued at $250 would receive a $90 legislative grant.

2. Schools with three or more masters having gymnasium and equipment valued at $325 would receive a grant of $135.[65]

The key to interpreting the above grant system is to note that the grants were awarded not only for the gymnasium and its equipment, but also the amount was to cover other areas and pieces of equipment inclusive of libraries, charts, maps, globes, and scientific apparatus.[66] The erection of gymnasia was but one aspect of a general inclination on the part of the Education Department to improve equipment and facilities at the secondary level. The measure which insured the building of gymnasia was Regulation 50.

The issuance of Regulation 50 in 1887 required that drill and calisthenics were to become obligatory in all high schools, and gymnastics, in addition, in collegiate institutes.[67] Inspector Seath interpreted Regulation

50 as follows:

> Drill, gymnastics, and calisthenics should be taught not less than an hour an a half a week in each division of Form I; and not less than an hour a week in the other forms. Additional provision should be made for practice by the pupils under efficient supervision. In High Schools which have no gymnasium, gymnastics is not obligatory and drill and calisthenics should be taken up only when the weather permits.[68]

By 1889, Seath ranked only four secondary schools as "sufficient" under this Regulation and thirty seven as "not sufficient."[69] The reason, as he mentioned, was obvious; teachers and masters took advantage of the word "should." Western Ontario experienced similar problems during the initial implementation of the Regulation when London, Woodstock, St. Thomas and Hamilton collegiate institutes made no effort to comply and to build properly equipped gymnasia.[70] Yet Regulation 50 and the grant system of 1885 provided a positive fillip in an effort to improve existing physical training facilities and to broaden the scope of physical exercise programmes to include apparatus gymnastics. However, future progress was to be slow:

> Now that the Collegiate Institutes have gymnasia, and Regulation 50 is explicit as to the requirements, there will probably be an improvement; but so long as the July examinations are so vitally important to both teacher and pupil, physical education will, in many cases, be subordinated to even the least important of the examination subjects.[71]

Of the eighteen collegiate institutes which fell within Heath's inspectorate in 1889, only five had not constructed gymnasia while the others had gymnasia ranging in value from $375 at Collingwood to $4,000 at Parkdale Collegiate Institute, Toronto.[72] Four years earlier only three of these institutes had gymnasia. The Regulation had an immediate effect in increasing the number of gymnasia, still "... the record under this head [increasing the number of gymnasia] is not so satisfactory as in the case of libraries and apparatus."[73] It was the Regulation itself which was responsible for the improvements, not the desire of any particular masters to encourage physical training or of boards to expend money on this component of school work.[74] The public had yet to be convinced of the value of physical training programmes. Many of the gymnasia served a second function within the schools, that of an assembly hall or auditorium. Once the school had built its gymnasium and thereby qualified for its grant, unless a conscientious inspector truly enthused with the value of physical training noted it, what was to keep the school from using the gymnasium for other matters? For example, the Guelph Collegiate Institute qualified for the grant by constructing its gymnasium in 1887. However, in the years just prior to 1906, it was used as a classroom due to overcrowded conditions in the rest of the school.[75] It is also

revealing of the lack of aspiration on the part of school boards to expend money on gymnasia during the 1880's to know that the Guelph Board of Education paid only one quarter of the $1,200 needed to build its gymnasium in 1887. The rest was raised through physical training exhibitions of the students organized by a pioneer physical educator, Captain Walter Clark.[76]

Older schools and more established boards were the first to conform to Regulation 50 and earlier inducements to construct gymnasia. The Hamilton Board authorized an expenditure of $2,000 in the mid 1880's for the purpose of building a gymnasium.[77] Furthermore, when the Hamilton Collegiate Institute was re-built in 1897, it included "a large gymnasium, 40 X 75 feet, and Shower Baths attached,"[78] a fact which is indicative of the acceptance of such a facility in that city by the turn of the century.[79] Yet for every rule there is an exception. As late as 1902, Ottawa Collegiate Institute, long having held its collegiate institute status, was without a gymnasium.[80] Most collegiate institutes had conformed to the guidelines by the turn of the century. Lindsay Collegiate Institute built its gym in 1898:

> The Gymnasium itself is even in the eyes of those who cannot expect to enjoy its privileges, a great advantage to the School. Forty feet wide, eighty feet long, and with a ceiling twenty feet in height [sic].

> A fine even hardwood floor laid over cement, is everything that could be desired for such a purpose. The brick walls are left without any plaster, or finish, and no harm can be done by a flying Football, Dumb-bell or handball thrown against it by the Gymnasts.[81]

Even high schools, such as the one in Simcoe, were providing some form of indoor facility by the end of the period under examination:

> The spacious Calisthenics Room is supplied with Dumb-bells, Indian Clubs, etcetera. Classes in Calisthenics are regularly conducted by a Member of the Staff.[82]

The only standards provided by the Education Department during the period were indicated in the minimum grant values established in 1886. Other than those standards, one gymnasium description was given by the Department in suggesting requirements of grading for distribution of the grant in 1891:

> (15) Gymnasium. - The sizes best adapted for a gymnasium according to the capacity required are: 80 X 40; 70 X 35; 60 X 30. The windows in the sides of the building should be placed as high as possible; each should be about three feet high and about six feet wide and should work on pivots; there should be as many of them on both sides as can be put in; there should be a large window or several windows in one end of the building, the other end being a dead wall. The doors should be placed at the end of the building containing the window or windows. The floor may be either, preferably wholly planked and mattresses provided, or partially planked, in which

> case the end of the building having the dead wall should have a plank floor for about twenty feet from the wall. The trapeze and flying rings should be in the central portion of the building, the point from which they are suspended being sixteen feet from the ground; the point of suspension for the row of side rings may be any height from thirteen to sixteen feet from the ground. If heated with a stove, it and the stationary gymnastic apparatus should be properly placed at the end of the building containing the doors and windows. In the case of floors partially planked, the flooring, except at the dead wall end of the building, should consist of sawdust or sand about one foot and a half deep; this should be sprinkled with water every morning about an hour before the first class commences to exercise, and again at noon if necessary; the supply of sawdust may be frequently renewed. A locker and racks and stands should be provided, where the movable appliances can be securely kept when not being used by the class.[83]

Therefore, it was only some five years after the plan was adopted to require collegiate institutes to erect gymnasia that the Department directly described the nature or form the new structures should take. The gymnasia that were built were only constructed at the secondary schools and these facilities were the product of an 1886 regulation which carried a grant incentive. High schools and collegiate institutes, most of which made an effort to provide some indoor facility for physical training, gained a decided advantage over elementary schools in terms of programme potential during inclement weather. The gymnasium described above must

have reflected the facilities as they existed then, whether the flooring consisted of sawdust or was planked throughout. Finally, it is interesting to record that this gymnasium description was taken almost word for word from the book which was the most recommended and highly praised manual on physical training for most of this period. The book was, Physical Culture, by E.B. Houghton.[84]

## Books and Manuals

It is necessary at the outset to examine one glaring misconception concerning the various textbooks and manuals relating to physical training which were used for teacher preparation and for teachers' use within the schools. Kennedy took considerable care to discuss one chapter in the contents of a Manual of Hygiene for Use in Normal and Model Schools.[85] The chapter in question related to "Physical Exercise," but the error occurred in recording the date of the publication of the book. Kennedy gave this date as 1866 and then proceeded to make two opposing inferences: that the text was the basis of health and physical education from 1866 to 1893 and, secondly, that it was "... an authorized text for teacher preparation in health and physical education as late as 1883."[86] The book was definitely not published until

1886.[87] It was prepared by the Provincial Board of Health in Ontario, a fact which Kennedy acknowledged, which organization first came into existence in 1882.[88] The phantom 1866 textbook was also cited by Cosentino and Howell, who noted:

> The manual was to have a great effect on the teaching of physical education; it was the authorized text for teacher preparation until 1893.[89]

The authors spent an entire paragraph discussing the merits of this "1866" instructional manual.[90] If, anything, the text was an informative work pertaining almost entirely to "hygiene" or health-related topics such as proper ventilation, disposal of refuse, infection and contagion, clothing, bathing, digestion, care of the eyes and ears.[91] Only ten pages were devoted to "physical exercise,"[92] obviously only a cursory treatment of the topic. Subjects discussed under this chapter heading included voluntary and involuntary muscle description and action; "rational athletics" which term was used to mean walking, leaping, running, rowing, fencing, fives or handball, horse-back exercise, riding in a carriage and sailing; "irrational athletics" which were "all those exercises which cause disease or injury to the body or any portion of it" such as boat-racing[93]; heart disease; bone fractures; "gymnastics" which meant "gymnastic exercises" and included rope and pole climbing, skating

"it not indulged in so as to cause overheating," tobogganing, snowshoeing; calisthenic exercises or work with light indian clubs and dumb-bells "appear to be particularly suitable to girls during the winter season" as were 'I spy,' skipping and dancing for younger girls and lawn tennis for older girls; the need for fresh air in indoor rooms used as gymnasia; alternation of physical with mental exercises; the value of recesses as "an opportunity of acquiring the much needed bodily exercise;" singing; physical exercise "for the purpose of exciting muscles" in the kindergarten.[94] As far as physical training is concerned then, it was not a 'how-to' syllabus. It was little more than a minor, positive sanction given to mild forms of exercise, and as such it would have been of limited value to the teacher who desired to conduct a systematic programme of regular physical training. For the most part, it reflected the growing concern for "hygiene" and health so prevalent during the 1880's.[95]

The first attempt by a Canadian to write a manual on physical training methods was made by James L. Hughes (1846-1935):[96]

> Outstanding among city school superintendents was James L. Hughes, who was well known throughout Canada and in many parts of the United States. Fearless, energetic, and self-assertive, he took the position of inspector of public schools in Toronto in 1874 at the age of twenty-nine. With well-directed blasts he swept the dust and cobwebs

> from the city system, showed up its deficiencies, and drove in reforms. In five years there were few untrained teachers remaining in Toronto classrooms. In ten years, attendance and punctuality had greatly improved .... His patriotism, love of fun, and generosity caused most people to forgive his amazing insensitivity to the feelings of others .... He was an Orangeman, a Mason, an athlete, and unquestionably an administrative success.[97]

As a sports enthusiast he participated in boxing, wrestling, running and jumping, curling[98] and he played on the first twelve of the Toronto Lacrosse Club for eleven years beginning in 1870.[99] On the value of lacrosse to him personally, Hughes reflected:

> I know that lacrosse did more to develop quickness of decision and definiteness in effort to achieve my purposes, than any other training I ever had in relating [sic] conditions, and in executing my plans for transforming them in harmony with my own vision.[100]

A patriot[101] such as Hughes would have found very little difficulty in affiliating himself with the lacrosse leagues in the 1870's.[102] At one point in his career he held the position of secretary of the National Lacrosse Association.[103] If any inspector could be expected to initiate sports and games programmes in the schools it would have been James L. Hughes. However, character training through discipline and obedience were the hallmarks of Hughes' educational objectives[104] and militarism was the order of the day. Furthermore, Hughes, a native of

Durham county, was from a military-oriented family -- his three brothers were Lieutenant-General Sir Sam Hughes, Major-General John Hughes and Brigadier-General William St. Peter Hughes.[105] As a master at the Toronto Normal and Model Schools prior to his inspector's appointment, he would have become acquainted with "Colonel" Goodwin who was the instructor in drill and calisthenics at that teacher training institution.[106] In his eagerness as a young inspector to bring order and efficiency to the schools, he wrote his Manual of Drill and Calisthenics[107] for publication in 1879.

The book represents a landmark in Canadian physical education history since it was the first book truly representative of actual conditions and programmes in the schools. The Manual of Drill and Calisthenics was, apparently, a hurriedly compiled book being the product or accumulation of several articles on the same subject which were published in the Canada School Journal around 1877.[108] Reviewers of the book were "very harsh," according to Carter, because it was a reproduction of traditional army drill.[109] Nevertheless, Hughes' publication was timely:

> The Ontario Teachers' Association, at its meeting in August, 1878, resolved that "Drill and Calisthenic exercises should form a part of the training of Third Class Teachers at County Model

> Schools." They have long been taught to First and Second Class Teachers at the Normal School.[110]

Educators, evidently, were planning to prepare all future teachers as qualified physical instructors. Teacher training is discussed in some detail in the following section.

Listing three benefits to be derived from drill and calisthenics as benefits to the figure, to health and to discipline, Hughes pointed out that:

> The immediate object of calisthenics is to amuse and relieve the pupils; the ultimate object is to develop their physical systems.

but warned at the same time:

> Calisthenics alone are very dry biscuits. They require fun with them for sauce. Don't be afraid of the fun.[111]

The book itself was of pocket manual size, being only eighty pages in length, and it was designed as an aid for teachers' use. Three quarters of the text was devoted to military drill in its strictest sense. That is, precise explanations were given of proper form in saluting, marking time and marching, directing and reverse flanks, formation of a squad in two ranks. Some eight pages were given over to "free gymnastics" which exercise descriptions would come under the classification of flexibility exercises today. Two pages were used to give three examples

of exercises which could be performed with "Goodyear's Pocket Gymnasium,"[112] a strong rubber tube, of various sizes to suit the user's strength, with wooden handles inserted in the ends. One is reminded of the various exercise gimmicks on the market today which also advertise that "every muscle in the body can be exercised with its aid."[113] The final pages described a few kindergarten games and songs.

Decidedly, then, the book was mainly designed as a drill manual. Typically, there were opponents who spoke out vehemently against such instruction in the schools, yet drill, or a mild form of it, was the main form of physical training instruction, even at private schools and at the University of Toronto, during this period. Hughes' manual represented an effort to organize and guide instruction in that branch of physical exercise and probably too, to capitalize on a movement already in progress. No references were found to substantiate any positive popularity claims for the work. However, one may surmise that the energetic inspector was able to encourage its use in Toronto at least.

There were other texts which affected educational thought toward and practice in physical training methods. Herbert Spencer published a book in 1861, in England, entitled, Education; Intellectual, Moral and Physical, which

had an influence on Canadian educational circles by the end of the century.[114] The word "education," as used by Spencer, was not confined to the institutional form, rather it was more akin to "education as broad as life itself." Consequently, the last chapter of the book, entitled "Physical Education," was more of a child-rearing approach to the topic.[115] For example, Spencer chastized his readers for paying more attention to the rearing of their livestock than to the upbringing of their children. The first requisite in life, he said, is to be a good animal, that is, to have been raised conscientiously in a healthy atmosphere, and "to be a nation of good animals is the first condition to national prosperity."[115] Other topics considered by the author were proper nutrition; the disinclination on the part of British school boards to provide physical exercise for girls; the superiority of the child's pure, informal play as opposed to formal, "factitious" gymnastics instruction; the evils of mental strain placed on school children. Once again, it is difficult to ascertain the exact influence of any book historically. Certainly, it was symptomatic of the tendency to magnify the importance of the child in Ontario education during the period.[117] For physical education, it meant a positive sanction for play from a well respected writer.

The most significant opus of the period was E.B. Houghton's Physical Culture, first published in 1886.[118] Copies of the book, in customary fashion, were sent to many newspapers for review.[119] The St. Thomas Times of August 25, 1886, stated:

> Physical culture is a very important but sadly neglected part of the education of the youth of our land and the efforts of the Minister of Education and the publication of this excellent little handbook it is hoped will result in the introduction in our schools of a more thorough and efficient system of physical training than has existed, if any such system can be said to have existed, in the past.

Little information exists about Houghton's personal background except that in Chatham he was "... well known to our citizens from his connection with our High School."[120] For some years prior to 1886 Houghton had been drill instruotor at the Chatham High School and the Montreal Star hailed him as "a gentleman who has long taken a deep and intelligent interest in physical education."[121] The editors of one Chatham newspaper expressed their gratitude, in receiving a copy and they remarked:

> Many of the High School Students and others will remember the efficient instructor in drill, gymnastics and calisthenics who was engaged at one time by the High School Board, Mr. E.B. Houghton.[122]

It seems, then, that Houghton in 1886 was a retired physical training instructor employed by the Department of

Education to establish a manual for use in its schools. The product was a success.

Throughout the period, the book was the recommended textbook on physical training in the Normal schools at Toronto and Ottawa.[123] As was the Manual of Hygiene for Use in Normal and Model Schools, Houghton's book was available from the Education Department for fifty cents.[124] The reasons for its popularity and its usefulness are readily apparent from an examination of the textbook.

First and foremost, it was suited to actual conditions in the schools. Houghton recognized the obvious limitations of any physical training system during the era, namely, weather and the facilities problem: "In the fall and spring the drill should take up most of the time; in the winter, calisthenics and gymnastics.[125] He even offered a suggested daily time-table for the seasonal divisions.[126] Since drill was the major part of the physical training programme in all schools which conducted such a course of instruction, Houghton was careful to insert a section on drill for boys. The drill exercises were taken almost directly from the Drill Regulations of the "Queen's Own,"[127] but for this reproduction, Houghton gave his reasons:

> The Squad Drill, as here given, is taken from the Field Exercise, without alterations or additions, except that the word "pupil"

> is substituted for that of "soldier," marginal notes are given, and some changes are introduced, necessary to its use in schools.
>
> The reasons for not altering it are these:-
> 1. The fundimental [sic] principles, as laid down in the Field Exercise, are so simply expressed that they can be easily learned;
> 2. The Field Exercise, having been for numbers of years in use, and having been revised from time to time, by gentlemen in Her Majesty's Service, by Her Majesty's command, it must be as nearly perfect as possible;
> 3. That the drill may assimilate with that in use by the volunteers and regulars, so that if at any future time the pupil should join the volunteers or Military School, he will have nothing to learn or unlearn as far as Squad Drill is concerned.[128]

Houghton probably taught either during the Civil War or in the period immediately following the conflict and was, therefore, liberally imbued with the teaching of drill in schools. Whereas Hughes' book had been primarily drill-oriented in content, Houghton's was not. Only fifty pages, or one-fifth of the book, were used to outline drill exercises, a fact which seemed to satisfy objectors to anything even hinting at military instruction in the schools.

Shortly after the book's publication, Houghton received a letter from Mr. Clark, perhaps the same Clark employed at Guelph Collegiate Institute,[129] who commended the book heartily as a manual which satisfied a long felt need, and furthermore he noted:

> The higher exercises in calisthenics are made so clear that they can be taught even by an unskilled instructor and introduce a branch which I believe has never before been brought forward.[130]

Some of the exercises in the chapter on "Calisthenics," a section which was just slightly longer than the chapter on drill, probably those categorized by Houghton as the "Third Series," may have been original to Ontario educators such as Clark. Class formations for the calisthenics were elementary squad drill formations, that is, Houghton advised teachers to assemble their classes in straight lines, by numbers along the lines of military formations. "P.T." classes in the twentieth century may credit or blame Houghton for this system of class organization for calisthenics. The first series of calisthenic exercises were just stretching and flexibility exercises, or warm-up activities, while the second series were variations of a basic balance exercise, the stork-stand. The third series were more complicated exercises, which today are normally included in "free exercise" movements, such as hand stands and running and standing hand springs and nip-ups. Rope jumping and push-ups were also described in this series. The calisthenics then were given in progression from the simple to the more complex and were always described in detail, often with the use of a diagram. The third series of "floor exercises" were more

advanced but they signified an intention to have pupils become more active in "calisthenic" exercises. Perhaps it was this latter fact which inspired Clark's letter to Houston.

The seventy-five page section on "gymnastics" was entirely given over to descriptions of a series of light dumb-bell exercises. The wooden dumb-bells to be used probably weighed around five pounds and all depictions showed the "gymnast", a male figure, holding one in each hand. It should be mentioned here that both the calisthenic and dumb-bell exercises were described so as to be conducted in a highly structured and well ordered classroom condition in keeping with general pedagogical methods at the time. For example, the exercises were always performed in synchrony and by numbers with the pupils in the "ready," or attention, position at the beginning of each exercise. The nature of the activities described under the heading "gymnastics" is indicative, once again, of the use of the word gymnastics during the period. Gymnastics as dumb-bell exercises were rarely distinguished in the primary source material from gymnastics as apparatus exercises. The dumbbell exercises, like those of the calisthenic variety, proceeded from the simple to the complex; from easy stationary lifts to exercises performed by bending the body in various directions

while swinging the dumb-bells.[131]

"Gymnastics" had another connotation -- they included stationary rope exercises. Various rope climbing methods and exercises executed while suspended on the rope were discussed in a forty-page section also listed under the rubric of "gymnastics." The calisthenics, dumb-bell and rope-climbing exercises described by Houghton were far more practical for use in schools at this time than the apparatus gymnastics which required elaborate equipment and skilled, or at least well-trained, teachers. Ropes could be installed in the smallest of gymnasia, probably at very little expense to the school, while dumb-bells could easily be made out of wood. For the drill-oriented instructor, the exercises were conducted in an orderly, military fashion; for those opposed to military drill, such exercises would be far more suitable especially in urban schools. The greatest attribute of Houghton's book was that it lent itself to immediate, practical application in the schools.

Houghton went one step further. Part two, comprising about eighty five pages of description, was "For Girls." He was the first physical educator in Ontario to suggest seriously, in book form, that physical training was not only suitable but also necessary for girls. Physical Culture listed and described calisthenics for girls.

These exercises were very simple movements more resembling basic, stationary dance positions than anything else. If Houghton wished to succeed in spreading girls' physical training, and in selling his book, he had to proceed with caution with such a new idea as physical training for girls. He also recommended most of the light dumbbell exercises which he had described for boys. But by far the largest portion of the girls' section was used to introduce exercises with the "indian club."

Dumbbells and indian clubs were the "gymnastic pemmican"[132] of the period, and Houghton felt that:

> The illimitable number of combinations that may be effected in Artistic Indian Club swinging, the exceeding grace and beauty of the movements, the poetry and rhythm of motion, especially when accompanied by music, the operation of the mental faculties in conjunction with the physical, the splendid exercise which it gives to the body, especially the upper portion, the fact of both sides being equally employed, the great ease and freedom of carriage, acquired through its practice, mark it as being pre-eminently adapted as an exercise for ladies.[133]

Indian club movements were made in positions, circles and ellipses of various combinations and, as described by Houghton, involved little else than arm movements performed in an erect position. The important point is that the exercises were suitable for girls' activities and would at least get them involved. In all probability,

Swedish ball exercises are the contemporary expression of such methods of exercising.

E.B. Houghton performed a yeoman's service in the pioneering of physical education in Ontario. A practical manual which could easily be adapted in the existing school situation, it outlined procedures for conducting physical training classes with military efficiency but without the controversial drill exercises:

> Among the other original features are the reduction of the rudiments of Indian club-swinging for the first time to a scientific basis ... for [use in] High and Public schools,...[134]

A very important aspect of the book was its attention to girls "gymnastics" and calisthenics.

The only other book which was found to be recommended for use in the schools, in particular the normal and secondary schools, was Archibald MacLaren's, Physical Education.[135] The work, obviously, was an import. This book was written in manual style as a progression of skills approach. That is, the exercises were presented from simple to complex series, from simple activities to the teaching of apparatus gymnastics. Most of the chapters pertained to descriptions of exercises on various pieces of equipment such as the pair of rings, the parallel bars, the horizontal bar, the vaulting horse and so forth.

However, there were sections on walking, running, leaping, the vertical pole, the "rosary,"[136] the leaping rope and climbing. The emphasis was on apparatus gymnastics and for that reason the book was as unsuitable for most schools in Ontario during this period. None of the public, elementary schools had room for such equipment, few of the high schools did prior to 1908 and very likely only a small number of the larger, urban collegiate institutes would have been able to afford such apparatus. Houghton's Physical Culture was by far the most practically useful and most popular manual on physical training during the period. Other books pertaining to physical training which were generally available through the Education Department are listed in Appendix E.

## Health Concerns and Kindergarten Influences

The above two features common to the decade between 1880 and 1890 exerted considerable impact, albeit mostly indirectly, on the development and acceptance of physical training within the public educational system. The first of these had to do with increasing health concerns during this period. While it is not the purpose of this dissertation to examine the history of health teaching in the schools, it is necessary to point out the growing awareness on the part of the public to the importance of

health practises. Positive health, as opposed to the mere absence of disease, is really the objective of all physical training programmes even though early physical instruction, prior to 1880, stressed discipline and obedience aims.

The term "physical culture," a term which was prevalent and commonly used during the period, was probably understood to mean that aspect of culture which concerned itself with the proper care and knowledge of the body.[137] Physical training, therefore, was one aspect of physical culture. At any rate, the point is that concepts having to do with "physical culture" were health-related concepts.

Sanitary conditions around 1880 were appalling:

> In Peel, as in every other county of the province, homes, public buildings and schools, were overcrowded and poorly ventilated; sanitary conveniences were nothing less than breeding places for germs, and water was tainted. In many communities, tanneries and piggeries lay in close proximity to dwellings; the reek of stagnant creeks polluted the atmosphere; and crammed graveyards were allowed to drain into wells.[138]

As noted previously,[139] the Provincial Board of Health was created in 1882 and the positive influence of that association was reflected in the reduction of the mortality rate from eighteen per thousand in 1880 to thirteen per 1000 by 1900.[140]

The health concern naturally focused on urban, and rural, youth. School lunches were, in 1880, little more than bread, molasses, sweet cakes and doughnuts and apples in season:

> These lunches were carried in little baskets, frequently of Indian workmanship, and the food was wrapped in brown paper or in a sheet of discarded newspaper.[141]

A general concern for child welfare was manifested in considerations being given to his physical well being and the over-all state of his health. Before 1887, teachers were expected to give "familiar lectures" on hygiene to the senior classes of the public schools, but there was no prescribed textbook on this subject.[142] Between 1875 and 1909 there developed a plethora of books pertaining to health topics, such as:

> First Book on Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene for Grammar Schools and Families, 1875.
>
> Elementary Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene for the Use of Schools and Families, 1879.
>
> Public School Temperance: Lessons on Alcohol and Its Action on the Body (Designed for Public Schools), 1887.
>
> Public School Physiology and Temperance, 1893.
>
> Introductory Physiology and Hygiene, 1905.[143]

Although these books were concerned mostly with the care of the various senses, organs and body systems, a few

contained small chapters on physical exercise which pointed out the value of regular physical exercise[144] to total health. The temperance books, of course, preached the evil effects of alcohol and tobacco on the human system, and, after 1890, they contained physiological topics relating to bones, muscles, skin, digestion, circulation, respiration and so forth.

In 1893 the subject of hygiene was made compulsory for the high school entrance examination.[145] By 1900 many of the larger urban boards were providing medical and dental services for their young pupils[146] and the Ontario Education Association, if judged by the number of addresses on the topic of health practises, was definitely concerned with the health of school children.[147] In such an atmosphere of a strong desire and general movement for improved health standards, physical training took shape and prospered.

A second factor which created a favourable environment in which physical training courses could develop was the kindergarten movement. Up to the early 1880's play was an activity which had to be provided for in a time allotment, much as one would allow washroom breaks. Playtime was inextricably bound up with the whole concept of recess and the play space was that area outside of the actual school. In Belleville, in 1882, the Board of

Education established that:

> A recess of not exceeding fifteen minutes shall be given in each school area morning and afternoon, and the head teachers of each school shall be present with the pupils in the playground during the recess, and shall also arrange to have at least another teacher with them.[148]

There was no room in the school for play, theoretically, practically or philosophically at the time. Even recess play seemed to be something which had to be tolerated in order to prime the "scholars" for the more serious intellectual work. In an early stage of industrial development, such as Ontario was going through at the time, work orientation in school, the mirror of society, could only logically be expected. Too, the child was, prior to the early 1880's, little more than a miniature adult; the schools were to discipline him as quickly as possible so as to enhance the rate at which he matured to adulthood. Physical training, especially in its military form, was assimilated quite easily primarily due to the strong discipline and obedience orientation intrinsic within it. Play, on the other hand was viewed as completely outside the realm of education. The value of play was not recognized as a basic child need as the following passage indicates:

> Pupils on being dismissed from school each day are required at once to leave

> the school building and playground, to proceed direct [sic] to their homes, and are prohibited from playing in the school playgrounds after school hours, or during holidays.[149]

It could be argued that one reason for such a regulation was a concern for property damage, yet it would seem to show too that school boards did not recognize the need to provide space for children to play.

Child-centred education was on the horizon in 1880. The work of G. Stanley Hall and the American child-study movement is well known as a major achievement in education during the late nineteenth century. Consideration for developmental stages of child maturation and growth meant that play assumed heightened importance in the school environment. More than the child-study movement, it was the incorporation of the kindergarten[150] within schools which brought play inside the schools and made it one more aspect of the total educational process. The person most responsible for the kindergarten movement in Ontario was James L. Hughes who is best known for his achievements in that regard.[151] The gifts, the occupations, the concept of play within the educational system were all ideas which had to be gradually introduced to Ontario educators by Hughes. But

> ... so revolutionary was the idea of education through play that he had to explain fully the relation of such play to the

> development of the child's powers - physical, social, mental, and moral.[152]

Hughes had become convinced of the necessity of introducing kindergartens in the province from his attendance at American conferences on the topic. He acquainted himself thoroughly with the writings of Froebel whose basic tenet for young school children was that they should "learn by doing." That is, activity was the basis of the young child's learning, according to Froebel,[153] and hence came the value of play and physical activity in educational institutions. The first kindergarten in Ontario was opened in Berlin in 1882, with the first one in Toronto being opened one year later by Ada Marean, later Mrs. James L. Hughes.[154] In 1885 and 1886 Toronto Normal School and Ottawa Normal School respectively introduced kindergart[illegible] courses.[155] Guidance of the child's play [illegible]aching objective of the early kindergartens a[illegible]idea of play as a valuable part of the educational [illegible]ss spread quickly after 1885. S.B. Sinclair stated [illegible]he early 1890's:

> [illegible]he play impulse should be allowed free [illegible]ction. Teach the pupils healthful, suitable plays and see that they play without restraint. There is no better opportunity for child study and child growth than that afforded on the "uncovered school room."[156]

The child was by that time suitable for study and obser-

vation and educators encouraged his play activities within the school. Sinclair, moreover, advocated simple calisthenic exercises to be done to vocal music, although, "the singing of hymns in schools should not be accompanied by Calisthenic exercises."[157]

The Ontario Education Association was convinced of the value of play also. At the 1897 meeting of that group, Dr. Tracy spoke on "The Practical Results of Child Study" remarking at the outset that the child was to be likened more to a fire to be fanned to life than a bucket to be filled with knowledge.[158] Regarding the activity of the child, he said:

> Movement is part of his very life; in him the reflex arc tends strongly always to complete itself; every impression naturally finds its outlet in a motor expression, and therefore if we seek to cultivate his mind, while at the same time suppressing his activities we are putting asunder what God has joined together in the child's nature and doing violence to a fundamental law of his development.[159]

There were those private citizens and members of the O.E.A. who were opposed to the kindergarten as a expensive fad[160] and, it must be remembered, there would be no room for the kindergarten in the one-room rural school houses. For the most part, it was enthusiastically received after 1887 in many urban centres. By 1911 there were some 194 kindergarten classes in Ontario with approxi-

mately 20,000 pupils in attendance.[161] It would be some time before play, expressed through games, sports and recreational activities, would be sanctioned as a vital part of the systematic programme of physical training.[162] Notwithstanding this fact, the foundation for the acceptance of activity, play activity, was laid in the kindergarten movement of the 1880's and 1890's. It was a logical extension of educators' train of thought which would lead them to accept and to value physical activity, in the form of physical training, for pupils beyond the primary ages.

Both the societal health concern and the acceptance of the value of play brought about by the kindergarten movement in Ontario were reflected in teacher training and in school programme implementation of physical training. The increasing public attention to health practices combined with a firm belief, on the part of educators and school boards, in the importance of play activities to child development created a favourable environment for the introduction of physical training programmes. The kindergarten movement itself exemplified the general tendency during this period to heighten the importance of the child in the learning process. The attainment of physical training programmes in the schools typified a second common inclination to introduce

practical subjects in educational institutions. The latter process depended strongly upon one factor -- teacher training.

Teachers-to-Be

The narrow range of Goodwin's influence on the preparation of qualified physical training instructors can be clearly understood from the following statistic: in 1877, only seventeen per cent of Ontario teachers had any professional training.[163] This general condition necessitated the creation of County Model Schools at the end of Ryerson's administration:

> These were simply elementary schools where principals took on a number of pupil-teachers and trained them in his methods on an apprenticeship system.[164]

The graduate of a County Model School, after about three months training, was given a third class certificate which meant he was qualified to teach for three years. Ideally he would then go on to upgrade his certification by attending Normal school. However, two-thirds of the Model School graduates quit teaching before the end of the three years in search of more lucrative employment. Those teachers who wished to do so could petition for renewal of the certificate, or, after 1885, re-write their third class examinations. In either case, renewal

was easily obtained through the department of education.[165] It is not difficult to imagine the nature of the county model school training:

> The course they offered was, of necessity, a hurried one. The entrance requirements were so low that prospective teachers were often immature and without a firm academic foundation. Consequently, the effect of the model schools upon the status of the profession was devastating. In addition, these schools were so active that they overstocked the market with poorly qualified teachers, thus lowering the status of the profession even further by arresting any upward tendency in the importance of the normal school.[166]

Inexpensive teachers were an obvious advantage to the Education Department, yet it is important not to overstate the drawbacks of these county model schools. They did provide some professional training, which, in whatever form, even if just the experience of being exposed to the school situation itself, was better than no training at all. The schools were discontinued in 1908.

First class and second class certificates were awarded, depending upon the length of the training, for successful completion of professional courses at Toronto Normal School, Ottawa Normal School (after 1875) and London Normal School (after 1900). By 1887:

> The course at the Provincial Normal School is now almost purely professional, instruction being given in

> only a few elementary subjects of special importance to the public school teachers, such as writing, drawing, reading music, drill and calisthenics.[167]

Public school teacher training was, in other words, moving away from the necessity of having to teach teachers content as opposed to method except in physical training and other practical subjects "of special importance to the public school teachers."

Teacher training institutions were provided in 1885 for prospective secondary school teachers. Prior to that time they received no professional education. Called Training Institutes in 1885, the scheme designated five major centres to use their collegiate institutes for observation and practice teaching during a fourteen week period in the fall of each year.[168] Five years later, the collegiate institute system was abolished in favour of the Toronto-based, Ontario School of Pedagogy which offered the same fourteen week course until 1897. It was not until that latter year, 1897, that professional preparation for secondary teachers became obligatory.[169] This requirement coincided with the opening of the Ontario Normal College in Hamilton which supplanted the School of Pedagogy[170] as the secondary school teacher training institution until 1907 when the universities at Toronto and Kingston created faculties of education.[171]

If secondary teachers had no practice teaching and very little professional training prior to 1900, one can well imagine how meaningless and impractical were suggestions and books on apparatus gymnastics. Some high school teachers did attend a normal school at their own discretion, but even at those institutions, as will be shown below, the teacher would gain a knowledge of little else in physical training other than drill and calisthenics.

A gentleman by the name of Mounteer, in 1891, sent a series of four letters to the editor of The Educational Journal. In the first of these, he pointed out that:

> Forty years ago, teaching physical culture would have meant starvation, if not abuse, to anyone attempting it. But how different now .... The wheel of public opinion that has so long been rusted fast in blind, lazy prejudice, commenced to creak about twenty-five years ago.[172]

At the same time, there were others who seemed to recognize the value of and need for physical instructors, but who made impassioned pleas for qualified personnel:

> The office of drill sergeant is an honourable one but [we] can't expect all teachers to pose as a scholastic Ajax defying the disturbed molecules of outraged space before a class of struggling, panting and red-faced hobble-de-hoys, and Noah's ark maidens corsetted to kill at two thousand yards.[173]

It is interesting, therefore, to examine exactly what was going on in the way of teacher training to enable teachers, or future teachers, who were being trained mostly in the county model schools and at the normal schools, to instruct in physical training. It should be pointed out that one must be aware of the fact that the ratio of female to male teachers was constantly increasing in favour of women teachers. Approximately half way through the period under discussion, there were 5,957 female teachers and 2,612 male teachers in the Ontario public schools.[174]

The Education Department recommended the following course of study for students attending normal and model schools in 1878:

> Drill (for males)
> Calisthenics (for females)
>
> The Drill Instructor shall see to it that every Teacher-in-training, besides learning his drill, shall have practice in drilling others.
>
> The instruction given in Drill, Calisthenics, and Domestic Economy, shall be sufficient to enable the Teachers-in-training to carry out the Public School programmes in these subjects.[175]

Sergeant C.R. Dearnlay succeeded Colonel Goodwin as "Instructor in Drill and Calisthenics" at the Toronto Normal School. He, in turn, was followed by Sergeant T. Parr who held the same position as Dearnlay from 1884

to 1898.[176] Their official rank would indicate that the military nature of physical training was stressed. Even if Parr followed Houghton's manual, squad drill, exercises with the dumbbell for men and with the indian club for women were probably all that was taught. Furthermore, that kind of instruction was all that was needed at the time to suit public school exercise facilities. The only "specialists" in the schools would be men with a similar background to Parr -- they would have had military backgrounds, and in order to teach drill and calisthenics, the only requirement would have been to satisfy the Minister as to their ability and skill. Any physical training which prospective teachers received at the normal schools prior to 1885 would have given them more training than their counterparts at the county model schools where subjects such as "music, drawing, drill and calisthenics were optional."[177] Ottawa Normal School enjoyed the same advantage as the Toronto institution with Sergeant E.B. Cope employed as drill and calisthenics master for most of the period prior to the turn of the century.

Beginning in 1882 changes were made at the county model schools with regard to training physical training instructors. Since the headmaster of such schools was a normal school graduate, he had received such instruction

and as a result he would have been able to appreciate and incorporate the "recommended syllabus" sent to him in 1882. The "syllabus" was as follows:

Drill and Calisthenics

1. Benefits 1. To the health. 2. to the figure. 3. Improved carriage. 4. Aid in discipline.
2. Rules for Teaching
   1. Apply the same principles as in teaching another subject.
   2. Objective illustration is better than the most accurate verbal explanations.
   3. Repeating the words of a drill book to a class is not better teaching than repeating the words of a grammar would be.
   4. Study the words carefully to learn precisely what the movements are, but teach chiefly by action not by words.
   5. When you have done one step or motion or exercise before the pupils, question them closely about what you have done, before they attempt to imitate you.
   6. Do or describe only one step in a motion or exercise at a time, and do not pass on until that step has been performed correctly.
   7. It is of paramount importance that errors should be carefully corrected; absolute accuracy at the beginning will save much trouble afterwards.
   8. Errors may best be corrected by doing the motion in both the right and the wrong way, and asking the pupils to describe the differences between them.
   9. Be prompt, decided and energetic in conducting drill and calisthenic exercises.
   10. Speak in a loud tone, but not in a high key, in giving commands.
   11. It is of great importance to be accurate and uniform in giving the words of command.

> All light calisthenic exercises should be done in time with singing.[178]

Such were the first instructions sent out to the county model schools regarding the teaching of physical drill and calisthenics. If a "drill manual" was used, it was probably Hughes' Manual of Drill and Calisthenics. The guidelines for the teachers seem to emphasize methodology, assuming, perhaps, that teachers would first teach themselves, then the children. The eighth suggestion is particularly worthy of note. It seems that teachers would teach by imitation; but they would teach a particular exercise first by incorrectly demonstrating it, then by doing it correctly. The theory was that the last illustration was the one which would be impressed on the pupils' minds.[179] By 1886, the Minister was able to report that drill was taught in fifty of the fifty-five county model schools.[180]

There were no female instructors in the normal schools until Miss Wilhelmina MacKenzie was hired as the "teacher of calisthenics" in 1896 at the Toronto Normal School.[181] Two years later, at the Ottawa Normal School, Miss Elizabeth Keyes was appointed "teacher of physical culture."[182] Male drill instructors must have been experiencing considerable difficulty in teaching the young ladies with most of their training being in male-dominated military situations. At any rate, the placement

of female calisthenic mistresses was a long felt need, at least in the eyes of the young ladies. Drill sergeants dominated the position of drill and calisthenic instructor in Toronto and Ottawa Normal Schools[183] until 1908 when a civilian, Mr. E.F.R. Copeman was appointed "physical instructor" when the London Normal School opened in 1900.[184] As far as indoor facilities used by the normal school physical training instructors were concerned, no reference was found which would indicate that a new gymnasium was built at the Toronto Normal School after the play sheds were torn down in 1888. Ottawa Normal School, London Normal School and the Ontario Normal College in Hamilton all had small gymnasia, the one at the Ontario Normal College being the largest at seventy-two feet by forty feet.[185]

It is extremely difficult to determine exactly what was being taught to prospective teachers except by inference. By way of example, those teachers who did attend the secondary school Training Institutes in the second year of their operation were subjected to written and practical examinations:

> The written examinations in Hygiene and School Law and Regulations, and in Methods in Drill, Gymnastics and Calisthenics, shall be held by the Principal and Masters on Friday, December 2nd, from 9.00 to 10.30 a.m. The practical examinations in Drill, Gymnastics and Calisthenics, shall be held by the same examiners during the rest of the day.[186]

Obviously then, educators had come to accept physical training to the point of qualifying secondary school teachers to instruct in the subject. The length, or duration, of the instruction was not indicated, but there was instruction. The course carried through to the School of Pedagogy in Toronto under Sergeant Parr, with the Manual of Hygiene and Houghton's Physical Culture being used as basic texts in the course.[187] The students at the School of Pedagogy had the privilege of using the gymnasium of the Y.M.C.A. on the corner of Yonge and McGill streets, Toronto.[188] In all probability, then, the "Y" facility was used for all branches of instruction at the Normal School since there was no gymnasium in the latter building. Regarding the School of Pedagogy and its use, a time-table in 1890 shows that the physical training class was "given" drill, gymnastics and calisthenics Monday through Friday from eight to nine in the morning and again from 11.15 a.m. to 12.15 p.m.[189] Undoubtedly the males were instructed separately from the females in keeping with general policy at the time.

Physical Culture, by Houghton, was the basis for all examinations in physical training in the Training Institutes after 1886[190] and in the Normal and Model Schools during the late 1880's and 1890's.[191] Even with this information, it is difficult to confirm whether

or not the courses, or the examinations, in physical training always occurred. County boards of examiners conducted the exams in the "regular" subjects while in subjects such as music, drawing and drill and calisthenics, the masters at the institutes themselves were responsible for holding their own tests.[191] The county boards simply sent out circulars asking, "Was instruction given in Drill?" All the headmaster had to do was indicate "yes," or "passed." Optimistically, the teacher training schools maintained their integrity by giving courses in physical training and conducting the examinations. When marks were submitted for physical training examination results, they were "considered with the other marks by the Board in determining the results."[192] Credit for physical training courses was indicated on the teachers' certificates as early as 1884.[193] As far as mark distribution, one source indicated that for the 1892 examination in drill at the Ontario School of Pedagogy, 50 marks were awarded for drill proficiency and 50 for "gymnastics" and calisthenics combined.[194]

Teachers were trained in two basic elements of physical culture from 1877 to 1908, drill and calisthenics. "Gymnastics" was a broad term relating to exercises, performed with dumbbells, indian clubs, and ropes, executed in the gymnasium. No references were found to indicate

that teachers were trained in the use of heavy gymnastic apparatus such as parallel bars and certainly sports and games were [illegible] from being included in teacher training curricula. [illegible]t to say that the Education Department was narrow[illegible] terms of progress. In 1890, the Mini[illegible] of [illegible]on sent the headmistresses of the Toron[illegible]nd [illegible]a normal schools to observe normal school metho[illegible]n [illegible] United States. The two ladies indicated in thei[illegible]t that they had seen the Delsarte physical trainin[illegible]em in operation in Oswego: "This system is emine[illegible] productive of graceful and expressive gestures, [illegible]d of a fine carriage."[195]

Desp[illegible] this visit, "systems" approaches did not begin to ap[illegible]r until early in the twentieth century. The drill and calisthenics teacher training was tremendously resis[illegible]t to change. The Education Department did employ a M[illegible]. Corsan, an instructor at the Central Y.M.C.A. in Toronto to give lectures and demonstrations in swimming at the London and Toronto normal schools in 1905-1906.[196] Ottawa Normal School declined the offer saying that they already had a competent swimming instructor in their employ. Still, swimming was an added feature of teacher training, certainly not part of the regular course of instruction in the subject.

By 1907, teachers were being made aware of the

"value of plays and games; organized or unorganized play" but these did not comprise "physical exercise within the school."[197] The 1907 Syllabus of Studies for the normal schools advised that the teacher-in-training "... be made familiar with the German, Swedish, French (Delsarte), and American systems of physical training."[198] He might well have been made aware of such systems, but the course description showed only calisthenic-flexibility exercises.[199] In summary, teacher training throughout the period was in the form of drill and calisthenics and all training institutions offered courses in physical training. Hughes' and Houghton's books continued to be the backbone of teacher training in "physical culture."

During this same time period, there were schools, outside of the Education Department's jurisdiction, which functioned to prepare specialists in physical training. Some of these included the Hamilton School of Physical Culture, which opened in 1889[200]; the Toronto School of Expression, which opened in 1901[201]; and the other less well known ones such as the school operated by the Toronto Conservatory of Music called the Conservatory School of Elocution, which was in operation in 1893 and which gave instruction in Delsarte and Swedish gymnastics.[202] In addition, the University of Toronto offered a diploma

course in "gymnastics and physical drill," in 1901, for a fee of two dollars.[203] If these schools did have an influence on qualifying teachers for school programmes in physical instruction, that impact was impossible to determine. Few teachers would have found it necessary to attend such training schools, other than, perhaps, the University of Toronto course, prior to 1908. Their best clientelle probably included persons wishing to do Y.M.C.A. work or to go into private business. The majority of Ontario's teachers who attended the various normal schools between 1877 and 1908 were made familiar with a system of physical training which was based upon drill and calisthenics. Moreover, school programmes mirrored this common form of professional preparation.

## In the Schools

In the elementary schools in England, the two decades after 1870 were characterized as drill years by McIntosh.[204] This stage in the development of physical education in Great Britain was the result of the provision for military drill for two hours per week set forth in the 1870 Education Act. In the 1890's, gymnasia were not built for the British elementary schools because the Board felt that fixed gymnasium apparatus was unsuitable for children under fourteen years of age.[205] A grant was

established in the mid 1890's to induce schools to provide Swedish drill or exercises and in 1900 the London Board dictated that sports and games were a suitable alternative to drill or physical exercises.[206] Most schools did not have the facilities for these games and were therefore forced to retain the drill and physical exercise programmes. A parallel situation existed in Ontario during the same period.

In 1875, Dr. Brouse, an M.P. from South-Grenville, made a motion to have the federal government sponsor military drill programmes in the elementary schools of Canada.[207] But the Dominion government was, as yet, careful not to move into provincial matters such as education. Sir John A. Macdonald himself replied to Dr. Brouse listing his reasons for opposing the motion: such a programme would further broaden an already overcrowded curriculum; it would be too expensive for the schools; there was no need for military preparedness; some members "would as soon think of teaching his child to drink whiskey or steal, as to be a soldier."[208] The whole matter was finally left up to the provincial governments.[209]

The Ontario provincial government concerned itself with public school physical training in the late 1870's. In 1879 Hughes declared that:

> Canadians are beginning to realize that the necessity for developing the physical as well as the mental natures of children at school. The official programme of study for Public Schools in Ontario makes drill and calisthenics compulsory.[210]

Four years earlier, the Council of Public Instruction had suggested that, "Gymnastics, Drill and Calisthenics are to be provided at the discretion of the Trustees."[211] It seems that that discretion was exercised for many years after 1875 and for obvious reasons. Teachers were still of the "transient" type in most cases, with little or no background training in physical instruction methods. The curriculum was crowded and physical training instruction along with subjects like music and drawing were still seen as frill subjects in most schools. Further, there was no manual for teachers' use although the Education Department advised teachers to form their pupils into squads and put them through various positions of squad drill such as standing at ease, saluting, instruction in marching, marching as in file, diagonal march and single rank formation of fours.[212] Such terms must have been a mystery to any teacher with no military background. In the cities, drill sergeants (probably retired drill sergeants) were able to offer their services. Perhaps, some county and town school teachers also had military experience. Statistics compiled between 1871 and 1878,

given in Appendix H, show that gradually increasing numbers of pupils received drill and calisthenics instruction in the cities, towns and counties of Ontario.[213] The number of pupils receiving instruction in physical training as compared to a regular subject is, of course, far smaller. Drill and calisthenics were not as yet required nor were they considered equal in weight to other subjects in many schools. Above all trained teachers were at a premium.

Apparatus gymnastics were not only an impossibility in terms of physical exercise facilities in the elementary schools in 1880; some educators regarded them as totally unsuitable, just as the British Board did in the 1890's. George Wright, ex-chairman of the Toronto Public School Board recommended physical training, but not gymnastics:

> They are only safe for the expert, and even with the expert serious accidents are possible at any time. What is known as high physical training is not only dangerous to the weak, but of questionable value to the strong.[214]

Inspectors were hired only on a part time basis in the 1870's and 1880's, which meant that, considering their lack of training in normal schools, they were not competent to examine the work being done in military drill[215] as to method of presentation, proper instruction and so forth. In all probability, it was only Departmental regulations

which made them aware of the subject in the first place. Unless inspectors encouraged the teaching of drill and calisthenics in regions employing teachers with third class certification in the early 1880's, it wasn't taught. As Appendix H indicates, drill and calisthenics were taught up to 1880, to only a small proportion of the pupils. There were extremes in the opposite direction. The public schools of Galt, in 1880, experimented with a "half-time system" whereby pupils spent a half day at their lessons, the other half in supervised play.[216] The experiment was at the primary level and involved marching songs with motions. The scheme was really the beginning of kindergarten play and games.

In 1880, the year after Hughes' Manual of Drill and Calisthenics was published, the number of pupils taking drill and calisthenics in the public schools experienced a marked increase.[217] The Manual had a practical effect even on rural schools. Teachers were given a syllabus to follow as were prospective teachers in the normal and model schools. In the cities, to which better teachers were attracted, the number of pupils enrolled in drill and calisthenics was gradually rising to the same level as those taking spelling. In 1883, for example, 34,000 pupils were taking drill and calisthenics compared to approximately 48,000 taking spelling. Ten years earlier

the same figures or statistics were 881 and 25,616 respectively. Rural schools too indicated marked increases in terms of total numbers enrolled. These figures indicate nothing about the quality of the instruction, or the nature of the course. Quality in the programmes is impossible to determine, but it is almost certain that military "squad" drill was the basis for instruction and that light calisthenic exercises were given to girls if Hughes' work became the manual. Such were the Department's expectations in 1885:

> Drill and Calisthenics: The different extension movements prescribed in any text-book on the subject should be frequently practised, not only during recess but during school hours. Accuracy and promptness should characterize every movement. In addition, the boys should be formed into companies and taught the usual squad and company drill, and the girls should be exercised in calisthenics.[218]

Form and quick obedience seemed to be the only desired goals of the physical training programmes, as the above quotation seems to imply. Furthermore, the Education Department attached unequal status to physical training in the public school curriculum:

> Music, drill and calisthenics, temperance and agriculture are also included, although occupying as formerly a less prominent position.[219]

Nevertheless, drill and calisthenics were, by the mid 1880's, an established part of the course of studies in

the elementary schools.

The year prior to the appearance of Houghton's Physical Culture, educators in Ontario were made aware, through the professional journal, the Educational Weekly, of the Dio Lewis system of free gymnastics with dumbbells, wands and clubs.[220] Houghton included many of Lewis' "gymnastic" exercises in his book, and, as noted previously,[221] his manual met with instant success. Drill was never replaced during the period; the following passage indicates the reason:

> Drill is of all agents for out-door physical instruction the one par excellence for any school, of any nationality, in any climate. If there is a means of building up a man's physique more than another it is drill. If there is an artist more competent than another to put the finishing touches to that sentient statue of clay, which, rough moulded, has been handed in for completion and polish, it is the qualified drill instructor.[222]

Drill was popular, as was the drill instructor, and it was meant for the male. Houghton's book marked the beginning of a movement away from the prominence of drill in the programme to include more calisthenic, rope climbing, dumbbell and indian club exercises. Such "gymnastics" were suited to female physical exercise capabilities and interests much more so than drill. Once again, the rise in the number of students enrolled in drill and calisthenic lessons was dramatic and is coincident with the

publication of Physical Culture. In 1886 a total of 158,675 students were taking drill and calisthenics compared with 454,799 enrolled in spelling. The latter figure was slightly decreased in 1890, but 225,742 pupils were taking instruction in physical training.[223] In the cities, almost all pupils were receiving drill and calisthenic programmes by 1890. Houghton's book provided the final boost to physical training. From 1890 through to 1908 the enrollment figures remained very static with only small fluctuations upwards and downwards. Consequently, it is interpreted that the programme in physical training was fully implemented by circa 1890. Public school facilities could not accommodate any other more sophisticated course of instruction than the one suggested by Houghton. Teacher training was centred on his manual. Therefore, changes could not be made from within the system. Programme variations were in the hands of individual instructors, many of whom were still the indomitable drill sergeants even at the normal schools.

In Toronto, Hughes worked diligently to encourage physical training in his public schools. As early as 1882, he established public displays not only for boys in drill parades, but also for girls:

> The competition for the marble clock, presented by Robert Hay, M.P., for the class showing the greatest proficiency

> in calisthenic exercises, was a most interesting event.[224]

By 1890, exercises with dumbbells, rings, wands and clubs had been introduced into several Toronto public schools and girls again displayed their skills in "physical culture" in a mass gathering at Exhibition Park on Dominion Day, 1890.[225]

Not everyone was pleased with the surge in teaching drill and calisthenics that had occurred by 1890. The Board of Health, for instance, pronounced that drill and calisthenic instruction was "best" in the city schools, but that rural school parents needed to be convinced of the importance of procuring "gymnastic appliance," presumably indian clubs and dumbbells.[226] It must have been difficult indeed to persuade parents of country school children that their children needed more physical exercise than that which they received while working on the farm. Even if they were convinced, the exercises would have been required to be held outdoors in a regular period. The Public School Act, up until 1891, required that desks be nailed down to the floor.[227] Therefore, the desks could not be pushed aside for an interval of exercising in the schools.

Systematic physical exercise based on scientific principles of intention and proven benefit were desired

in the 1890's. Educators wanted physical training to be made compulsory in the elementary schools in 1892, but:

> Not the kind of sporadic exercise - it cannot be called training in a proper sense - to which young men in college subject themselves in the form of boating, baseball, football, lacrosse, etc., with the belief that they are doing great things for themselves, yet instead often planting in their bodies the seeds of irremediable troubles, but exercise that in kind and quantity is directed by the most enlightened science.[228]

In addition, objectives for physical training programmes were beginning to shift from a focus on discipline and obedience to a desire "... to promote efficiency of the circulatory and respiratory organs and increase the volitional control of the body."[229] In other words, the health concern so strongly in evidence in the 1880's was becoming manifest in aims set for physical training programmes. Even in primary grades:

> Children who drill
> Seldom are ill
> For sinking, tiptoeing, and right and left going,
> And shouting and clapping and measured out tapping,
> Strengthen their limbs,
> Drive away whims,
> Make faces shine brightly, make spines grow uprightly;
> So I suppose,
> Illness all goes.[230]

Opinions on drill as a suitable form of physical training were mostly neutral if judged by the use of

military drill in the programmes. At one polar position was the Canadian Militia Gazette whose editors agreed that "there is no better way of inducing good material to join the militia than to teach them their drill when, as boys, they pick it up most readily."[231] The editor of the Educational Journal was, to say the least, opposed:

> Let it be the moral duty of all thinking manhood and womanhood to protest against the demoralizing form of so-called physical development, of which we have for the past few years been slavish worshippers, and let us not fall into a graver error, by having the youths of the country trained to a partial development, a development that fits them for a military rather than a civil life.[232]

Military drill never lost its hold during the period, primarily due to the ever-present drill sergeants and to its inclusion in the available texts on physical training. Opponents of military instruction in the schools had to settle for the calisthenic supplements.

Irregular attendance undoubtedly affected the amount and uniformity of the instruction in physical training. In 1895, although enrollment figures indicated that 440,000 pupils were registered in the elementary schools, the average attendance was approximately fifty-five per cent. Any graduated programme in drill and calisthenics must have been rendered ineffectual by unpredictable attendance. For this reason alone, it is

quite possible that programmes were more of the nature of a "daily dosage" than they were characterized by systematic instructional objectives of progression. In 1906, the chairman of the physical education section of the O.E.A. indicated that:

> Physical training may be defined as the regulated practice of muscular exercises under conditions that tend to promote the health of the organism and to develop and discipline its motor powers. These exercises may be employed for mere recreation, their aim may be hygienic, or the aim may be educative, or it may be remedial. But, various as are the forms or the purposes of physical exercises, their nature and effects are essentially alike, for when reduced to their simplest terms they consist of muscular contractions.[233]

The aims were lofty; the methods were drill and calisthenics, available in most elementary schools.

Military drill, due to the cooperation between the Department of Education and the federal Department of Militia, was far more pronounced in the secondary schools. It is submitted that the federal Department of Militia involvement in establishing drill at this level of the school system during the period under consideration was the first stage of a general movement, culminating in the Strathcona Trust in 1909, to maintain military drill as the basis of physical training instruction in the schools. The benefits to the militia department were centred in a

partially trained "volunteer" system in times of need. Young adults of a secondary school age were concentrated on at first because the opposition in the elementary school levels was too strong. It is difficult to place a one-sided value judgment on this federal involvement since the benefits to the schools were just as great as to the militia department. Without its involvement, it may have been quite some time before any physical training system reached the schools, secondary or elementary. The employment of drill sergeants alone, at both levels of education, attests to this fact.

In 1879, the Minister of Education, Honourable Adam Crooks, issued a circular to the various high school and collegiate institute boards with respect to their forming drill associations.[234] Each institution desirous of having drill taught was to apply to the Adjutant-General of Militia who would provide a drill instructor. The intention was to establish drill companies at each school and to provide a concentrated period of drill instruction of approximately one month in duration. The editor of The Canada Education Monthly and School Chronicle, later that year, reported that not one school had taken advantage of the proposed scheme.[235] The reasons, he felt, were that the system would seriously interfere with regular school work during the one month training period; it was

not regular enough:

> From the teacher's standpoint, drill should have an educative influence, and to have much value as such, it should form part of the studies in the school programme. This it does in several of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, in some of which it is taught by the regular masters themselves, who, for reasons which will be obvious to all teachers, form the most efficient class of instructors.[236]

Further, the editor remarked that government drill instructors might be needed in smaller localities, but that they would only force schoolboards to discard their own instructors. Clearly then, the cooperative agreement was not well articulated and secondary schools were already engaged in their own drill programmes. In fact, only the larger centres like Toronto, Ottawa, Kingston, Hamilton, London and Galt had offered drill instruction in the secondary schools up to 1879.[237] When Guelph Collegiate Institute was constructed in 1879, an instructor in drill and calisthenics was hired.[238] Thus, by 1879, some secondary institutions offered programmes in drill and calisthenics.

Appendix I illustrates the increase in the number of secondary school students taking drill (boys), calisthenics (girls) and "gymnastics." The breakdown between 1888 and 1899 is difficult to interpret except that the drill was for males, the calisthenics for females. Who took "gymnastics" is a difficult problem to determine.

Perhaps it was given as a separate category for schools with gymnasia. Whatever the case, the drill and calisthenics categories are enough to signify trends in growth. Developments in the collegiate institutes show steady growth after 1888 for drill, with a levelling off in 1900 and succeeding years when drill became a fully established part of the curriculum. High schools reached a peak, never equal to the collegiate institute figures, in 1895 and actually declined thereafter. Calisthenics, or girls' physical training, experienced the same rises and fluctuations as did drill at both types of institutions.

The drop in high school enrollment figures is explained by the fact of a tremendously crowded curriculum.[239] Even where drill and calisthenics were taught in the high schools after this period, it was only for one hour per week. In the high schools, where gymnasia and equipment existed, there was drill instruction, otherwise any drill classes were held out of doors in fair weather.[240] The existence of a room to be used as a gymnasium seemed to encourage programmes. At Iroquois High School, after 1889

> ... a gymnasium was fitted up on the third floor and a regular system of exercise and drill instituted. Dumbbells, Indian clubs, wands and the various other devices intended to conduce to bodily vigor have come to be regarded as nearly, if not altogether, as essential to the proper

> equipment of a High School as blackboards, maps and lexicons.[241]

A partial stimulus to the high schools came in 1891 with the promise of a fifty dollar grant "... to any school employing a competent drill instructor and in which school a class of not less than twenty five pupils has been taught for a period of at least six months."[242] Ryerson's precedent of establishing a fifty dollar grant was readopted some twenty six years after its initial incorporation. The inducement had an effect, as Appendix I shows, in that the five years following 1891 were peak years in the number of high school students taking drill and calisthenics.

Regulation number nineteen for high schools and collegiate institutes stated, in 1891:

> Drill, Gymnastic and Calisthenics shall be taught during the regular school hours and in well organized classes, not less than an hour and a half a week in each division of Forms I and II; and not less than an hour a week in the other Forms; and additional provision shall be made for practice by the pupils under efficient supervision. In High Schools which have no Gymnasium, Gymnastics is not obligatory, and Drill and Calisthenics shall be taken up only in suitable weather and in accordance with the circumstances of each school.[243]

No pupil was to be exempt from the physical training course, except by medical excuse and no gymnasium equipment

grant would be given to a high school which did not satisfy its inspector with a satisfactory programme.[244] Therefore, a teacher could make his own interpretation of "suitable weather" and still receive an equipment grant. High schools with no gymnasia must have had great difficulty satisfying the six month requirement for the fifty dollar grant. Students, too, found the 1891 regulations overbearing, if a letter written in 1892 from Arthur Meighen and friends in attendance at St. Mary's High School is any indication.[245] Meighen and associates believed drill to be "practically a waste of time" and pleaded for the Minister to write them a note excusing them from "... this obligation so unnecessary and so embarrassing." The Minister replied:

> Constant physical exercise is so important to all classes of students that it would not be desirable to exempt any person from the provisions of this regulation unless for some special reason other than a want of time.[246]

In 1896, the Minister noted that drill and calisthenics were required to be taught during regular school hours and in organized classes not less than half an hour per week to the pupils in the first three forms:

> When the weather is not suitable, or where the pupils are physically incapable of taking this course, the principal may dispense with it ....[247]

In short, drill and calisthenics were never made completely

obligatory in the secondary schools. For that reason, the greatest amount of high school physical training came in the early 1890's under a monetary inducement. Collegiate institutes developed programmes because they had gymnasia and equipment facilities sponsored by a grant system. Where high schools could afford to build a gymnasium, they developed physical training programmes.

The fifty dollar grant of 1891 was turned toward cadet companies' formation in 1898. The grant was supplied by the federal Department of Militia and the Education Department did everything in its power to co-operate with the federal body thereafter.[248] It was the cadet programme which received the greatest attention with respect to military training. The collegiate institute facilities were even allowed to slide:

> Indoor sports could not amount to much in the old collegiates, for the barn-like gymnasiums were too small and too rickety.[249]

and in an ex-pupil's words:

> I first came to Parkdale [Collegiate Institute] in 1905. I remember my first gym class. We had a little old building north-east of the old school and all senior boys who could not get into the gym in the regular classes had to take it at recess.[250]

These collegiate institutes were in Toronto where one would expect far better facilities to be located due to the

prominence of the Toronto school board and its leadership role in the development of education in Ontario.

The Regulations of the Education Department in 1907 regarding physical training were as follows:

> (1) The course in Drill, Calisthenics, and Gymnastics is obligatory in Collegiate Institutes and shall be taken up in lessons of thirty minutes each three times a week, in each Form of the Lower School.
> (2) Provision for Physical Culture shall be made in the Middle and Upper Schools also, but the amount and the character of the provision are left to the discretion of the Principal.
> (3) No pupil shall be exempted from the course in Physical Culture except upon a medical certificate or on account of evident physical disability or of other reason satisfactory to the Principal and approved by the High School Inspector. In all the forms the sexes shall be separately trained.
> (4) During the months of May, June, September, October, and November, the Principal may substitute for drill etc. such sports and games as he may approve.
> (5) In High Schools having no gymnasium, drill and calisthenics shall be taken up at the discretion of the Principal, as often as the weather, the accommodations, and the adequacy of the staff will permit; and gymnastics may be omitted.251

The fourth regulation was the same one made by the British Board some seven years earlier. In Ontario, it is doubtful if sports and games were as yet considered part of the systematic physical training programme. Perhaps the Education Department could no longer ignore the interests of the students. Sports and games were not to achieve

a place in the programmes of secondary, or elementary, schools for some years to come. Of the three levels of education under consideration, elementary, high school and collegiate institute, it was the high school which was seen to have the most inferior physical training programme during the period. In terms of numbers involved, adequate facilities and authoritative attention to its programme, it was decidedly deficient. The cadet movement was afoot in the collegiate institutes after 1891 and it seemed to attract more Department interest than within-school-hour physical training programmes. The Department of Militia was well established in the school system by 1908.

What kind of ideas went through the mind of the Minister of Militia and National Defence when he received a letter from Honourable Richard Harcourt, Minister of Education, late in January of 1903? The letter suggested the need for a grant to develop military training in the public schools:

> The result of which would be that our schools would furnish our volunteer companies and camps with very desirable material.[252]

The Minister of Militia and National Defence at the time was Sir Frederick W. Borden, a man who was to exert a major force in promoting physical training in the schools after 1908.

NOTES

[1]Herbert Spencer, Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical (New York: A.L. Burt Publishers, no date, but was first published in 1861), p. 309.

[2]C.P. Mulvany, Toronto: Past and Present: A Handbook of the City (Toronto: W.E. Caiger Publisher, 1884), p. 81.

[3]R.M. Stamp, "Evolving Patterns of Education: English-Canada from the 1870's to 1914," Canadian Education: A History, edited by J. Donald Wilson, et al. (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1970), p. 328. Stamp notes further that significant changes in education did not occur until the Conservative Party gained office in 1905, when Dr. R.A. Pyne, as Minister of Education, and John Seath, as Superintendent of Education, brought new vigour into the system. Ibid. Ryerson's close associate, J.G. Hodgins, was Deputy Minister of Education until 1888. Since Hodgins admired and even helped to shape the Ryerson system, Stamp's point is probably well taken.

[4]J.G. Althouse, "The Ontario Teacher: An Historical Account of Progress, 1800-1910" (Doctor of Pedagogy dissertation, University of Toronto, 1929), p. 161.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid., p. 179. Johnson views the entire 1880-1920 period as one of "awakening humanitarianism" in reference to the new attitude toward children and their welfare. See, F.H. Johnson, A Brief History of Canadian Education (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Co. of Canada Ltd., 1968), p. 82. To support his claim, Johnson cites the formation of a Child Study section of the Ontario Education Association in 1895 which followed the pattern of the movement of the same name begun in the United States one decade earlier. Ibid., p. 83.

[7]James L. Hughes, cited in E.A. Hardy and H.M. Cochrane, eds., Centennial Story: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto 1850-1950 (Toronto: Thomas Nelson and Sons (Canada) Ltd., 1950), p. 26. "James L. Hughes was to be known from school to school for his great belief in the child -- especially the boy - any boy - every boy." Ibid., p. 69. Hughes' emphasis on "character training"

is reminiscent of a similar objective set down by Ryerson; to train up "Christian gentlemen." The major difference in terminology in the two educators' aims was the element of religion. Ryerson equated religious education with moral education while Hughes was concerned with any system or methodology which contributed positively toward character formation. Hughes' influence on the physical education curriculum was profound, both during the period being examined in this chapter and in the early implementation of the Strathcona Trust in Ontario after 1909.

[8]Stamp, "Evolving Patterns of Education," p. 315.

[9]Ibid.

[10]Ibid.

[11]Ibid., p. 326.

[12]P.C. McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800 (London: G. Bell and Sons, 1968, second edition).

[13]Ibid., pp. 12-13. It was the blending of these two traditions which provided the focal point for McIntosh's book. The author listed three basic reasons for the initial dichotomy of the two traditions. The first of these concerned the fact of the variance in age ranges between boys at the public schools and those attending elementary schools. The age discrepancy meant that at least some of the sports found in the public schools would have to be modified to suit elementary school-age boys. Secondly, elementary schools in Great Britain were faced with the problem of maximum numbers in minimum space. There was no such issue within the public school system, a fact which meant at least a positive atmosphere and adequate accommodation for the promotion of sports and games. Finally, McIntosh noted that within elementary boards of education: "An almost puritanical idea was commonly held that games were recreative, pleasurable and of less educational value than physical training." Ibid., p. 13.

[14]J.G. Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 2 (Toronto: Printed and Published by L.K. Cameron, 1910), p. 213. The College was often designated by that epithet since, as Hodgins noted its masters prided themselves on modelling the school after the "... Great Public School especially with regards character training and turning out great men." In turn, it is interesting to note that many secondary schools were patterned after Upper Canada College.

Perhaps the most famous of these was the Galt Ontario Grammar School whose headmaster in the 1860's and 1870's was the famous William Tassie: "Tassie had built up a school of international reputation, with eighty per cent of the boys coming from outside the town, from every part of Canada and from many American states. The school was noted for the excellence of its discipline and the thoroughness of its training, and its graduates, like those of John Strachan's school half a century earlier, played an important role in public life."

[15]G. Dickson and A.G. Mercer, A History of Upper Canada College 1829-1892 (Toronto: Rowsell and Hutchinson, 1893), p. 105. No record of Goodwin's length of appointment at Upper Canada College was found.

[16]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for Ontario, 1888, p. 80. A description of the system in the intervening years is deemed to be not only outside the scope of this dissertation, but also quite unnecessary. The point is that drill and calisthenics, which were both conducted in military, straight-line, by numbers fashion, were a part of the educational curriculum in this epitomized private secondary school throughout the period being examined. It follows that what was good enough for Upper Canada College was good enough for public education.

[17]Dickson and Mercer, A History of Upper Canada College 1829-1892, opposite p. 256. A diagram of this gymnasium pencilled from this same photograph is shown in, A. Hall, "Arthur Lewis Cochrane: A Biographical Sketch" (unpublished paper, Queen's University, Kingston, 1964), preface. Hall indicates that the picture depicts the gymnasium in 1891, while Dickson and Mercer describe it "as renovated in 1888." It is doubtful that its appearance varied over the three years.

[18]Ibid., p. 274. If this account is accurate it is refreshing to note that military drill classes had their lighter moments. McIntosh too, pointed out that boys engaged in military drill exercises during the 1870's in London, England were constantly up to pranks such as turning, purposely, the wrong way. McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800, p. 110.

[19]See, infra, pp. 91-92.

[20]S. Leacock, The Boy I Left Behind Me (New York: Doubleday and Company Inc., 1946), p. 112. The famous Canadian humorist recalled: "One could do oneself very well with five cents a trip - three cents for pop drink

out of a bottle and two cents for two doughnuts or cakes or such things." Leacock also speculated that the school's desire to make the boys Christian gentlemen (at the same time crediting Dr. Arnold of Rugby School with first stating such an educational objective) was rather idealistic, or as he said "outside the realm of practical life." Ibid., pp. 115-116. Writing in 1944, Leacock also discussed the importance of the games cult at Upper Canada College during the 1880's, "... in my day the boarding school still carried the advantage that it gave athletics, games, and the life surrounding them. This exclusive aspect is gone in our present age, when athletics and sports are universal and the new and wholesome worship of health, strength, and fitness is a dominant idea of the day." Ibid., p. 129.

[21]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1888, p. 222.

[22]Ibid., 1889, p. 315. 369 students out of a possible 409 took military drill as opposed to 289 boys who were enrolled in calisthenics and gymnastics. Fencing and dancing lessons were paid for as extra and were engaged in after regular school hours.

[23]Ibid., p. 181. The same situation exists today in the secondary schools of Ontario. Historical precedents do indeed have far-reaching effects.

[24]See, infra, p. 151-153.

[25]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 2, p. 209. The description cited was written in 1910.

[26]See, Hall, "Arthur Lewis Cochrane: A Biographical Sketch," pp. 7-9. Cochrane came to U.C.C. in 1894 as drill instructor and remained at that institution for twenty seven years. Hall further points out that Cochrane "was one of the first physical educators in Canada to emphasize the recreational rather than the military aspect of physical education .... The Cadet Corp was the one and only type of place for that type of discipline." Ibid., pp. 10-11. The findings of this study tend to support her conclusion.

[27]Ibid., pp. 9-10. Cochrane was the Honorary Representative of the Society in Canada.

[28]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 2, p. 215.

[29]Calendar of Trinity College School, Port Hope, 1896-1897 (Toronto: Rowsell and Hutchinson Printers, 1896), p. 10.

[30]Ibid., p. 14.

[31]Calendar of Bishop Ridley College, St. Catherines, 1895-1896 (Toronto: The Bryant Press, 1896), p. 14. The description was no idle boast if the picture of the facility is any indication of the condition of the gym. The photograph shows a high bar, pommel horse, inclined bench (the legs were cut shorter at one end than the other), barbells and Indian clubs that were carefully stored along the walls, parallel bars, rings, ladders and ropes. Ibid., p. 42. From the results of the writer's research to date, this gymnasium represents an outstanding facility in Ontario during the period under discussion; it was paralleled only by the University of Toronto gymnasium in 1900. The gymnastic uniforms worn by the boys in the 1895 picture of the Ridley gymnasium consisted of dark, long sleeve shirts, and knickers. The nature of the shoes could not be discerned. Prior to this 1895 gymnasium, Ridley students used the laundry-room of an old health spa which had been on the school site some years earlier. Beattie's description of this latter facility indicates that it was in existence as late as 1891 and was probably very much like the facility at U.C.C. described above. See, K. Beattie, Ridley: The Story of a School, Vol. 2, (St. Catherines: Ridley College, 1962), p. 55.

[32]Ibid., p. 17.

[33]Beattie, Ridley: The Story of a School, Vol. 1, p. 61, brackets mine.

[34]Ibid., p. 164. In 1906, "if one of them could contrive to escape drill he was applauded." Ibid., p. 259. Beattie makes mention of a curious physical culture fetish which enveloped the school around 1900. He attributed the fad to new ideals of an alert mind in an alert body, the sudden flood of "exercisers" on the market accompanied by countless magazine and newspaper articles on muscle-building: "Within a short time every dormitory at bedtime saw lithe, young, naked bodies going through violent contortions, while others made muscle with dumbbells, or worked with deadly seriousness to some 'professor's' method of developing a miracle physique." Ibid., p. 205. Thairs, in order to give proper guidance to the boys, asked the headmaster to invite Professor Barton of the Hamilton Y.M.C.A. to Ridley to advise the

boys "... on the wisest way to take advantage of the physical gifts they possessed." Ibid. Interestingly enough, the "fetish" declined as soon as Thairs took Barton's advice and made an increased physical fitness programme a part of the regular gym classes. The entire incident is indicative of the nature of physical training classes during the period; physical fitness was probably only a minor objective with the discipline, obedience and synchronized drill being the main aims of the military drill programme.

[35]The bathing crib was built as a safety measure by the headmaster in 1891 in order to help the boys to learn to swim. "The crib was strongly built of heavy timber; its basin was forty feet long and eighteen feet wide, with stout trellis work on three sides to let the water through. When completed it was like an immense plank-bottomed bathtub. But the water was only two and a half feet deep against the bank and only four a half feet deep in the centre." Ibid., p. 54 and picture opposite p. 55. The beam farthest from shore was a thick timber from which boys who had learned to swim were allowed to dive. Calendar of Bishop Ridley College, St. Catherines, 1895-1896, opposite p. 26.

[36]J.G. Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. 15 (Toronto: Warwick Brothers and Rutter Printers, 1910), p. 329.

[37]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 3, p. 169.

[38]Calendar, Ontario Ladies College, Whitby, Ontario, for the Year 1883-1884 (Toronto: 1884), p. 26. The name should properly read Dearnlay.

[39]See, Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 2 for descriptions of sports and games facilities and those of regular physical training programmes at Pickering College, Newmarket, pp. 220-225; St. Agnes School for Girls, Belleville, p. 225; St. Jerome's College, Berlin (now Kitchener), pp. 228-230; Ottawa Ladies College, p. 246; Bishop Bethune Ladies College, Oshawa, p. 248; St. Margaret's Ladies School, Toronto, p. 249 which also featured a physical examination and any corrective exercises needed were subsequently suggested; Moulton College for Girls, Toronto, p. 254; Glen Mawr Girls School, Toronto, p. 256; Ursuline College for Young Ladies, Chatham, p. 265; and Vol. 3 for Alexander Ladies College, Belleville, p. 171; Agricultural College, Guelph, p. 330.

[40]T.A. Reed, ed., A History of University of Trinity College, Toronto, 1852-1952 (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1952), p. 277.

[41]Ibid., p. 278.

[42]T.A. Reed, The Blue and White: A Record of Fifty Years of Athletic Endeavour at the University of Toronto (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1952), p. 17.

[43]Ibid. "Sgt.-Instructor Williams came to Toronto from East India where, for eleven years, he had been Gymnastic and Fencing Instructor in the 2nd Somersetshire Light Infantry. He was also Sgt.-Instructor of Gymnastics in the 48th Highlanders and in 1897 took a team to England where his pupil Stewart won the Individual Bayonet Championship of the British Empire ...." Ibid., footnote, p. 17.

[44]W.S. Wallace, A History of the University of Toronto 1827-1927 (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1927), p. 111.

[45]Reed, The Blue and White, p. 18.

[46]W.J. Alexander, ed., The University of Toronto and Its Colleges, 1827-1906 (Toronto: Published by the Librarian, 1906), p. 215.

[47]Reed, The Blue and White, p. 39. Students had formed a gymnasium committee in the late 1880's, when their old gymnasium in the Moss Hall building was torn down, to raise funds and encourage the Senate to sponsor the building of a new gymnasium. Any participation in gymnastics, boxing and fencing prior to 1893 was purely voluntary. Ibid., pp. 5-10.

[48]Ibid., p. 34. Barton's influence on teacher training is discussed in chapter IV.

[49]Cited in, E.C. Guillet, In the Cause of Education. Centennial History of the Ontario Education Association, 1861-1960 (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1960), pp. 66-67.

[50]J. Hodgins, Hints and Suggestions on School Architecture and Hygiene with Plans and Illustrations (Toronto: Printed for the Education Department, 1886), p. 76. 1885 regulations stipulated such recreation periods; the term "atmospheric washing" connotes, simply, a change

of environment.

[51]Ibid., pp. 38-39.

[52]Ibid., p. 38.

[53]Hodgins was careful to give his sources at the end of all passages cited from American sources.

[54]Popular at least to school officials.

[55]Ibid., p. 40.

[56]A History of the Ottawa Collegiate Institute 1843-1903 (Ottawa: The Mortimer Co. Ltd., 1904), p. 19. These seven collegiate institutes were located in Cobourg, Galt, Hamilton, Kingston, Ottawa, Peterborough, St. Catherines. The work of George Paxton Young is notable in regard to secondary school improvements. See, J.D. Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," Canadian Education: A History, edited by J. Donald Wilson, et al. (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Limited, 1970), pp. 225-226, and C.E. Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada (Toronto: W.J. Gage and Company Limited, 1957), pp. 512-513.

[57]Wilson, "The Ryerson Years in Canada West," p. 226.

[58]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 514.

[59]W.N. Bell, The Development of the Ontario High School (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1918), p. 159 and p. 146.

[60]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Code No. LV, Box 50, Physical Culture. This equipment list was extracted directly from MacLaren's book.

[61]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series G-2-A, High School Inspectors' Annual Report, Vol. 14, 1885, n.p.

[62]Ibid.

[63]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, p. 176.

[64]Regulations Respecting Public and High Schools, Ontario, 1885 (Toronto: Warwick Brothers and Rutter, 1885), pp. 112-113. The incentive to change status was a financial one; collegiate institutes received larger provincial grants.

[65]Ibid., pp. 123-124.

[66]Ibid.

[67]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, p. 176.

[68]Ibid., 1889, p. 193, underlining mine.

[69]Ibid.

[70]Ibid., 1887, p. 159. Inspector Hodgson recommended, "Their compliance within the year should be made a condition of their retention of Collegiate Institute standing."

[71]Ibid., 1889, p. 195. It was pointed out that association football for boys and tennis for girls were popular in some secondary schools "but the Regulation recognizes only systematic training." Ibid. Evidently, sports were far from being considered as worthy of inclusion in systematic physical training programmes. Quite possibly sports were seen as "mere" amusements which could serve only playful, recreative functions.

[72]Ibid., p. 186. All collegiate institutes must have employed three or more masters since Seath indicated that the minimum value of each gymnasium was $325 in accordance with the 1886 provisions. See supra, p. It is difficult to ascertain or even to speculate on the nature of a gymnasium which could be built for $325 in 1886. Certainly a $4,000 facility must have been outstanding. The average value of the other gymnasia was $832 indicating that the $325 was a modest inducement.

[73]Ibid., p. 188, brackets mine.

[74]These conclusions were paraphrased from those of Seath. See, ibid.

[75]G.M. Shutt, The High Schools of Guelph (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1961), p. 36.

[76]Ibid., p. 66.

[77]L.T. Spalding, compiler, The History and Romance of Education (Hamilton) 1816-1950 (Hamilton: 1950), p. 20.

[78]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 1, p. 107.

[79]Its acceptance was no doubt reinforced by the presence of the Hamilton School of Physical Culture, a Y.M.C.A. organized teacher training institution which existed in Hamilton during the 1890's.

[80]A History of the Ottawa Collegiate Institute 1843-1903, pp. 16-17.

[81]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 1, p. 229. The problem of interpreting words like gymnastic and gymnast is made apparent in this passage. A gymnast, as implied here, was anyone who performed any activity in the gymnasium.

[82]Ibid., p. 227.

[83]W.B. McMurrich and H.N. Roberts, The School Law of Ontario Comprising the Education Department Act, 1891; The Public Schools Act 1891; The Act Respecting Truancy and Compulsory School Attendance; The High Schools Act, 1891, and The Amending Acts of 1892 and 1893 (Toronto: The Goodwin Law Book and Publishing Co., 1894), p. 341. There is a suggestion in Ross' 1887 Report that he sent the same gymnasium description in a circular to high school inspectors. See, Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, p. 69. The onus to pass the suggestions along to the appropriate secondary schools was therefore charged to the inspectors.

[84]E.B. Houghton, Physical Culture: First Book of Exercises in Drill, Calisthenics, and Gymnastics For the Use of Colleges, Collegiate Institutes, High Schools, Public, Separate and Private Schools and Gymnastic Associations (Authorized by the Minister of Education for Ontario) (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1886), pp. 7-8. It might be argued safely, then, that schools did in fact have a written description of a gymnasium at their disposal in 1886.

[85]W.F.R. Kennedy, "Health, Physical Education and Recreation in Canada: A History of Professional Preparation" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1955), pp. 25-26.

[86]Ibid., p. 26, underlining mine.

[87]Manual of Hygiene for Use in Normal and Model Schools. Prepared by the Provincial Board of Health (Authorzed by the Minister of Education for use in all schools under the control of the Education Department) (Toronto: William Briggs, 1886).

[88]See the first annual report of the Ontario Board of Health, Report of the Provincial Board of Health of Ontario (Toronto: C. Blackett and Robinson, 1883). "In 1882 the Ontario Legislature passed a measure creating a Provincial Board of Health." W.P. Bull, From Medicine Man to Medical Man: A Record of a Century and a Half of Progress in Health and Sanitation as Exemplified by Developments in Peel (Toronto: George J. McLeod Ltd., 1934), p. 194.

[89]F. Cosentino and M.L. Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada (Don Mills, Ontario: General Publishing Company Limited, 1971), p. 14.

[90]Ibid. The footnote references to the Manual in A History of Physical Education in Canada should more correctly indicate the page number as 244.

[91]Manual of Hygiene for Use in Normal and Model Schools, pp. 1-231. Accidents (first aid), mental exercise and school apparatus were also discussed in the book.

[92]Ibid., pp. 238-247. Exercise "refers to the action of the voluntary muscles." Ibid., p. 238. Evidently the author had no concern for concise definitions.

[93]Ibid., p. 242. Rowing was a suitable or rational activity until it reached racing speeds which the writers felt was too severe on the heart.

[94]Ibid., pp. 238-247. The page opposite page 245 was a full page diagram showing the various veins and arteries in the human body with only initial markings such as "hv" that is hepatic vein applied to the lithograph. The diagram was so intricate as to be of little value to the teacher wishing to gain some knowledge of the circulatory system.

[95]See, infra, pp. 114-117.

[96]See, supra, p. 72.

[97]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 274. See also, Robert M. Stamp, "Evolving Patterns of Education: English Canada from the 1870's to 1914," Canadian Education: A History, pp. 318-321. Phillips certainly admired Hughes and his work.

[98]L. Pierce, Fifty Years of Public Service: A Life of James L. Hughes (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1924), p. 122.

[99]Ibid., p. 119. In Robert Barr's fictionalized account of his sojourn at the Normal and Model Schools circa 1873, Barr took special care to describe John Brent. James L. Hughes was a master at the Toronto Normal and Model Schools that year and Barr chose the alias John Brent to represent Hughes: "The whitest sepulchral skeleton was not so silent as John Brent. Occasionally its bones rattled in a companionable sort of way, but Brent was the embodiment of the inarticulate. I suppose this leopard-like tread came through constant habit and because of great strength, for Brent as an all-round athlete was admirable. At football he met few equals, and in the game of cricket he was a master indeed. His feats in the field of sport must in some measure have accounted for the dog-like devotion of his pupils. Indeed, I have seen a coterie of Normal School students, every one of whom loathed him a thousand times worse than ever the devil was hated, applaud him in spite of themselves when, at a critical point, his keen judgment, backed by enormous strength and an almost satanic skill, saved the day for our city .... Brent always stood as if he had just stepped from one of the pages of a book on anatomy which showed the correct human pose." R. Barr, The Measure of the Rule (Reprint. Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1973), pp. 96-98.

[100]Ibid.

[101]Phillips described Hughes as having the quality of "patriotism," see, supra, p.

[102]See, P.L. Lindsay, "George Beers and the National Game Concept: A Behavioural Approach." Proceedings of the Second Canadian Symposium on the History of Sport and Physical Education (University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario, May 1-3, 1972), pp. 29-42.

[103]Pierce, A Life of James L. Hughes, p. 119.

[104]See, Stamp, "Patterns of Education: English Canada from the 1870's to 1914," p. 318, and Pierce, A Life of James L. Hughes, pp. 69-70.

[105]Pierce, A Life of James L. Hughes, p. 16.

[106]See, chapter II, supra, pp.

[107]J.L. Hughes, Manual of Drill and Calisthenics: Containing Squad Drill, Calisthenics, Free Gymnastics, Vocal Exercises, German Calisthenics, Movement Songs, The Pocket Gymnasium, and Kindergarten Games and Songs (Toronto: W.J. Gage and Company, 1879).

[108]B.N. Carter, "James L. Hughes and the Gospel of Education: A Study of the Work and Thought of a Nineteenth Century Educator" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1967), p. 46. The writer, to date has been unable to locate a copy of the Canada School Journal for the 1870's.

[109]Ibid., Carter cites an article in the May-June issue of the Canada Education Monthly in 1880. The bound volume for 1880 is one of the few volumes of this journal which is missing at the Ontario Archives in Toronto.

[110]Hughes, Manual of Drill and Calisthenics, p. 2.

[111]Ibid., pp. 4-7.

[112]Ibid., p. 64.

[113]Ibid. Two pages of "German Calisthenics, As Taught by Colonel Goodwin, late teacher of calisthenics and gymnastics at the Normal School, Toronto" were inserted in the book, pp. 58-59. These pages are reproduced in Appendix C.

[114]Stamp, "Education and the Economic and Social Milieu: The English Canadian Scene from the 1870's to 1914," Canadian Education: A History, p. 294. Miller presented a chart which showed that Spencer's book was read and well liked by inspectors across Canada. See, J.C. Miller, Rural Schools in Canada: Their Organization, Administration and Supervision (New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1913), p. 182.

[115]H. Spencer, Education; Intellectual, Moral and Physical (New York: A.L. Burt Publishers, no date listed,

first published in 1861), pp. 235-309. This was not the original edition, but it is doubtful that the book changed much in later editions since its subject matter was sort of universal and timeless.

[116]Ibid., p. 239.

[117]See, supra, p. 72.

[118]E.B. Houghton, Physical Culture. First Book of Exercises in Drill, Calisthenics and Gymnastics For the Use of Colleges, Collegiate Institutes, High Schools, Public, Separate and Private Schools and Gymnastic Associations (Authorized by the Minister of Education for Ontario) (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1887). The book went through three editions by 1889. The present writer was unable to locate an 1886 edition.

[119]Small reviews appeared between July and September of 1886 in Guelph Mercury, Hamilton Spectator, Brockville Recorder, Belleville Intelligencer, Kingston Whig, Woodstock Sentinel, The Mail, The Globe, Huron Signal, Montreal Star, Stratford Beacon, Whitby Chronicle, St. Thomas Times, Chatham Planet and Chatham Banner. Not one of these summarized it as being anything less than a "good book." It was the practice for authors to send free copies to various newspapers at the time.

[120]Chatham Banner, August 18, 1886.

[121]Montreal Star, August 21, 1886.

[122]Chatham Planet, August, 1886.

[123]See, Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, p. 266; 1897, p. 88; and 1899, p. 85.

[124]J. Millar, The Educational System of the Province of Ontario (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1893), p. 86. Millar was the Deputy Minister of Education at the time his book was published.

[125]Houghton, Physical Culture, p. 11.

[126]The Preface and General Instructions, the latter containing this suggested schedule, are reproduced in Appendix D.

[127]The Mail, September 4, 1886. In particular from Field Exercise and Evolutions of Infantry Drill. (London: Published by Her Majesty's Stationery Service, various dates, available as early as 1871 in Ontario).

[128]Houghton, Physical Culture, p. 13.

[129]See, supra, pp. 94-95.

[130]Ontario Archives, Miscellaneous Clippings, Letter, August 24, 1886, from Mr. Clark to Mr. E.B. Houghton. The letter indicated only that Mr. Clark was a "teacher of gymnastics." In addition, the letter was only partially intact, Clark's initials being illegible.

[131]Some of these exercises were described and pictured as being very much like baton-twirling exercises. One exercise, number 36, had the "gymnast" bent at the waist, legs well apart, passing the dumbbell in figure-8 fashion around the knees by shifting the body weight from side to side and passing the dumbbell from hand to hand. See, Houghton, Physical Culture, pp. 147-148.

[132]T.W. Higginson, "Gymnastics" Chronicle of American Physical Education, edited by A.S. Lockhart and B. Spears (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1972), p. 18. Indian clubs were in use as early as 1861 in the United States. The origin of the name is obscure; perhaps they were so called because of their resemblance to hunting or fighting clubs used by the North American Indian.

[133]Houghton, Physical Culture, p. 220.

[134]The Mail, September 4, 1886, brackets mine.

[135]The writer was unable to locate a copy of the original 1861 edition. The following edition was examined, A. MacLaren, Physical Education. Revised, edited and enlarged by William MacLaren, M.A., Ph.D. of the Oxford University Gymnasium, With Four Hundred Illustrations Drawn From Life (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1895). In his preface to this edition, Wallace MacLaren stated that the 1895 edition differed from former ones "almost solely in the greater variety of exercises described. So far as the theoretical part is concerned, it has scarcely been found necessary to make a single alteration." Even the changes in the "practical division" concerned the addition of more advanced exercises to the original ones.

[136]The "rosary" or knotted rope presumably acquired its name from the resemblance of the knot to the cross or to the knotted rosary beads.

[137]Edward Hitchcock, writing in 1885, defined the concept "physical culture" in just those terms. See, E. Hitchcock, "Athletics in American Colleges" Chronicle of American Physical Education, p. 64.

[138]W.P. Bull, From Medicine Man to Medical Man, p. 194.

[139]Supra, p. 99.

[140]Bull, From Medicine Man to Medical Man, p. 280. Bull remarked that the public was lulled into overconfidence by the success of new health measures and improvements such that in the period 1900 to 1903, smallpox, diptheria and scarlet fever were rampant again. Ibid.

[141]Ibid., p. 197.

[142]E.T. White, Public School Text-Books in Ontario (London: The Chas. Chapman Co., 1922), p. 70.

[143]Calvin Cutler, M.D., First Book on Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene for Grammar Schools and Families (Toronto: Adam Miller and Co., 1875). E. Playter, M.D., Elementary Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene for the Use of Schools and Families (Toronto: Hart and Rawlinson, 1879). B.W. Richardson, Public School Temperance: Lessons on Alcohol and Its Action on the Body (Toronto: The Grip Printing and Publishing Company, 1887). W. Nattress, M.D., Public School Physiology and Temperance (Authorized by the Ontario Education Department) (Toronto: William Briggs, 1893). A.P. Knight, M.D., Introductory Physiology and Hygiene (Toronto: The Copp Clark Co., Ltd., 1905).

[144]See, Nattress, Public School Physiology and Temperance, pp. 174-181. Reproduced in Appendix F.

[145]White, Public School Text-Books in Ontario, p. 71.

[146]Stamp, "Education and the Economic and Social Milieu," p. 83.

[147]Papers on "school hygiene" by doctors, Ontario Board of Health officials, principals and inspectors were particularly abundant between 1900 and 1908. See,

Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association, 1900-1908. The net result of this concern to the O.E.A. itself was the creation, in 1906, of a "Hygiene Section." In 1910, the Hygiene Section became the "Hygiene and Physical Training Section." Mention has already been made, supra, pp.98-100 of the Manual of Hygiene for Use of Normal and Model Schools, published in 1886, reflecting a desire to train teachers in the subject of health.

[148]Minutes of the Belleville Board of Education, 1882, Vol. 55, 1877-1886, located at Ontario Archives, Record Group 2, Series F, F-3-E.

[149]Ibid.

[150]The root words of the term kindergarten are themselves indicative of the recognition of the importance of child development. The comparison of nurturing the child the way one would a garden is well known.

[151]Stamp, "Evolving Patterns of Education," p. 318.

[152]Hardy and Cochrane, Centennial Story, p. 88.

[153]Stamp, "Evolving Patterns of Education," pp. 311-312.

[154]B.E. Corbett, "The Public School Kindergarten in Ontario, 1883 to 1967" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1968), pp. 15-17.

[155]Ibid., p. 37.

[156]S.B. Sinclair, First Year At School or Blending of Kindergarten with Public School Work: A Manual for Primary Teachers (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1892), p. 160.

[157]Ibid.

[158]F. Tracy, "The Practical Results of Child Study" Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association, 1897, p. 342.

[159]Ibid.

[160]Corbett, "The Public School Kindergarten in Ontario, 1883-1967," p. 112.

[161]Stamp, "Evolving Patterns of Education," p. 319.

[162]Playground associations such as Toronto's were begun (in Toronto, by none other than James L. Hughes) as early as 1901. However, it was not until the 1920's that play, sport and games became a part of the educational process.

[163]Johnson, A Brief History of Canadian Education, p. 78.

[164]Ibid., pp. 78-79. The minimum requirements for a public school to be used as a model school were: one room in addition to those required for the fourth class in the public school; a principal with a first class certificate (i.e. who received his teacher training at a Normal School) with at least three years teaching experience and not fewer than three other teachers with at least second class certificates (teaching experience plus one or two years of high school education and five months at Normal School). L.J. Dupuis, "A History of Elementary Teacher Training in Ontario" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Ottawa, 1952), p. 59. "The schools used as model schools received a government and a county grant of 150 dollars each, and a nominal fee of five dollars from each student in attendance." Ibid.

[165]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 577.

[166]Dupuis, "A History of Elementary Teacher Training in Ontario," p. 64.

[167]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, xxviii.

[168]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 590. The five centres were Hamilton, Kingston, Guelph, Strathroy and Owen Sound.

[169]Ibid.

[170]Dupuis, "A History of Elementary Teacher Training in Ontario," p. 67.

[171]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 590. The Training Institutes failed because the headmasters often had no professional training and they were not adequately paid for the extra work involved in training the teachers-to-be. The School of Pedagogy, 1890-1897, was housed and met in the theatre of the Toronto Normal

School and the future teachers had no use of a secondary school for practice teaching purposes. The Ontario Normal College, Hamilton, was apparently thoroughly equipped with satisfactory provision for both the theory and practice of teaching. W.J. Karr, The Training of Teachers in Ontario (Ottawa: R.S. Taylor, 1916), pp. 39-41.

[172]The Educational Journal, Vol. 5 (1891), p. 623. The journal itself was Toronto-based and Mounteer was secretary of the Ontario College of Oratory. He was advertising a series of calisthenic-breathing exercises known as "The Emerson System" which had originated in the United States.

[173]A.H. Morrison, "The Acrobat in High Schools - A Protest" The Canada Education Monthly and School Chronicle, Vol. 12, No. 1 (1890), p. 15, brackets mine. Morrison was a teacher from Brantford.

[174]The Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs for 1901 (Toronto: G.N. Morang, 1902), p. 318.

[175]Education Department (Ontario), Compendium of Acts and Regulations Respecting the Public, Separate and High Schools. Compiled by the Minister of Education (Toronto: Hunter, Rose and Co., 1878), p. 190.

[176]J.C. Boylen, et al., eds., Toronto Normal School 1847-1947 (Toronto: School of Graphic Arts, 1947), n.p.

[177]Dupuis, "A History of Elementary Teacher Training in Ontario," p. 61.

[178]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1883, pp. 108-109.

[179]The same teaching principle was stressed six years later in, The Education Journal, Vol. 2 (1888), p. 126. The author of the article recommended teaching calisthenics to the younger children after every three-quarter hour period of work.

[180]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, pp. 84-85. The question might be raised as to whether this meant it was being taught by regular masters to the pupils, or by the masters to the apprentice teachers, or both. In any case, the result would have been the same, viz. the exposure of prospective teachers to the teaching of drill.

[181]Ibid., 1898, p. 95.

[182]Ibid., 1899, p. 117.

[183]Sergeant-Major D. Borland and Sergeant J.S. Legge were drill instructors at Toronto Normal School from 1900-1905 and from 1906-1909 respectively. Boylen, Toronto Normal School 1847-1947, n.p.

[184]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1900, p. 112.

[185]Ibid., 1897, xxiv. A Sergeant J.J. Syme was put in charge of drill, gymnastics and calisthenics at the Ontario Normal College. Ibid., 1904, p. 309.

[186]The Educational Journal, Vol. 1 (1887), p. 212. Note that "hygiene" or health, was also an examination subject, a fact which reflected the health concern of the period.

[187]Millar, The Educational System of the Province of Ontario, p. 68. Millar indicated that both Cope at the Ottawa Normal School and Parr at Toronto Normal School were paid 900 dollars per annum. Sergeant Cope was also the clerk and accountant for the Ottawa institution, therefore Parr's parallel salary was probably to pay him for his work at the School of Pedagogy. Ibid., p. 65.

[188]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Circular Form 184, n.p.

[189]Ibid. Circular Form 184, 1898; Circular No. 5 1890; Circular Form 184, 1901.

[190]Millar, The Educational System of the Province of Ontario, p. 59. The course at the Normal and Model schools in 1893 was also based on the Manual of Hygiene omitting the introductory chapter, and the chapters on climatology, disposal of refuse, and water. Ibid.

[191]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Box 39, Normal and Model Schools, n.p.

[192]Ibid.

[193]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Box 39, Syllabus of Lectures and Regulations for the Organization and Management of County Model Schools. Authorized by the Department of Education of Ontario, August 14, 1884 (Toronto: Grip Printing and

Publishing Co., 1884), n.p.

[194]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Box 41.

[195]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1890, p. 245. They also witnessed the Swedish system in Boston, but they considered the exercises "too severe for the majority of girls at least."

[196]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Box 45.

[197]Syllabus of Studies and Regulations for Normal Schools at London, Ottawa and Toronto, 1907, in Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1907, p. 215. "Plays" referred to kindergarten activities, while "play" connoted the free play of the school yard and teacher-directed play activity on the playground.

[198]Ibid., p. 226.

[199]Ibid., pp. 226-227.

[200]See, Kennedy, "Health, Physical Education and Recreation in Canada: A History of Professional Preparation," pp. 40-43.

[201]See, John W. Meagher, "Professional Preparation" Physical Education in Canada, ed. by M.L. Van Vliet (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1965), pp. 66-67.

[202]The Education Journal, Vol. 7 (1893), p. 297.

[203]Calendar, University of Toronto, 1901-1902, p. 278. The course description, reproduced in Appendix G, did seem to be quite in keeping with a Houghton-based programme.

[204]McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800, p. 111.

[205]Ibid., p. 118.

[206]Ibid., p. 118, and p. 123.

[207]Canada, Parliament, House of Commons Debates, Vol. 1 (1875), p. 144.

[208]Ibid., pp. 151-156.

[209]This is the first indication of the federal government even indicating an awareness in the matter of physical training programmes. It was the federal Department of Militia which was to bring the federal government into sponsorship of physical training programmes in the ensuing years.

[210]Hughes, Manual of Drill and Calisthenics, iii.

[211]General Regulations for the Organization, Government and Discipline of Public Schools, and the Qualifications and Duties of Public School Inspectors, Examiners, Teacher, Monitors and Pupils (Toronto: Printed by Hunter, Rose and Co., 1875), p. 38, underlining mine.

[212]Education Department, Ontario. Compendium of Acts and Regulations Respecting the Public, Separate and High Schools. Compiled by the Minister of Education (Toronto: Hunter, Rose and Co., 1878), p. 223.

[213]The accuracy of these figures is, admittedly, not verifiable. Still, they do indicate trends over the years and they remain the only indication of numbers enrolled in the various branches of instruction. The time devoted to the actual curriculum instruction in these school subjects was not given in the original source.

[214]Canada Educational Monthly and School Chronicle, Vol. 2 (1880), p. 259.

[215]Ibid., Vol. 1 (1879), p. 583.

[216]Guillet, In the Cause of Education, pp. 91-92.

[217]See, Appendix H.

[218]Regulations of the Education Department Respecting Public and High Schools and Collegiate Institutes (Toronto: Grip Printing and Publishing Co., 1885), p. 104.

[219]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1887, xxxvi.

[220]The Educational Weekly, Vol. 2 (1885), p. 606. Examples of these exercises were included in the article. Ibid., p. 606, 622, 638 and 654.

[221]See, infra, pp. 106-113.

[222]A.H. Morrison, "Physical Education" Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association, 1881, p. 73. Morrison was a teacher in Galt.

[223]Refer to Appendix H, for increases in the intervening years and for divisional city, town, county breakdowns.

[224]24th Annual Report of the Toronto Public School Board, 1882, p. 34. The girls were judged by men of military rank which indicates that the calisthenics exhibited were probably very formed and rigid.

[225]Ibid., 1890, p. 69. Some 300 girls participated en masse. Such displays were not nearly as frequent or as well put on as drill parades and marching exhibitions for school boys, as is mentioned below.

[226]Annual Report of the Provincial Board of Health, 1890, xciii.

[227]McMurrich and Roberts, The School Law of Ontario, p. 314.

[228]Minutes and Proceedings of the Dominion Educational Association, 1892, p. 224.

[229]Ibid., p. 226.

[230]The Educational Journal, Vol. 6 (1892), p. 173.

[231]The Canadian Militia Gazette, Vol. 2 (1886), p. 529.

[232]The Educational Journal, Vol. 7 (1893), p. 22. There were also games and sports advocates for physical training programmes. See E. Ryan, "Overwork in Schools" Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association, 1906, pp. 399-402. Even in 1906, schools and educators were not ready to promote sports and games in connection with systematic physical exercise programmes.

[233]W.E. Groves, "Physical Training, I[redacted]lue and Necessity" Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association, 1906, p. 285.

[234]J.G. Hodgins, Historical and Other Papers and Documents Illustrative of the Educational System of

Ontario, Vol. 2 (Toronto: L.K. Cameron, 1911), p. 180.

[235]The Canada Education Monthly and School Chronicle, Vol. 1 (1879), p. 581.

[236]Ibid.

[237]Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for Ontario, 1871-1879. See Appendix I for the number of pupils receiving drill instruction at these schools prior to 1879.

[238]Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 1, p. 131.

[239]Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series G, G-2-A. High School Inspectors Annual Reports, Vol. 25 (1895), n.p.

[240]Ibid., Vol. 57 (1905), n.p.

[241]A. Harkness, Iroquois High School 1845-1895: A Story of Fifty Years (Toronto: William Briggs, 1896), p. 113.

[242]McMurrich and Roberts, The School Law of Ontario, p. 300.

[243]Ibid., p. 345.

[244]Ibid., subsections 2 and 3.

[245]A copy of the letter from the young Meighen, Canada's future Conservative Prime Minister during part of the 1920's, may be located at, Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Select Files, 1885-1913, Box No. 38.

[246]Ibid.

[247]Ross, The School System of Ontario, p. 124.

[248]See, "High School Cadet Corps," Instructions No. 10, 1898, in Appendix J.

[249]Hardy and Cochrane, Centennial Story, p. 155.

[250]Ibid., brackets mine.

[251]Regulations of the Education Department, Province of Ontario (Toronto: L.K. Cameron, 1907), pp. 10-11.

252 Ontario Archives, Department of Education, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Select Files, 1885-1913, Military Training in Schools - Cadet Corps, Box No. 38, Code L III.

# CHAPTER IV

## IN MEMORIAM: THE STRATHCONA TRUST

## 1909-1939

> Our problem to-day is to plan and carry out a physical training programme to furnish the exercises that once were an incidental but inevitable part of nearly everyone's life. The fact that exercise has two distinct purposes - first to build up the body during the first score of years and second to preserve health in the mature body and [sic] should be kept constantly in mind.[1]

That an Ottawa public schools' inspector could hold such an opinion, as expressed in the above passage, was the outcome of the most significant impetus given to physical training in Ontario and in the rest of Canada -- the Strathcona Trust. Traditionally, historians have merely mentioned, in most cases,[2] the establishment of this Trust designed to encourage physical and military training in schools and then passed over it as being only of minor significance, or even as having a "traumatic effect,"[3] on the development of physical education within the school system. Only recently have writers such as McDiarmid,[4] Redmond,[5] and Sawula[6] emphasized the importance of the Trust and made a plea for more concen-

trated research into the topic. As "possibly the only common thread in physical education throughout the twentieth century"[7] in Canada, there is indeed

> ... a need for a more comprehensive study which would help to provide historical analysis of the effects of the Strathcona Trust on physical education in Canada. Historical research within each province seems a natural first step.[8]

This chapter is, in part, an answer to this problem of deficiency in provincial historical examination concerning the Strathcona Trust. Since provincial or "local" committee autonomy, within the administrative guidelines of the Trust, was provided for in the terms of the Trust, historical study at the provincial level is not only a "natural first step" but a necessary one. The Local Committee for the Strathcona Trust in Ontario, perhaps more so than in any other province, interpreted its power in a very liberal manner.

With respect to the educational system in general, the period was characterized by growth in number of both students and schools in reaction to provincial population increases. Ontario residents numbered just over two and a half million in 1911 and well over three and a half million in 1941 with the greatest increases shown in urban population growth.[9] The educational framework was well established, a fact which allowed the most important

changes to be made within the system. Educators placed more concern on the needs of the individual pupil and measures were taken to decrease the emphasis on entrance examinations, for example, to make the system less rigid and more elastic.[10] Major improvements also came about as the result of upgrading the quality of the teaching profession and teacher training. Important developments in physical training were related to these educational changes and to the efforts of the federal Militia Department.

## Cadet Prestige

Canada as a whole enjoyed a period of relative economic prosperity during the years between 1896 and 1914. At the federal government level, the greatest concerns were in the sphere of a developing Canadian nationalism, or perhaps, as Careless terms it, "Laurier nationalism."[11] The Boer War focused the attention of Canadians on matters of imperialist ties and national defence. The entire question of naval policy was a major issue in the 1911 Dominion elections; a point of contention which contributed to the downfall of the Liberal government.[12] The new government was no less involved in defence matters prior to World War One:

> Yet in the few years before war burst upon it the Borden government worked at

> home to modernize the army and to establish the common standards for British and Dominion forces that had been recommended by the Imperial Conference of 1907 and the Imperial Defence Committee.[13]

The fact is, then, Canadian society was definitely deeply concerned with affairs pertaining to national defence during the first decade of the twentieth century:

> The new Governor General, the Earl of Minto [1898-1904], and the new officer commanding the militia, Major-General Hutton, had endeavoured both to improve the efficiency of the Canadian militia and to interest the Laurier government in imperial defence. They found the Minister of Militia, Frederick Borden, a convivial Nova Scotian dispenser of patronage, a surprisingly ready and able reformer of an obsolete and inefficient militia. But Borden's reforms, approved by his colleagues, aimed to create a Canadian militia, uncommitted to use in imperial defence.[14]

One of Borden's measures of reform was put into effect in Ontario schools and reflected the defence concerns of the era. Sir Frederick William Borden, born at Cornwallis, Nova Scotia, became Minister of Militia and Defence in Laurier's 1896 Cabinet at the age of forty-nine. An 1866 arts graduate of King's College, Windsor, Nova Scotia, he earned a medical degree from Harvard Medical School two years later and subsequently practised medicine for many years at Canning, Nova Scotia. He sat in the House of Commons for King's County, Nova

Scotia, in every parliament from 1874 to 1911 except for the years 1882-1887. Borden was defeated in the general election of 1911 having served as Minister of Militia and Defence for the fifteen years immediately prior to this defeat.[15] In 1896, coincident with Borden's appointment to the federal Cabinet, the Ontario Education Department and the Militia Department entered into an agreement regarding the formation of cadet corps in the secondary schools.[16] Such corps were never to be employed in active service, their members were to be over sixteen years of age and were to be provided with "arms and accoutrements" from the Department of Militia and they were to be subject to inspection, at any time, from the latter Department.[17] The instructors were to be regular members of secondary schools' staff who held, or were prepared to take a course toward, "a second class B Military School Certificate or a High School Cadet Instructor's Certificate,"[18] presumably issued by the federal Militia Department. The scheme was not compulsory, but the inducement of a fifty dollar grant per school to the board of trustees concerned[19] was reminiscent of a similar grant issued for the first time in 1865.[20] In this fashion did Borden stimulate the formation of cadet corps in the high schools and collegiate institutes of Ontario. The 1896 scheme was in effect at least until 1910[21] in the secondary schools and, beginning in the latter year, a

public school board could qualify for a fifty dollar grant by establishing classes in military instruction.[22]

This federal-provincial cooperation established a precedent which paved the way for Ontario's acceptance of the conditions of the Strathcona Trust in 1911.[23] Furthermore, military instruction was placed on a pedestal through the example of secondary school cadet corps. Public displays of cadet corps work were common in most cities during the first decade of the twentieth century. The celebration of Empire Day by Ontario schools and school pupils after 1900[24] normally entailed cadet corps parades and exhibitions. Whatever the occasion, the prestige attached to being publicly recognized must have appealed to many school boys and school boards. The principal of Prescott High School, for example, stated, in 1907:

> When cadet corps boys at target practice score bull's-eyes at 200 yards with a Lee-Enfield rifle that kicks like a broncho, they've got guts.
>
> When the same boys, marching past a red-tabbed Inspecting Officer from Ottawa, give him such a snappy eyes-right, that he says they are the smartest corps in the country, they've got esprit de corps.[25]

and for the Prescott May 24th festivities:

> When the corps took part in such celebrations they marched from the old High School, down Main Street, past bevies of

> fair damsels who waved frilly handkerchiefs, to the green expanse of the Fort Field, where a big Union Jack floated proudly under the blue Canadian sky.[26]

The dignity of cadet corps boys was present even in the private schools. At the Ridley Cadet Corps dance in 1910, the "smartly uniformed boys were the envy of all the 'civilian' boys."[27]

Borden received many commendations for his efforts in promoting cadet corps[28] including the praise of the Minister of Education in 1903 and Harcourt's accompanying suggestion for military training in the public schools.[29] Borden acted quickly on Harcourt's advice. By 1911

> ... at Carlings Heights at London ... a great cadet corps was ... created, with the cadet corps of many public schools of Western Ontario represented. They came from Windsor, Guelph, Hamilton, Owen Sound and several other centres. The cadet movement was flourishing all across Canada, if more generally in the public, not the high schools.[30]

One year later, mass exhibitions of cadet corps work in marching, ceremonial drill and physical exercises with and without rifles were held on the grounds of the Canadian National Exhibition in Toronto.[31] Without a doubt, then, the time was propitious for the introduction of military instruction in any form in the schools of Ontario. The success of the cadet corps system was the vehicle by which Borden introduced a second scheme

to involve more students in physical and military training.

The Announcement

By 1909, the Education Department was providing financial support to encourage extra-curricular sports and games. At the elementary school level, urban boards were permitted to expend up to two hundred dollars per annum "... when the annual registered attendance of pupils does not exceed 3,000 and fifty dollars additional for each additional thousand in attendance."[32] Secondary school boards were allowed to vote a sum

> ... not exceeding one hundred and fifty dollars for each high school within its jurisdiction for the encouragement of athletics and to defray the expenses of school games.[33]

Monies to encourage deliberate physical training within regular school hours were not so specially allocated. The "physical culture" programme had reached a plateau around 1909, due, in part, to the lack of strong leadership within that programme. A circular which was sent out to high schools and collegiate institutes in 1910 still recommended the same equipment as its counterpart had in 1885[34] with the addition of a few pieces of equipment for girls such as chest-weight machines, basketballs, parallel bars, horizontal ladder, flying rings and

with more emphasis on heavy gymnastic apparatus for boys.[35] Also, the ideal gymnasium continued to be of the type recommended in the same circular of 1891 which description was taken from Houghton's Physical Culture manual.[36] A vacuum existed. At the elementary school level particularly there was a lack of encouragement to change a static physical training programme to a more dynamic one.[37] Critical factors which contributed to this state of affairs included lack of leadership, poor teacher training as well as a deficiency in financial encouragement to the programme itself.

Sir Frederick Borden needed only to recall his association with Lord Strathcona's financial assistance which Sir Donald Smith had provided during the Boer War to train and equip a five hundred man Canadian contingent. This infantry unit became known as the Strathcona Horse and the soldiers and their horses were paraded in Montreal and Halifax before they left for South Africa.[38] The arrangements for using the money were simple and precise:

> During the most trying period of the present war in South Africa, Lord Strathcona offered to equip a body of Canadian plainsmen for the services of the Empire, an offer which was gratefully accepted. In the early days of January [1900] negotiations were carried on between Lord Strathcona and the Imperial and Canadian Governments, and finally the whole matter was placed in the hands of the Hon. Dr.

> Borden, Canadian Minister of Militia and Defence. The latter was given a free hand to make such recommendations for officers, organization and equipment as he deemed best, Lord Strathcona reserving only the right to reject or confirm what was done.[39]

Sir Donald Smith's philanthropy toward the formation of the Strathcona House established his interest in Canadian military affairs. He might just as easily have given the money to the British government. But he chose Canada and in so doing established an early relationship with Sir Frederick Borden, and Borden, in turn, in handling the matter so efficiently, created a feeling of trust and mutual respect with Lord Strathcona.

Canada's High Commissioner in London was not one to provide financial assistance without good reason. As Redmond so convincingly pointed out:

> Help was to be given only to those who had first demonstrated their ability and willingness to help themselves ....
>
> This policy should be borne in mind where Strathcona's benefactions are concerned, for it is reasonable to assume that whenever any kind of financial help was freely given by this canny Scot, without any conditions being imposed, it probably represented some personal commitment or interest on his part.[40]

Strathcona's military interests had been demonstrated and embodied in the Strathcona Horse. His patriotism and concern for military preparedness were also well known.

> There seems no reason why there should not be greater cohesion between the military forces in the Colonies, and those at home. They certainly ought to form parts of the machinery on which the Empire could implicitly rely in times of trouble and difficulty.[41]

Borden's interests in military readiness were obviously basic to his appointment to his Ministerial position. As a medical doctor, he must also have recognized the need for promoting the physical fitness of Canadian youth. Perhaps for these reasons did Borden enter into communication, in 1907, with the government and educational authorities of his home province, Nova Scotia, to introduce a federal-provincial cooperative programme of physical and military training in the schools of that province. Based on the success of the Nova Scotia programme, Borden approached Strathcona in London with a plan to introduce the same scheme in the schools of the other Canadian provinces.[42]

There can be no doubt but that Borden was the prime mover behind the formation of the Strathcona Trust early in 1909. Strathcona pledged his financial support and for that reason the programme was named, at Borden's request, after the benefactor.[43] On March 24, 1909, Sir Frederick Borden addressed the House of Commons and announced Strathcona's promise to forward 250,000 dollars as the basis of a fund to be used to provide an annual

grant of 10,000 dollars.[44] Borden prefaced his remarks by stating:

> On several occasions in this House I have had the honour to bring up this matter, and to say I hope the time will come when, in all the schools of Canada, there will be undertaken by the respective provincial governments, which of course control education, a uniform system of physical training for younger children, of elementary drill for the older ones, and of rifle shooting for those still older.[45]

The Minister of Militia and Defence went on to read the very important March 13, 1909 letter from Strathcona to Borden.[46] This piece of correspondence from Strathcona was in reply to Borden's letter of February 3 of the same year in which Borden had outlined the scheme for Strathcona's perusal and agreement. After reading the February 3rd letter and its enclosures,[47] Strathcona drafted his March 13th letter which, in essence, was Borden's letter re-written by the High Commissioner. Thus, Borden was given the same free hand in formulating the Strathcona Trust that he had been allowed in establishing the Strathcona Horse. Finally, Borden read his own telegraphed reply to Strathcona by which he had officially accepted the 250,000 dollar donation. Right Honourable Sir Wilfrid Laurier himself responded to Borden's speech in the following manner:

> I believe I shall voice the sentiments of this House, if, without losing a moment, I move that we offer our thanks to Lord Strathcona for the letter which has just been communicated to the House by the Minister of Militia. Lord Strathcona has rendered many services to Canada, but, I believe, none of greater importance than the present one. Physical education is of the greatest possible importance, and its value has never, in the history of the world, been understood as it is now. I hope and firmly believe, that the system now initiated by Lord Strathcona, the organization which he sets on foot, will provide that, in all parts of Canada, physical training will become part of the education of the boys and girls of this country.48

The following day, March 25, 1909, the announcement was made in "Canada's national newspaper," The Globe, in a front page headline:

*Physical and Military Training in the Schools*

and underneath the main headline:

*Ten Thousand Dollars Yearly*

*Offer Stirs the House to a Burst of Patriotism*

The newspaper featured a large picture of Lord Strathcona and underneath that picture, added:

> His offer of $10,000 a year to stimulate cadet drill is likely to greatly add to the activity of school drillmasters all over the Dominion.

Although the paper cited the full proceedings in the House of Commons, even to the point of quoting parts of

Strathcona's March 13 letter, the impression was created that the purpose of the Trust was entirely devoted to encouraging military training, especially rifle shooting. Such was never the intention of either Borden or Strathcona.[49] Both men were primarily concerned with military training,[50] but both were also desirous of promoting physical training. The Trust, in reality, had a dual purpose, viz. to encourage military and physical training. When the Ontario Education Association met in April, 1909, the trustees showed, through heated debates, that they believed the purpose of the scheme was to introduce "compulsory military drill"[51] while, at the same time, they expressed their desire to have physical training encouraged in the schools rather than military drill.[52] Earlier in the year, in January, Borden had written to the various provincial premiers outlining the Nova Scotia agreement, then in practice (since August 1, 1908), at the same time suggesting the idea of a similar scheme for all of the provinces. Perhaps it was the notion of compulsory military training erroneously attached to Borden's plan combined with the idea of military training itself within the schools which caused the delay in implementing the programme.

However, public interest was not entirely negative. The Hamilton Board of Education was so impressed with

the idea of the Trust that at its May, 1909, meeting, its members decided to name the Sophia Street School after Lord Strathcona.[53] Strathcona himself was flattered with the attention drawn to the donation in the Canadian Parliament and in the newspapers. Perhaps, for this reason, public acclaim, did he decide in April to donate a further 50,000 dollars.[54] Undoubtedly the unexpected publicity was the result of Borden's Parliamentary address. More than that, it was the amount of the gift which attracted public appeal. There is every reason to believe, from the correspondence which passed between Borden and Strathcona early in 1909,[55] that Strathcona initially pledged 10,000 dollars annually. Borden might well have expected to receive an annual check in that amount. However, when the Minister received Strathcona's original check, he must have been surprised at the amount. Strathcona, in his own mind, may have arbitrarily decided to provide the 10,000 dollars each year for twenty-five years. To simplify matters for future ministers in dealing with his estate, it is suggested that he decided to send the money in one lump sum. This interpretation is supported in Strathcona's April 24, 1909, letter to Borden in which Strathcona thanked the Minister for Borden's suggestion to invest the principal amount at four per cent per annum in order to "... greatly simplify the administration of

the Fund."[56] The amount earned from the interest was to be distributed on the basis of the percentage of the provincial populations to the Dominion population.

Strathcona's motivation was mostly centred in patriotism of a "fitness for defence" nature. However, two key points must be underlined. The Strathcona Trust was designed to encourage military and physical training Its objective was twofold: to satisfy educational purposes in promoting physical training and to establish a system of military training in the schools as a potential source of benefit to the Militia Department. Borden, in other words, was willing to go half way with the Education Department. Secondly, the Trust was intended to be only a "stimulus or inspiration"[57] to the promotion of physical training in the schools. It was up to educational authorities to use this impetus to improve upon and to foster the growth of their physical training programmes.

Opposition to the Trust in 1909 was expressed by the Executive of the Trades and Labour Congress in its Convention call for that year; by the Peace and Arbitration Society; a committee of the Toronto Methodist Conference and the Society of Friends,[58] as well as by the trustees of the Ontario Education Association:

> I see designing enthusiasts aiming at a huge organization which will furnish a fresh crop of emoluments and tinsel honours at the expense of the great mass of the people, creating in time a small army of inspectors, drill-masters and officials of all kinds, added to our already costly and overgrown military establishment.[59]

Because of such overreactions Ontario was delayed in its entry into the Trust agreement until 1911. When Strathcona sent another 200,000 dollars in November of 1910 to further enhance the Trust, arrangements had been completed with all of the provinces, or else were in the final process of consent, with the exception of Manitoba.[60] Strathcona was apparently encouraged by the federal-provincial agreements and therefore sent the additional money. Once again, the story made front page, headline news:

*Lord Strathcona Makes Another Gift to Canada*[61]

Borden had learned a lesson from the Trust's opponents one year earlier. He announced to the press that the fund, or annual income of 20,000 dollars, was to be put

> ... towards the establishment of a uniform system of physical and elementary military training for the youth of the Dominion.[62]

Obviously, the word "elementary" was used to soften the military emphasis.

## The Executive Council, the Administration of the Trust and the Ontario Committee

The board placed in immediate charge of the administration of the Trust in Canada was the Executive Council, a group of men composed of military authorities and educational representatives.[63] The general principles or guidelines which the Council was to follow were five in number and were set forth in the original Constitution of the Strathcona Trust.[64] One of these principles stated that both teachers and pupils would receive monetary benefits from participation under the terms of the Trust through individual local committees in each province. Another stipulated that the words "public schools" were used to indicate all schools supported by public taxation. Finally, the Executive Council was to distribute the fund to the provinces "in proportion to their population of school age."[65] In this latter guideline, school attendance was soon found to be the most acceptable statistic for the allotment of monies to the provinces. Thus, the administrative policy was kept simple and free of cumbersome restrictions.

The members of the Executive Council were not paid for services rendered in connection with the Strathcona Trust, at least not out of Trust funds. Basically, the members were to determine the conditions which had to

be agreed to by a province to entitle it to share in the benefits; to receive and distribute the annual 20,000 dollars; and, to issue general rules and regulations to be followed by a province in awarding percentage proportions to each of physical training and military training. The administration of the Strathcona Trust was facilitated by the decision to form a local committee of seven members in each province.[66]

It turned out that the various secretaries of the Executive Council over the years became, to all intents and purposes, the Executive Council. It was a large and ineffectual body which met only nine times prior to 1955, six of those times being in the first two years of the existence of the Trust.[67] It did not meet once between 1921 and 1955.[68] The nine meetings were all held in Ottawa which meant great travelling expenses for the representatives of the western provinces and travel allowances out of proportion to the annual grant to a small province such as Prince Edward Island. However, the Militia Department covered the expenses for militia representatives and the provinces were expected to pay the travelling expenses of their civilian representatives.[69] When the civilian members could not get such financial assistance, the Militia Department usually covered the cost.[70] Therefore, the reasons for the disinclination to

hold meetings were more intricate than those mitigated as a consequence of trans Canada geographical distances. By 1921, operations had become stabilized and local committees had taken the initiative. Once the regulations and guidelines were implemented in practice, it only remained for the secretary of the Executive Council to dole out the provincial grants. Despite the limited number of meetings, some important policies were formulated by the Executive Council prior to 1921 and these served as guidelines for subsequent secretaries.

The first step taken by the Executive Council was in the form of an essay competition. Teachers of "public" schools and teachers-in-training at the various normal schools across the country[71] were invited to compete in an essay contest to select the six best essays pertaining to:

> The best method of introducing and developing a general system of physical and military training in the public schools throughout the Dominion upon the principle set forth in the rules of the Strathcona Trust ....[72]

Forty-two essays were received and the first prize of 250 dollars went to G.M. Higgins of Halifax, principal of Richmond School in that city.[73] The idea behind this competition was to popularize the Strathcona movement among school teachers[74] and it probably was an excellent

way to advertize the Strathcona Trust.

At its second meeting in November of 1909, the administrative board established the principle that the percentage of each provincial grant was to be fifty : thirty-five : fifteen for physical training : military drill : rifle shooting respectively.[75] This decision reflects quite precisely the twofold purpose of the Trust, viz. to encourage physical and military training. The amount and type of the physical training was left to the local committees' discretion. However, the monetary amount given over to physical training was to be laid aside for rewards to the teachers and the pupils in the ratio of two-thirds to one-third respectively.[76] Clearly, then, the Executive Council saw the purpose of the Trust as being directed at the professional training of and encouragement to teachers. As the backbone of the educational system is always made up of its professional teachers, this was another practical decision on the part of the Executive Council. In addition, the Council interpreted the aim of the "Founder" as a means "... to supplement the endeavours of the Dominion and Provincial governments in the direction of the physical and military training of the children in the public schools."[77] Therefore, the members of the federal Board fully expected that the provinces would add their

own inducements, financial in nature, or in the form of trophies and other prizes, to the pupils and teachers involved in physical training programmes. The federal government, through the Department of Militia did more than its part, even to the point of offering a financial bonus to teachers of cadet corps:[78]

> The various Provinces have thus been relieved of all financial obligations with regard to the military training of the children, they will be prepared to do their part as regards giving a bonus toward physical training.[79]

Ontario, at least, was not so "prepared" in the early years of the operation of the Strathcona Trust.

A further decision in 1909 was that military drill was to be conducted in the cadet corps only.[80] That is, the strict form of military training was to be taught outside of regular school hours and not as a part of the physical training programme. The intention of the Executive Council in adopting this measure may have been to offset adverse criticism, but it was certainly in keeping with the Council's policy of encouraging two separate avenues of instruction. Furthermore, the Executive Council gave the local committees wide discretionary power with regard to the carrying out of all details in connection with the administration of the Trust grants even though the Council wished to maintain some uniformity in that respect.[81] In reference to this allow-

ance, one critical pronouncement, as far as the Ontario Committee was concerned, was made:

> The various Local Commitees should be allowed to use their own discretion with regard to the disposal of any portion of the annual grant that might in any year be unexpended. The Local Committee, should, however, take care to see that the disposal made of this balance did not create any undesirable precedents.[82]

The liberal interpretation which the Ontario Committee made of this ruling is discussed in a following section.[83]

The three meetings held between 1911 and 1921 were relatively inconsequential as far as the administration of the Strathcona Trust by the Executive Council was concerned. There was some discussion at both the 1911 meeting[84] and the 1921 meeting[85] about establishing a "Canadian Physical Training College" to provide advanced physical training instruction for all who might desire to make a special study of the subject. However, such an endeavour was definitely outside the scope of the Executive Council for the Strathcona Trust and the proposal was left to "stand for future consideration."[86] Otherwise, the Executive Council continued to provide the regular annual grants and to award annual grants from a secondary fund created to cover incidental expenses incurred by the local committees. The Executive Council opened two accounts,

one to receive the interest from the principal amount of 500,000 dollars semi-annually, and the other to provide interest on the unused portion of the grant from the first year of operation of the Trust when very little of the annual grant was used. The interest from this second account was used annually for expenses of the local committees such as a printing allowance to the local secretaries and postage and stationery costs.[87] To most local committees, the secondary annual grant amounted to ten dollars, but to the Catholic Committee, Quebec, it was fifteen dollars and to the Ontario Committee it was twenty-five dollars.[88]

The Local Committee for the Province of Ontario was the committee which received the largest share of the annual provincial grants during the period from 1911 to 1939. Notable among its first members was James L. Hughes who was, at the time of his appointment to the Ontario Committee in April of 1910, inspector of public schools for the city of Toronto. Hughes had written the first school textbook, Manual of Drill and Calisthenics,[89] published in 1879, on military drill. Less than one month after Strathcona's original donation had been announced to the newspapers, Hughes, "... having 34 years in noting the effects of military drill on the boys of the schools of Toronto,"[90] submitted an article to the

Globe on "The Value of Drill." The article, included in a column on the sports page, was probably written to counteract the negative opinions expressed by the trustees of the Ontario Education Association. Hughes served on the Ontario Committee for twenty-four years. His selection to that committee was only fitting for in 1909 he could state: "Thirty four years ago I began in Toronto the system Lord Strathcona is now advocating."[91] Hughes acted as secretary of the Ontario Committee until the early 1920's[92] and was a central figure in administering most of the annual grants listed in Table 1.[93]

TABLE 1

STRATHCONA TRUST, AMOUNT OF ANNUAL GRANTS TO THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO, 1908-1909 TO 1937-1938 INCLUSIVE

| School Year | Amount | School Year | Amount |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1908-1909 | $ . . . | 1923-1924 | $6,574.83 |
| 1909-1910 | . . . | 1924-1925 | 6,555.61 |
| 1910-1911 | 4,000.00 | 1925-1926 | 6,725.08 |
| 1911-1912 | 7,607.49 | 1926-1927 | 6,706.97 |
| 1912-1913 | 7,490.16 | 1927-1928 | 6,744.24 |
| 1913-1914 | 7,334.86 | 1928-1929 | 6,759.21 |
| 1914-1915 | 7,083.94 | 1929-1930 | 6,807.89 |
| 1915-1916 | 7,130.00 | 1930-1931 | 7,031.89 |
| 1916-1917 | 7,015.30 | 1931-1932 | 6,815.08 |
| 1917-1918 | 6,872.01 | 1932-1933 | 6,794.22 |
| 1918-1919 | 7,180.16 | 1933-1934 | 6,817.32 |
| 1919-1920 | 6,784.14 | 1934-1935 | 6,876.98 |
| 1920-1921 | 6,545.00 | 1935-1936 | 6,507.75 |
| 1921-1922 | 6,577.85 | 1936-1937 | 6,469.86 |
| 1922-1923 | 6,523.01 | 1937-1938 | 6,457.72 |

Source: J.C. Miller, National Government in Federated Democracies: Dominion of Canada (Lancaster: The Science Press Printing Co., 1940), p. 248.

The table indicates only the amounts sent to the Ontario Committee by the Executive Council each year. Ontario received the largest annual grant every year during this thirty year period. The other provinces received annual grants in proportion to their school attendance.

The Local Committee had its own ideas about the means and methods of determining its disbursements to the schools. The physical exercises prescribed by this committee were those contained in the Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools published in 1911.[94] The nature of the physical training curriculum set down in this Syllabus is discussed in a following section.[95] Hughes and the Deputy Minister of Education, Mr. A.H.U. Colquhoun were made responsible for selecting special exercises to be made the basis for competitions in physical training for the various prizes, shields, trophies and plaques. Regarding these competitions, the Ontario Committee expressed its dissatisfaction with the Executive Council's suggestion to award up to fifty dollars to the teacher of the school judged to be most proficient in the selected physical training exercises. The secretary of the Council was instructed to inform the Ontario Committee that this amount was only a suggestion and could be changed to suit each local committee, but that

> ... as it was the teachers who were mainly responsible for the efficiency of the children, they should consequently receive the major portion of the prize.[96]

The Council betrayed its military tendencies in stressing its concern for the "efficiency" rather than the "physical development" or "health benefits" of the children which the Ontario Committee was concerned with promoting. An organizational scheme was devised by which the physical training prizes could be awarded through inspectoral districts of the public and secondary schools of Ontario.[97] Under this system the teacher received no more than a medal or trophy. The competition system which the Ontario Committee created was really the only way the small amounts available to the inspectorates could be distributed to provide any incentive for physical training programmes. If it had simply given a certain amount to each school based on school attendance, some schools would have received only pennies.

The communication link between the Ontario Committee and the school inspectors was established through a circular known as "Instructions 10a"[98] in 1912. This one page form advised the inspectors of the amounts available to them upon "... receipt of the report of the Committee [Standing Committee of the Teachers' Association] showing that the competitions

have been held."[99] In later years, the form was standardized to a more specific circular sent to public school inspectors[100] and to high school boards.[101] A detachable portion of each circular was to be signed by the appropriate officials and returned to the secretary-treasurer of the Ontario Committee at the end of the school year. Failure to do so resulted in grant forfeiture. One interesting feature of the high school circular sent in 1920 was the stipulation that: "No grant will be given for Physical Training to any High School that has not a Cadet Company."[102] Perhaps this regulation reflected the fact that the Ontario Committee, was, throughout this period, composed to a substantial degree of military members. In 1926, for example, only three of the eleven appointments to the Committee were civilian.[103] Logically, then, these men were concerned with military training and therefore attempted to ensure its success at least in the secondary schools. At the 1921 meeting of the Executive Council, perhaps due to such local committee measures, the Board withdrew its stated 50 : 35 : 15 percentage grant split for physical training, military drill and rifle shooting respectively,[104] leaving the proportions open to the discretion of the local committees.[105] If the Ontario Committee had wished to do so and had it interpreted the purpose of Strathcona Trust to be military only,

it might well have abolished the grants for physical training altogether. Significantly, such was never the case. By 1930 the physical training grants were paid through the inspectors on the basis of the number of pupils who carried out the physical training programme "in a successful manner."[106]

At its first meeting in 1910, the Ontario Committee recommended to the Executive Council that the entire fund should be distributed to the provinces each year.[107] School inspectorates had no comparable power of counsel. The Committee was strict in terms of re-distribution throughout the province:

> That in case there is in any county or city no system of Physical Training approved by the Local Committee of the Strathcona Trust for the Province, the share of such municipality shall be retained by the Local Committee of the Strathcona Trust for the Province, to be used in such ways as, in the opinion of the said Local Committee, will best promote Physical Training in the schools of the Province.[108]

The only regulation set by the Executive Council regarding unexpended funds was the vague stipulation that no "undesirable precedents"[109] be set. The grants to the provinces were distributed on the basis of pupil attendance. On the other hand, the Ontario Committee had created its own scheme for the redistribution of

its annual grants which excluded non-conforming schools and/or school boards. Presumably, most provinces dealt out the entire grant through their own system. However, Ontario opted in favour of investments, in particular, land investments in the Hamilton area. In 1914, the Ontario Committee made an initial investment of 6,200 dollars in first mortgages in Hamilton

> ... believing that it would be of great advantage to have an income to be devoted to extending the work of the Trust in all parts of the Province .... This investment was made by the Trust before it was known that any objection would be made by the Executive Council.[110]

The Ontario Committee created a special fund in 1913 to retain the financial amounts not earned by the various inspectoral districts[111] and, about one year later, decided to put this money toward a more profitable source. The Executive Council expressed its disapproval, but it had no power or regulation to stop such investments.[112] By 1936, Ontario had 11,350 dollars invested in mortgages and another 1500 dollars in Dominion of Canada bonds.[113] The Judge Advocate General, Department of National Defence, the apparent arbitrator in Trust disputes, declared the investments "unlawful", yet no one ever stepped in to prohibit the investments. Table 2 indicates the exact nature of the investments made to 1935:

TABLE 2

STATEMENT OF SECURITIES
LOCAL COMMITTEE STRATHCONA TRUST, PROVINCE OF ONTARIO
SECURITIES AS OF JUNE 30th, 1935

| No. | Security | Date Acquired | Amount | Estimated Value | Rate of Interest | Date of Maturity | Insurance, Date of Expiry |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Dominion of Canada Bonds | 12/ 1/34 | $1,500 | $1,500 | 4 1/2% | 1/11/58 | $ - |
| 2. | Mortage W.D. Armstrong | 1/12/26 | 2,600 | 4,400 | 6 1/2 | 1/12/36 | 3,500 30/ 6/36 |
| 3. | Mortgage W.C. Armstrong | 1/12/26 | 2,000 | 3,200 | 6 1/2 | 1/12/36 | 2,500 30/11/35 |
| 4. | Mortgage F. Sheldrake | 21/ 1/14 | 2,000 | 5,000 | 6 1/2 | 21/ 1/36 | 4,000 23/ 6/36 |
| 5. | Mortgage T. Allen | 29/ 9/17 | 2,000 | 4,000 | 6 1/2 | 30/ 9/38 | 2,000 3/11/37 |
| 6. | Mortgage T.B. McQuester | 21/ 1/14 | 2,750 | 5,000 | 6 | 14/10/36 | 3,150 23/ 9/36 |

Source: Public Archives of Canada, Records of the Department of National Defence, Record Group 24, Volume 6612, File Number H.Q. 8251-2-2-1.

The chairman of the Ontario Committee explained the situation to the secretary of the Executive Council in 1936:

> In the first two or three years, the number of cadet units then organized, and the number of School Boards entitled to participate in Strathcona Trust Grants, were insufficient in number to permit the complete disposal of the annual grant received from the Central Committee.
>
> The total amount received from the Central Committee annually is now fully expended, as also is the entire income received from investments. There will, therefore, be no additional accumulation of unexpended balances.[114]

The Ontario Committee in its early years took special care in awarding grants only where they were earned thereby making the financial allotments a reward rather than a gift. However, the "entire income received from investments" was not "fully expended" in 1936.

As the interest came due on the mortgages over the years, the money was placed in a "surplus account." By the end of 1936, the Ontario Committee's audits of their accounts, showed a balance of 9,000 dollars in this surplus account.[115] If the Committee had been saving the entire amount earned from the mortgages up to that time, there should have been a balance of almost twice that amount. Even accounting for the trouble incurred in collecting on the Sheldrake mortgage during that same year, by 1937, the balance was still,

approximately, 9,000 dollars.[116] What the Ontario Committee had done was to re-acquire the principal amounts and use the earned interest to purchase special awards such as their gold and silver medals[117] and, perhaps, to make extra grants or prizes in notable cases.[118] With the remaining money, the original principal amounts, the Committee acquired new mortgages to a purchase value of 4,450 dollars and Dominion Bonds to a purchase value of almost 6,000 dollars.[119] While the investments were sound, it is difficult to interpret the outcome and benefits derived from them prior to 1940. Probably, the results, considering that the interest returns were relatively small, were mostly in the realm of providing an increased stimulus to physical and military training.

All local committees were restricted from being too dynamic because of the guidelines of the Strathcona Trust set down in its Constitution. The Ontario Committee functioned mostly, as did the other provincial local committees, to distribute the grant to the best of its ability. In 1912, Ontario had established an award system and continued to function by that scheme until 1939. With the Executive Council essentially defunct between 1921 and 1939, the Ontario Committee worked on its own methods. Its only articulation,

other than with school boards and inspectors, was with the Education Department in matters pertaining to teacher training.

Teachers and Syllabuses

When the county model school plan was abandoned in 1907,[120] Ontario opened four new normal schools at Hamilton, Peterborough, Stratford and North Bay bringing the total number of teacher training centres, for elementary school purposes, to seven.[121] "Faculties of education" at Queen's University and at the University of Toronto prepared secondary school teachers in Ontario until 1920, when

> ... the Ontario College of Education at the University of Toronto assumed sole responsibility for the preparation of high school teachers and admitted only university graduates to its course of professional training.[122]

Each of the normal schools, with the exception of North Bay,[123] employed an instructor in "physical culture" every year from 1908[124] until the end of the period under discussion. Three of the normal schools, those at Peterborough, Stratford and Toronto hired female physical culture instructors in 1908,[125] a logical procedure since prospective female teachers far

outnumbered their male counterparts.[126] Since some of the normal school masters in this subject were termed "instructors in drill" or "instructors in calisthenics," it may be assumed that their courses of instruction were confined to drill and calisthenics in the Houghton[127] tradition. A change in the physical training programme for teachers was imminent in 1908.

The only way for the Executive Council to encourage physical and military training in the schools was via the teachers. To ensure a uniform system of physical training, the Council decided to adopt a British syllabus, the Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, first published in 1904 and subsequently revised in 1909 by the London Board of Education.[128] Borden had first suggested the use of this Syllabus to the provincial premiers early in 1909[129] by proposing that it should be used as the basis of the physical training system. The Syllabus was the book, he said,

> ... which is now in use in the Elementary Schools in Great Britain; and which has been adopted in that country as more suited to the development of growing boys and girls than the purely military exercises of the Drill Book.[130]

Borden's intentions were, therefore, to provide a

standard manual of physical training exercises for teachers to use as a guide in their schools. Moreover, he probably felt that in adopting the latest edition of the British text, he was incorporating the most up to date system. Houghton's book[131] was really the only manual available to teachers and normal schools prior to the second decade of the twentieth century.

Not content to simply order a certain number of copies from the British publisher, the Executive Council wished to use the book to introduce the Strathcona Trust agreement under a manual published by the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust. Essentially it was a method employed to propagandize the Trust with the idea being to impress teachers with its own manual. Consequently, the Executive Council purchased the copyright and engaged the Copp, Clarke Company in Toronto to publish the manual in 1911.[132] It was explained in the "Prefatory Memorandum" of the text, that:

> This Syllabus is, in the main, a reprint of the latest official Syllabus authorized for use in the Public Elementary Schools of England which is based on the Swedish system of educational gymnastics, already adopted by several European countries.
>
> While certain of the words of command and explanatory notes have been modified, no change has been made in the general arrangement and form of the exercises in the English Syllabus, which have been most admirably selected

> and arranged in proper progression with a view to the promotion of the harmonious development of all parts of the body, and their suitability for children of school age; special care having been taken to exclude all exercises likely to prove injurious to children of weak physique, to which end some of the ordinary Swedish, exercises, or combinations of movements, though well designed for average use have been omitted or modified in order to avoid risk of straining children below the average, either in vigour or physical capacity.[133]

It would be interesting to know exactly which exercises the Executive Council considered as "injurious."[134] However, more germane to this study, are the instructions and exercises contained in the 1911 Syllabus.

Through the Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools the "systems" approach to physical education was introd[redacted] Canada and Ontario. In particular, the Swedis[redacted] was adopted and therefore submitted to Ontario [redacted]. Gratuitous dispersion to the school board[redacted] to many schools[136] combined with inexpensive (tw[redacted]-five cents to be exact) availability to teachers a[redacted]ormal school students from the Education Dep[redacted]ment and from Eaton's stock[137] were critical fact[redacted]s in popularizing the manual among schools and teachers. The most important part of the book was the seventy pages of exercise tables plus about fifty pages devoted to descriptions of simple

exercises, marching, running, jumping and breathing exercises, class arrangement and progression of exercises[138] all of which was of practical value to the teacher. The secretary of the Executive Council indicated, in the passage cited above, that the exercises were those of the Swedish system of educational gymnastics. McIntosh, to the contrary, stated that "the real drive was towards therapeutic exercises."[139] The distinction between "therapeutic" gymnastics, devised by Per Henrik Ling, and "educational" or pedagogical gymnastics, formulated by Hjalmar Frederick Ling,[140] is minimal. Both emphasized positions as opposed to movements; both were executed by commands from a leader or teacher; both stressed the importance of breathing exercises. The accent on style, uniform style, in educational gymnastics was the real difference, a minor variation really. It would seem that McIntosh was merely trying to emphasize his point about the move by the London Board of Education away from games and sports to a more formal, rigid "gymnastics" or exercise approach.[142] There was no difference in the exercise tables between the Strathcona Trust edition of the 1909 Syllabus and the British one since the Executive Council had purchased from England "the electrotypes of the cuts" at a minimal cost.[143] The exercises were

definitely Swedish in origin and were formal, position-type exercises of a "paramilitary"[144] nature.

That the manual was directed at elementary school usage is indicated by the division of the tables into three groups intended for children aged seven to nine, nine to eleven and eleven to fourteen. The ideal lesson plan for teachers to follow was one incorporating the following broad categories:

1. Introductory and breathing exercises.
2. Trunk bending backward and forward.
3. Arm bending and stretching.
4. Balance exercises.
5. Shoulder-blade exercises.
   [Abdominal exercises]
6. Trunk turning and bending sideways.
7. Marching, running, jumping (including games).
8. Breathing exercises.[145]

Each table of the total of seventy-two tables always included variations on these eight types of exercises listed, by number, in a column on the left half of the page. The right hand column frequently contained a photograph illustration of a pupil[146] performing the exercise plus the appropriate commands for the teacher to use when instructing students. "Progression" of exercises through the tables meant variety more than degree of difficulty or vigourousness in the exercises. For example, the third series, or the tables designed for the age group eleven to fourteen years, were more difficult only by virtue of the fact that they involved

more exacting balance exercises and required more co-ordination than the first two series. Finally, the Syllabus contained one appendix which showed teachers how to construct new tables of exercises based on the basic group of eight categories.[147]

The best feature of the book was its usefulness to teachers. The tables could be followed step by step with very little lesson preparation and the exercises were definitely not difficult for the teacher to learn and perform.

Teachers in training at the normal schools qualified themselves to teach under the provisions of the Strathcona Trust by taking a course of instruction toward the attainment of the "Strathcona Grade 'B' Certificate."[148] A Grade "A" certificate was available through summer courses for male teachers interested in qualifying themselves to instruct cadet corps.[149] Very often the normal school students received only thirty hours of instruction[150] to qualify for the "B" certificate and the course involved practical instruction in the exercise tables contained in the Syllabus.[151] It is not clear whether the course for the "B" certificate was concentrated into a specific period, or taken throughout the academic year. Judging by the size of the gymnasia in the various normal schools, classes must

have been very small. The picture illustrated on page 32 shows that the London Normal School gymnasium was little bigger in area than one badminton court. In the rooms used as "gymnasia" in the normal schools at North Bay and Stratford, the top of the basketball "key" was within ten feet of the opposite wall.[152] Outdoor instruction must have provided a welcome relief to the students in attendance at these normal schools. Table 3 indicates the number of Grade "B" certificates issued to the provinces between 1913 and 1920.

TABLE 3

THE NUMBER OF STRATHCONA GRADE "B" CERTIFICATES ISSUED IN CANADA BETWEEN 1913 and 1920

| Province / Year | Alberta | British Columbia | Manitoba | New Brunswick | Nova Scotia | Prince Edward Island | Quebec (Protestant) | Saskatchewan | Ontario |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1913 | 227 | - | - | 448 | 178 | - | - | 79 | 1047 |
| 1914 | 920 | 515 | 432 | 342 | 738 | 224 | 27 | 771 | 1809 |
| 1915 | 352 | 393 | 786 | 556 | 231 | 517 | 97 | 662 | 1442 |
| 1916 | 528 | 487 | 448 | 239 | 883 | - | 223 | 621 | 583 |
| 1917 | 186 | 373 | 248 | 323 | 354 | 57 | 386 | 215 | 1364 |
| 1918 | 320 | 571 | 494 | 228 | 454 | 57 | 281 | 315 | 1122 |
| 1919 | 242 | 135 | 471 | 366 | 280 | - | 45 | 442 | 1212 |
| 1920 | 361 | 414 | 256 | 243 | 376 | 59 | 45 | 151 | 1047 |

Source: Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, General File Containing Executive Council Reports, 1912-1920, loose letter - Ottawa, February 24, 1921, S.H. Hill, Colonel, Director of Cadet Services, unaddressed.

Ontario, as would be expected, trained the greatest number of teachers for the "B" certificate each year, with the exception of 1916, due, probably, to the size of the province and the concerted efforts of the Ontario Committee in having the course initiated at all the normal schools. For whatever reasons, a considerable number of teachers were trained and received the Strathcona Grade "B" certificate. In fact, the number of "B" certificates issued closely approximated the total number of students in attendance at the normal schools during those years.[153] The students must have recognized the value of the certification in terms of an extra job qualification, or else the course for the "B" certificate was made compulsory and some students were excused for various reasons.

The Strathcona Grade "B" Certificate, or, the qualification to teach the exercises contained in the 1911 Syllabus, combined with the manual itself and the prizes and awards offered by the Ontario Committee through its competition system, provided an initial, successful thrust toward developing a standard form of teacher education in physical training. While the "B" certificate signified its holder's eligibility and training to teach physical exercises in the elementary schools throughout the period from 1909 to 1939, the

manual upon which it was based changed twice and for very good reasons.

The most obvious problems connected with the 1911 Syllabus were its rigidity and formality indicated in the exercises themselves. Because the exercises were positions, as opposed to smooth movements, performed in response to command, they came to be known as "physical jerks"[154] by the teachers and inspectors. Furthermore, the exercises would have been a novelty to teach and to engage in for about two years. It is conceivable that pupils taking these exercises year after year in elementary school must have been able to do them in robot-like fashion by their last years in school. In May of 1919, only eight years after the Syllabus had been published, normal school principals and ministers of education from the four western provinces met in Edmonton to discuss a revision of the 1911 manual.[155] While Ontario was not represented at this conference, some of their criticisms must have reflected conditions throughout the Dominion. Some of the salient points are paraphrased as follows: many of the exercises are not suited to adolescent girls; the training is crowded into six or eight weeks in the schools; the constant repetition in the type of exercises is monotonous and renders the course distasteful; rural teachers who

hold the "B" certificate are of the opinion that the course is too formal and does not suit rural conditions; there should be more training in teaching play, games and in learning first aid; some teachers simply omit the exercises and substitute games and sports when there is a definite need for systematic physical exercises; and the exercises "smack of militarism."[156] In essence, the exercises which were easy for teachers to master and to teach were, according to the western provincial representatives, full of formality and lacking in a recreative, play element as well as in variety.

Almost one year after the Edmonton conference, in 1920, a certain Miss Brackett, "... who has only recently arrived in Canada from the Royal School of Physical Education, Chelsea"[157] was "discovered" to be using the "new syllabus now in use in the schools of England"[158] by the Brigadier-General, Officer Commanding military district number four, Montreal. The officer communicated this fact to the Executive Council and recommended that teachers in the normal schools should be trained in the methods outlined in the "new syllabus" in order that "the pupils ... derive full benefit."[159] The manual in question was the Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919.[160] No action was taken on the part of the Executive Council. This board had not met since 1913

owing to the exigencies of war and the lack of any real necessity to convene. Ethel Mary Cartwright, the physical director for women at McGill University, was also made aware of the 1919 Syllabus through, no doubt, Miss Brackett or the aforementioned Brigadier-General. Cartwright was greatly impressed with the manual and she expressed her intention to encourage the Executive Committee to have it authorized for use in the schools of Canada "with as little delay as possible."[161] Cartwright then wrote to Ottawa, late in December, 1920, indicating that the Syllabus was not yet in use and advising that it be implemented immediately.[162] According to Cartwright, the Syllabus could be obtained through a Montreal publisher by late 1920.[163] The Executive Council finally mobilized and called a meeting for February 28, 1921, to discuss the advisability of adopting the 1919 Syllabus and any other matters of pressing importance.

Because many representatives of the local committees indicated that they were unable to attend for one reason or another, the Executive Council asked the local committees to send a list of items which they felt needed to be discussed by the Executive Council.[164] The Deputy Minister of Education for Ontario, Mr. A.H.U. Colquhoun, wrote to the Council and succinctly expressed

the views of the Ontario Committee regarding physical training:

> It is especially felt that the provision for out-door games, rather than any other feature, should be enlarged. The Syllabus of Physical Training for English Schools, adopted by the Board of Education in 1919, affords an excellent basis for the proposed reconstruction of the course in Ontario.[165]

By November, 1921, each school in Ontario had received a copy of the 1919 Syllabus.[166] Extra copies were available, at that time, only through the British publisher[167] since the total cost to the Executive Council to distribute the new manual throughout the Dominion, 10,000 dollars, had exhausted the Council's budget.[168] Normal school students, once again, were able to acquire the Syllabus of 1919 very easily:

> For some years the 1919 syllabus has been stocked by the leading book stores, and students at Normal Schools have been required to purchase copies for themselves.[169]

While local committees were unhappy with the 1911 Syllabus by 1919, their discouragement did not affect the number of students who received the grade "B" certificate.[170] In fact, in that year, the Education Department offered a summer course at the Toronto Faculty of Education for both grade "A" and "B" candidates.[171] Thus, the Strathcona system was not interrupted

at the teacher preparation level during the minor crisis of 1919.

With the adoption of the 1919 Syllabus, the requirements for the attainment of the "B" certificate were updated to conform to the 1919 manual. The minimum number of hours of instruction for the certificate in the normal school course was increased from thirty to forty-five by the Executive Council.[172] In regard to the exercises themselves, teachers obtaining the "B" certificate from the Militia Department after 1921-1922 were tested on their ability to instruct in the "General Activity Exercises"[173] and on their knowledge of the section on the "Arrangements of the Class"[174] in the Syllabus.[175] The "B" certificate, and therefore teacher training were only as dynamic as the syllabuses. The general activity exercises were: marching exercises, involving such variations as marking time, turning about on the march, wheeling, figure marching (maze and zig-zag), follow the leader, rhythm variations with marked beats, stork march, hop marching and spring marching with skipping and gallop step; running exercises, such as running with knee raising, running on the spot, zig-zag running and running maze; jumping exercises, including astride and skip jumps; formal or straight up jumps with and without turns, arm move-

ments and leg parting, star jumps, forward or long, standing jumps, recreative jumps which could comprise ladder jumps, jumping a rope, standing and running broad and high jumps (over rope), leap frog and skipping.[176] The exercises were still done by command, but by number, for example, "By numbers upward jump-1-2-3,"[177] or, "Running on the spot, left (right) foot - begin! Class - halt, 1-2-3-4."[178] The recreative jumps were not done by number, but rather on the pupils' own time. From this brief description of the exercises which the teachers were expected to learn and the students to execute, it is clear that Ontario teachers who followed the 1919 Syllabus were not directing "physical jerks." Instead of being exercises of position and style, they were movement actions. Additionally, these exercises were energetic and required the children to use the large muscle groups of the whole body throughout a range of motion. In other words, the child's love of vigorous physical activity was being exploited. Six pages of charts on games graded by complexity and skill and amount of physical activity required were arranged by age from five to eleven years.[179] Any critics of the military nature of the 1911 Syllabus would be satisfied by the Executive Council's decision to require teachers to be able to teach the games proposed in the 1919 Syllabus. Games and sports had become curricular.

The section on arrangements of the class[180] was only a few pages in length and it gave brief examples of how to organize the class in ranks and files in order to perform the exercises under supervision. The exercises formerly serving as the basis of the 1911 manual, were listed and described as simple, preliminary and fundamental exercises[181] and they were relegated to the place of warm up and/or postural improvement exercises. Seventy-two new tables were devised and placed in the Syllabus in the same eight categories as in the 1911 manual.[182] But, the tables, still classified in age groups, were practical applications of the marching, running and jumping exercises in organized groups for those teachers who wished to use them as lesson plans. Students obtaining the "B" certificate were required to be able to teach using the first sixty-five of the tables.[183] In general, the 1919 Syllabus fulfilled a recognized need in Ontario to train teachers in more vigorous, enjoyable and interesting physical training exercises including games and sports. The fact that the 1919 Syllabus was two years late in being implemented in Ontario might, on the surface, be attributed to the fault of the Executive Council in making itself aware of new developments. Such was never the purpose of the Council. The Trust was intended to be an inducement, an

"encouragement" to physical training. If blame for the static nature of teacher training needed to be fixed upon a particular group or board, it should be placed upon the provincial education departments, or perhaps, the local committees of the Strathcona Trust, for not taking some initiative in expanding their teacher education programme in response to demand and need. Instead, the provinces relied, and continued to rely, heavily, on the meagre provisions of the Strathcona Trust.

It is interesting to note that up until the early 1920's dance could not be taught in the teacher training institutions or in the schools themselves in Ontario. This fact was in keeping with the social norms of "Victorianism" so prevalent throughout the entire nation until 1914.[184] At the London Normal School, no dancing was allowed in the building for the first twenty years. When John Dearness became principal (1918-1922) he pronounced that dancing was an art form and could be performed in the school "if the student danced alone."[185] The Galt Board of Education prohibited dancing at the Galt Collegiate Institute during the early 1920's.[186] Commencement exercises at the Galt school[187] and special events at the London Normal school were occasions for "promenades" when, to the tune of a piano, students at both types of institutions chose partners and walked

in double file around the gymnasium or else throughout the halls of the schools.[188] Because of such strict regulations, it w[illegible]ntil the mid to late 1920's that dancing was [illegible] be incorporated in any physical tr[illegible]ing [illegible] Both the 1911 Syllabus[189] and the 191[illegible]ua[illegible]re of little value in promoting dance. [illegible] t[illegible] included only a few brief pages of descriptio[illegible]nce steps.

In 1930[illegible]oximately 1,100 normal school students receiv[illegible]he "B" certificate[191] indicating that the Syllabus and [illegible] certificate, authorizing the teacher to instruct with [illegible] manual, still formed the basis of the physical trai[illegible] of prospective teachers. The written examinations in physical training given at the various normal schoo[illegible] between the years 1929 and 1932 were based directl[illegible] 1919 Syllabus.[192] The following copy of an exa[illegible]ation was typical for those years:

HAMILTON NORMAL SCHOOL
Final Examination, Wed. June 4, 1930

PHYSICAL TRAINING

1. Name the different parts of a word of command for an exercise and explain briefly how they should be used to get the best results from the different exercises.

2. Explain fully and give the various methods of correcting faults in a class doing exercises.

3. Name and give the object of the 2nd, 3rd and 5th Groups. Also give an exercise from the 3rd and 5th Groups suitable for a Senior Third class. 25

4. What hygienic conditions should be required in a class room before starting a lesson in physical training and why? 15

5. (a) At what period in life is Physical Training most beneficial? State fully your reasons for this answer. 25

(b) Why is Physical Training more essential in our age, than what it used to be? 100[193]

All of the examinations required regurgitation of the 1919 Syllabus with questions on the types of exercises, their suitability for various ages and even some requiring the student to draw up exercise tables and games charts.[194] The manual served as the basis for teacher training from 1921 to 1932.

Some of the examinations conducted prior to 1933 were set by the Militia Department in Ottawa. It was the practice of that department to "loan" their instructors to the normal schools for six to eight weeks at a time to assist in the teaching of the course toward the grade "B" certificate.[195] However, by 1932, there was only one instructor in physical training with a military background in the normal schools.[196] The Militia Department, since 1921, had granted forty-five dollars per class to normal school civilian instructors who taught the course toward the grade "B" certificate.[197] The amount of this grant was not magical; it corres-

ponded to one dollar per hour for the minimum number of hours, forty-five, required to be completed for the certificate. This was not a Strathcona Trust grant, rather it was undertaken by the Militia Department. If this grant was given to all normal schools throughout Canada from 1921 to 1932, it being discontinued in that year in Ontario,[198] it must have meant a considerable expenditure for the Militia Department.[199] At any rate, the federal Militia Department did more than its share to encourage the teaching of the 1919 Syllabus in the normal schools of Ontario. In London, Ontario, Major J.J. Jeffrey, the district cadet officer in military district number one, was made aware that a Miss Doris Rider, a graduate of the Ontario College of Education, was teaching the "elementary Danish system" at the London Normal School in 1933.[200] He subsequently pointed out to Ontario's Assistant Deputy Minister of Education that there was in existence a 1933 manual which

> ... shows a vast improvement in the system and I would say that at least 60% of the exercises contained therein have been taken from the Danish manuals.[201]

Jeffrey, furthermore, had witnessed a demonstration by Niels Bukh and his Danish gymnastic team[202] and was very impressed with the physical exercises. These exercises were oriented toward the development of suppleness and

flexibility in its followers and were more rhythmical than the Swedish exercises.[203] The influence of the Danish system and the Danish exhibitions given by Bukh in Great Britain led to the publication of the Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools 1933.[204]

H.A. Noble, Provincial Director of Physical Education and Recreation, Province of Nova Scotia, in 1965, expressed his views on the 1933 Syllabus:

> The British Syllabus of 1933 served as the basic course for physical training in most, if not all, teacher training institutions in Canada up until very recent times. The valuable contribution this syllabus has played in the development of physical education is well recognized throughout Canada. The book is often referred to today by teachers throughout the land and is acclaimed as an excellent volume of reference material.[205]

The British physical education historian, P.C. McIntosh, did not share Noble's enthusiasm. McIntosh stated that the book was geared to the "... special encouragement of posture and flexibility of muscles and joints,"[206] and that: "Posture in fact became the yardstick of gymnastics."[207] However, he acknowledged the fact that the exercises were vigorous and unrestrictive and quite suited to the conditions in the British schools during the 1930's.[208] It was not until December of 1933 that the Executive Council, represented by its secretary, took steps to authorize the new Syllabus.[209] No meeting

of the Executive Council was convened. The secretary advised that the necessary procedure to have the manual adopted involved obtaining mutual agreement with local committees and provincial education departments.[210] The only free copies distributed in Ontario were two to the Ontario Committee and two more to the Department of Education.[211] The manual was distributed through book stores in the same fashion as the 1919 Syllabus had been sold.

The 1933 Syllabus was some three hundred and fifty pages in length. Much more attention was devoted to organizing and teaching games, dancing and swimming. All manner of ball games, races, tag and relay, were described. The tables were grouped in a slightly different way from the 1919 Syllabus:

The Grouping of Exercises

| 1919 | 1933<br>Part I |
|---|---|
| 1. Introductory running and breathing exercises. | 1. Introductory exercises |
| 2. Head pressing backward, Trunk bending forward. | 2. Head exercises, Trunk bending forward and also downward. |
| 3. Arm exercises (bending and stretching and shoulder blade). | 3. Arm exercises. |
| 4. Balance and leg exercises. | 4. Balance and leg exercises, including exercises with abdominal effect. |
| 5. Trunk turning and bending sideways. | 5. Trunk turning and bending sideways. |

| 1919 | 1933<br>Part II |
|---|---|
| 6. Marching, running, jumping, games, etc. | 6. General activity exercises. |
| 7. Breathing exercises. | 7. Final exercises.[212] |

Each lesson from the tables included the exercises designed to develop specific parts of the body and then an activity exercise, or game. The exercises performed in part I no longer included marching exercises. Instead they stressed running, jumping and skipping variations.[213] The actual performance of the exercises involved a lot of stretching movements, especially of the upper body. Where possible the exercises were done to "counts." That is, they were rhythmical, a feature which must have been more attractive to female teachers and pupils alike, but performed throughout a range of motion, not in static positions.[214]

Between 1933 and 1940, approximately 10,000 students in the normal schools of Ontario received The Strathcona Grade "B" Certificate.[215] Once again, the written examinations at the teacher training institutions during the period reflected the use of the 1933 Syllabus as the basic text. An example of such an exam, in 1935, is provided:

HAMILTON NORMAL SCHOOL
PHYSICAL TRAINING EXAMINATION
1935

1. Describe the standing position which fulfills the requirements of good posture.
2. (a) Why are starting positions important?
   (b) Give two examples to illustrate.
3. (a) Discuss the position of the instructor with relation to the class.
   (b) Give examples of two exercises which require different positions to best illustrate.
4. Give three exercises which show progression in the balance group.
5. Illustrate two suitable games for the classroom in which all pupils will get a fair share of the exercise.[216]

The final question in this examination is particularly indicative of the tendency of the 1933 Syllabus not to require elaborate equipment or gymnasia, but to stress games and exercises for all pupils. The trend in teacher training in Ontario was toward recreative "gymnastics" and away from the paramilitary and formal "gymnastics."

The examinations for the grade "B" certificate were still being conducted by the Militia Department's officers. In 1936, the Ontario Committee of the Strathcona Trust expressed its dissatisfaction with the teacher training being conducted at such institutions as the London, Stratford and Ottawa normal schools by labelling it "below a reasonable standard."[217] The problem, according to the Ontario Committee, was that the work was not being conducted on a standard basis. The Department of Militia and Defence had agreed with the Department of

Education in Ontario during the early organization of the Ontario system to assist with the training of teachers[218] "... until such time as the Provincial Authorities are prepared to undertake this duty themselves."[219] The Education Department had begun to hire its own normal school instructors and when the military personnel conducted the examinations, discrepancies were apparent. Mr. N. Keefe, instructor in physical training at the Toronto Normal School, summed the situation up in a very diplomatic manner:

> I recognize the honour due the Military Department for the pioneer work they have done, through the Strathcona Trust, in fostering the spread of Physical Training in the schools. At the same time, it is my opinion that the said course is hampering, in the Normal Schools, instruction in types of Physical Culture that are better for the development of the student teachers and much more suitable for the training of the children in the schools in which the students will presently be the teachers. However well the Strathcona Drill may be adapted for the training of men it is quite unsuited for the culture of children.
>
> It may be said that only 20% of the time assigned for Physical Culture is required for taking up the Strathcona exercises on the course. But the fact that these exercises tend toward a certificate to which a high value has been attached by school boards and others, has caused students and instructors to spend much more time on them than they are entitled to either because

> of their own worth or the real value of the certificate. The result has been that the parts of the Physical Culture course that are of greatest value to student teachers and to public school pupils, have been partly, or, in some cases, wholly neglected.[220]

Keefe went on to indicate that the military examiners in 1936 were not up to date with the 1933 Syllabus and that they had no understanding of how to teach children. To remedy the situation, Keefe recommended establishing a distinctive normal school certificate for physical training and preparing a normal school syllabus.[221] During the 1930's, it was the pattern for the examining officer to conduct the practical examinations for the "B" certificate. The normal school instructors set their own written examination. Therefore, while the examinations reflected the conformity of normal school instruction to the syllabuses, the practical tests were often of a more military drill nature just as Keefe and the Ontario Committee indicated.

Karr, the Director of Professional Training for Ontario, asked for the opinions of the normal schools' physical instructors and principals regarding retaining the "B" examination, in 1937. Most replies favoured its preservation on the basis that the practical examination was a good experience for the students.[222] The situation was left such that the "B" certificate examina-

tions were still conducted up to 1940,[223] but the Department of Education began to set a standard, "Normal School Professional Examination" in "physical education" in 1939.[224] A teacher, after 1939, took the physical education course as part of the regular normal school courses in professional preparation. No longer was the Grade "B" Certificate his only ticket to teach physical education in the schools.

Secondary school teachers were never subjected to the rigors of obtaining a Strathcona Grade "B" Certificate. One of the major faults of Borden's choice of syllabus in 1909 was that the manual which he selected was suited only to pupils up to the age of fourteen years. It was of little practical value to the secondary school teacher. In addition, Borden's and the Ontario Committee's emphasis in the secondary schools was invested in firmly establishing cadet corps. Physical training was encouraged by the Strathcona system but more in the public schools than in the secondary schools. The fact that the University of Toronto, the main centre for the training of secondary school teachers, had hired Dr. James Warren Barton as physical director in 1907[225] prevented the Executive Council from introducing the Strathcona physical training system in that institution.

Barton had twelve years of Y.M.C.A. programme supervision as well as a medical degree behind him when he returned to his home town of Toronto in 1907.[226] The University of Toronto had conducted a diploma course in physical training for men and women in 1901[227] but it attracted little interest.[228] Barton modified the course in 1908 using his medical background to add the elements of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, corrective work, anthropometrical measurements and the detection of defects and deficiencies.[229] A major part of the course was in appratus gymnastics for men and in the use of indian clubs, dumbbells, wands and in aesthetic gymnastics for women.[230] The course continued to expand in content from 1913 onwards. Only one part of the course was devoted to preparing students to be examined for the "Strathcona Grade B certificate."[231] Most of the course was based on games, sports and gymnastics (apparatus) for men and light gymnastics, dancing and "Strathcona Trust exercises" for women[232] as well as, prior to his retirement in 1922, on Barton's Physical Training, First Aid to the Injured and Athletics first published in 1909.[233] The book reflected the nature of the men's course during Barton's term of office. It contained sections on elementary anatomy and physiology, calisthenics, both freehand and with clubs and wands, apparatus work, corrective bodywork and track and field

events.

The diploma course continued to be offered through to 1939[234] but attracting little interest with only an average of five students receiving the diploma annually between 1927 and 1938.[235] This course, therefore, was of little value in training secondary school teachers in the branch of instruction known as physical training.

The dichotomy in teacher training between elementary and secondary school teachers originated, in physical training instruction, in 1913 with the beginning of summer courses conducted by the University of Toronto. Any teacher with legal qualification to teach was admitted to the first year of the "Summer School for Physical Culture" in 1913.[236] Teachers who passed the first course of the academic and practical work, described below, were granted interim (temporary) certificates of "Elementary Physical Culture."[237] If a teacher passed both the first and second courses of the academic and practical work, described below, he was granted a certificate of "Supervisor of Physical Culture."[238] These certificates were the ones which caused the problems in the elementary school system under the Strathcona "B" teacher training system. A teacher who held the Supervisor's certificate was an elementary school teacher. Miss Rider, the physical

training instructor who came to the London Normal School in 1933 and prompted Jeffrey's letter to the Education Department[239] held this certificate or its counterpart, the "Specialist's in Physical Culture."[240] The latter certificate was earned by exactly the same process as the "Supervisor's," the only difference being that the "Specialist's" was acquired by the holder of a first class or high school assistant's licence to teach. The specialist's certificate was for secondary school teachers, the supervisor's for elementary school teachers. It was a confusing system to say the least. Perhaps it was devised by Barton, but it became the physical training certification for secondary school teachers. The recipients were as outlined in Table 4. Several points merit explanation in connection with this table. First of all, the summer school course was a success relative to the diploma course; it was so prosperous that it prompted the elementary and specialist's courses to be offered during the academic year. Obviously, these courses during the academic year were available only to teachers in training at the Ontario College of Education in Toronto. This meant that in 1925 the certificates were opened to prospective secondary school teachers, not just licenced teachers. It is a mistake to add the two columns of elementary and specialist's recipients since overlap in the specialist's qualification was a

TABLE 4

THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS WHO RECEIVED THE ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PHYSICAL CULTURE CERTIFICATES, 1914 to 1939

| Year | -Academic Year Course- Elementary (Interim) | Specialists (Interim) | Summer School Course Elementary (Interim) | Supervisor (Interim) | Specialists (Interim) | Pro Tanto[a] Elementary (Interim) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1914 | | | 79 | 63 | 53 | 24 |
| 1915 | | | 75 | 12 | 5 | 103 |
| 1916 | Not | | 176 | 31 | 54 | 128 |
| 1917 | | | 176 | 66 | 88 | 79 |
| 1918 | Available | | 75 | 48 | 85 | 20 |
| 1919 | | | 83 | 43 | 61 | 20 |
| 1920 | Until | | 52 | 75 | 43 | 25 |
| 1921 | | | 174 | 70 | 77 | 28 |
| 1922 | 1925 | | 244 | 85 | 85 | 28 |
| 1923 | | | 193 | 60 | 85 | 25 |
| 1924 | | | 177 | 46 | 72 | 17 |
| 1925 | 131 | 0 | 268 | 65 | 54 | 14 |
| 1926 | 173 | 0 | 169 | 63 | 78 | 4 |
| 1927 | 127 | 0 | 180 | 50 | 70 | 0 |
| 1928 | 137 | 0 | 174 | 55 | 65 | 3 |
| 1929 | 172 | 0 | 162 | 44 | 16 | 2 |
| 1930 | 100 | 45 | 139 | 39 | 45 | 1 |
| 1931 | 119 | 50 | 172 | 68 | 41 | 0 |
| 1932 | 192 | 56 | 197 | 49 | 14 | 9 |
| 1933 | 210 | 40 | 98 | 44 | 12 | 2 |

Continued ....

TABLE 4 (Continued)

| Year | -Academic Year Course- Elementary (Interim) | Specialists (Interim) | Summer School Course Elementary (Interim) | Supervisor (Interim) | Specialists (Interim) | Pro Tanto[a] Elementary (Interim) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1934 | No statistics listed | | | | | |
| 1935 | 109 | 37 | 145 | 19 | 36 | 0 |
| 1936 | 114 | 0 | 110 | 13 | 66 | 0 |
| 1937 | 93 | 0 | 86 | 34 | 68 | 0 |
| 1938 | 52 | 0 | 62 | 33 | 50 | 0 |
| 1939 | 73 | 32 | 101 | 45 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 1802 | 260 | 2,467 | 1,240 | 1,273 | 512 |

Source: Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1914-1939. [a]Pro tanto meant "in favour of standing" or something equivalent to a contempoary "letter of permission."

very real possibility. The only total in the academic year course which is truly indicative of the number of teachers who were certificated is the total of 1,802 recipients of the elementary certificate. The summer school certificate figures are much more difficult to interpret. For example, it can be stated that the supervisor certificate recipients were elementary school teachers who may have wished simply to upgrade their qualifications to teach the subject. 1,273 secondary school teachers were trained in the course of instruction. The problem is centred in the summer school elementary certificate recipients. It is impossible to determine how many of these were secondary school teachers and how many were elementary school teachers. The same is true for those granted the elementary certificate without actually taking the course (pro tanto); they might have been either secondary or elementary school teachers, or both. It is significant to note, in reference to the "pro tanto" recipients that very few certificates were issued after 1925 and that the numbers actually declined rapidly after World War One. This is understood to mean that the summer school course and the academic year course adequately covered the need for trained teachers in physical culture in the secondary schools after 1925, if not after 1918.

The course description given for the first year that the certificate courses were created is paraphrased as follows:

First Course:
Academic Work: anatomy and physiology (bones, muscles, circulatory system, digestive system); first aid to the injured.

Practical Work:
Men: (a) cadet corps instructors course.
(b) calisthenics with dumbbells, wands.
(c) elementary exercises on the vaulting horse, mats, vaulting bar.
(d) indoor games: basketball, indoor baseball, volleyball.
(e) outdoor athletics to enable teachers to coach and run track and field meets.
Women: (a) squad drill in basic marching formations.
(b) basic and fancy steps - rhythmical balancing exercises.
(c) free hand exercises including Strathcona exercises, dumbbells, wands and clubs.
(d) exercises on gymnastic apparatus such as the vaulting horse, mats, vaulting bar.
(e) indoor athletic sports - running races, school room games.

Second Course:
Academic Work: hygiene and sanitation; physiology and exercise; anthropometry; bodybuilding; corrective work.

Practical Work:
Men: (a) calisthenics of the first year.
(b) more gymnastic apparatus exercises.
(c) corrective exercises.
(d) outdoor games - lacrosse, hockey, rugby, soccer, baseball.
(e) swimming, including life-saving methods and Schafer method of resuscitation.
(f) boxing and single sticks.

Women: (a) calisthenics with wands, dumbbells and clubs.
(b) folk dances.
(c) figure marching.
(d) athletic games to enable teachers to coach and referee basketball, indoor baseball and volleyball.
(e) fencing.
(f) swimming.[241]

It is very possible that Barton and Coventry collaborated to initiate this summer certification programme under the advice of the Department of Education. It was a period when in-service training, through summer courses, was being developed by the Department with the courses being free of charge.[242] The books listed for reference for the 1913 summer course in physical culture included the 1911 Syllabus, Barton's own book, a text on swimming, a handbook of rhythmical, balance exercises and a book of folk dances, the last three of which were published in the United States.[243] The course description would indicate that the Strathcona syllabus exercises were given, at best, cursory treatment in the summer school course. It was intended that teachers would be able to take only the first course or the second course, but there were instances when teachers managed to take both parts. Miss Greta M. Crowe of the Galt Collegiate Institute did just that in 1916 and received very good marks in both courses. It took her three years to persuade the Deputy Minister of Education to grant her

specialist's standing.[244]

Few descriptions were found relating to course changes within the secondary school certification programme. The early summer courses were based on the diploma course outlines described in the Calendar of the University of Toronto. It is reasonable to assume that since the same instructors who arranged the diploma course were probably the ones who taught the summer course, that the courses were very similar. Therefore, the certificate courses tended to incorporate a core of calisthenic or flexibility exercises, apparatus gymnastics, games and sports and swimming with a heavier emphasis on sports as the years progressed.[245] This course content is verified by the outline of a refresher course held at the Ontario Athletic Commission camp from July 2 to July 16, 1938 which was "... open to any male teacher who holds a Specialist's or Supervisor's certificate in Physical Education, and who is teaching in a secondary school or in a fifth book class in the elementary school."[246] The content of the course was gymnastics and team games such as rugby, soccer, hockey and volleyball and track and field athletics. A minimal fee of fifteen dollars was charged to attend the Lake Couchiching camp, and:

> At the conclusion of the course the Department of Education will issue a letter of attendance to each person who, in the opinion of the

staff, has profited from the course.[247]

By 1938, the certificate system for secondary school teachers was still in effect and the Department of Education was concerned enough to organize a summer course in the subject. There was no physical education degree granting institution established until after 1939.[248]

The important point is that two different streams of teacher education in physical training were firmly established during the period under discussion. The Department of Education certified its secondary school teachers through its own programme while the Militia Department controlled the certification of elementary school teachers. The Education Department never took measures to establish its own teacher training programme in the elementary schools. It is suggested, therefore, that when the Strathcona system was reorganized to concentrate on cadet training only, sometime after 1950, that the elementary schools suffered the brunt of having no physical training system to replace it. The Strathcona Trust was established to encourage physical training in the schools. In reality, the Trust, and the efforts and work of the Militia Department and the Ontario Committee of the Strathcona Trust, ran the programme in the elementary schools and normal schools

from 1911 to 1939.

In the Schools

In keeping with the terms of the Strathcona Trust and with the early provision of the 1911 Syllabus, the regulations of the course of study in physical culture in the public schools in 1911, stated,

> Special attention shall be given to classroom exercises. The unconstrained but suitable position of the pupils in walking, in their seats, and on the floor should receive due attention ....
>
> Note - The Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Public Elementary Schools, which the Minister has authorized, and a copy of which will be supplied to each School Library, shall form the basis of the course in Physical Culture.[249]

School games and free play were to be extra-curricular. By 1924, under the influence of the 1919 Syllabus, the regulations changed:

> In securing proper physical development, the main emphasis should be placed upon organized games, properly directed and supervised ... for more formal training, the teacher should be guided by the "Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919." These exercises should frequently be taken in the classroom with windows open, as a relief from the fatigue of the regular school routine.[250]

The influence of the Strathcona system on promoting and

encouraging physical training in the schools was immediate and direct particularly with regard to the number of pupils taking the subject.[251] An examination of Appendix H shows that physical culture courses attracted approximately two-thirds of the students registered in a more conventional subject such as English composition, in 1909. Prior to 1913, the city schools were maintaining programmes of drill and calisthenics, at the teachers' discretion, but the village and rural schools were not reaching all of the students in physical training. By 1913, this situation had changed dramatically in all school districts. The time accorded to physical training certainly must have been a lot less than that scheduled for English composition in the time table of the schools. However, from 1913 to 1933,[252] physical training, according to the Minister's Reports, was taught to all students even in the rural and village schools. The change in 1913 is attributed to the distribution of the 1911 Syllabus, not to teacher qualification in the Strathcona system because few normal school students had had a chance to infuse their training. The maintenance of the number of students taking the course is probably related to the newly trained teachers who entered the profession in the ensuing years, as well as to the revision of the syllabuses.

In 1913, public school inspectors, such as W.H.G. Colles, informed their schools of the Ontario Strathcona competition system. In East Kent, the contests in physical training, in that year, were judged on

> ... any 40 exercises, as may be best suited to the age and condition of each class, taken from the Strathcona Syllabus of Physical Exercises, the more difficult exercises receiving the higher credit. The books may be procured from the T. Eaton Co., Toronto, for 25 cents.[253]

Colles notified his teachers further that physical exercises, according to the Syllabus, were to be taught in all schools.[254] Some problems related to school conditions themselves prevented instruction in some of the exercises in the schools:

> The seventh group in each table, however, which has a most beneficial effect upon the circulation, respiration and muscular control has to be omitted in the classrooms, owing to the effects which the marching, running and fancy steps have upon the second and third floors of the school buildings.[255]

Gymnasia were still few and far between in the public schools during this period. Even in Toronto, in 1920, only three out of forty-nine public schools west of Yonge Street had gymnasia:

> Glenholme and John Ross Robertson have a gymnasium with four showers in connection, but otherwise without

> equipment. Keele Street School has a gymnasium in what was originally intended to be a swimming pool; the equipment was not yet installed at the time of my visit. Carlton School has a swimming pool. Seven other schools have an indoor basketball court in a basement room. In the other 38 schools there is no pretence of anything like a gymnasium.[256]

Most classes in physical training, certainly those in the rural schools, were restricted to the classroom, or to the playgrounds in fair weather.

Some cities, such as Toronto, held large gatherings for the Strathcona competitions. In 1914, some fifty-two teams qualified from district competitions, by age groups, to enter the final competitions.[257] It was common for one thousand pupils to participate in the contests normally held in the Arena Gardens during the war years in Toronto.[258] The physical training programme in the schools of Toronto varied only with the syllabuses.

The first person to take any initiative in altering or improving upon the public school course in physical training was Mr. F.T. Bartlett, appointed in 1931 as director of physical education for the schools, public and secondary, of Toronto:

> Mr. Bartlett brought entirely new conceptions of physical education

> to the Toronto schools. In place of the stiff, formal Strathcona exercises, he introduced "play gymnastics" and rhythmic forms. He did not hesitate to recognize authorities like Mr. Madsen, the exponent of the Niels Bukh school of Danish gymnastics. A new curriculum was drawn up for the province, which included a system of medical examination for all students. Displays were given from time to time at Exhibition Park or Maple Leaf Gardens. Perhaps Mr. Bartlett's most enduring contribution, however, was in instituting a rhythmic programme for all elementary grades, with suitable music recorded by his assistant, Miss Marjorie Moore.[259]

Yet, all Bartlett really did was anticipate the 1933 Syllabus which was based upon the Danish system of rhythmical exercises.

Ottawa schools held their Strathcona competitions in Lansdowne Park beginning in 1913.[260] The schools were grouped for competition by the number of class rooms contained in each school, thereby making the final competitions truly representative of the Ottawa schools. The Lansdowne exhibitions were regulated by the syllabuses, as was indicated by the report of the contests in 1922.

> This was our first display with the new physical training. Those who had seen our previous exhibitions with the old physical training must have been delighted with the change. The amount of action that is put into one of these lessons is a revelation to the onlookers.[261]

and in 1932, in a new location:

> Some smart physical training and pyramid building were seen in the competition held in the Gloshan and Kent Street gymnasiums on March 23rd.[262]

The 1934 display of 1,010 students at Lansdowne Park was two hours in length and consisted of an exhibition of play gymnastics by some one hundred boys, rhythmic dancing by three hundred and fifty girls under Miss F. Jamieson, and a display of Danish physical exercises by some five hundred and forty girls under their own physical instructresses.[263] Once again, the syllabuses seemed to dictate the nature of the physical training learned in the public schools. The actual school physical training sessions in Ottawa public schools around 1933 was described in the following passage:

> The elementary schools are still carrying on with the Strathcona physical exercises. All teachers give about ten minutes in the morning and about five minutes in the afternoon at this work, and also one lesson per week of thirty minutes is taught in the gymnasiums ....[264]

A very small percentage of time was devoted to physical training in the Ottawa schools. One researcher in 1919 noted that the percentage of time given over to physical training in the Ottawa public schools varied from five and a half per cent in the lower grades to four per cent in the higher grades.[265] Although the time

devoted to physical training varied from school to school, the subject was taught in all of the public schools as a direct result of the Strathcona Trust.

The major problem of conducting the Strathcona exercises in the public schools during this time period was the lack of gymnasia. Some schools in the larger cities had gymnasia by the 1930's. However, most schools, certainly all rural schools, were limited to exercises in the classroom. It is impossible to interpret either the quality or the amount of instruction under the Strathcona system. Some schools may well have "fudged" their programmes annually to prepare for the Strathcona competitions and virtually ignored physical training until the visit of the inspector. One thing is certain, the Strathcona competitions were held in Ontario during this period.[266] Whatever impetus they provided to the public schools would have been of benefit to the pupils just from the standpoint of engaging in some form of physical exercise. Just as teacher training changed with the revisions of the syllabuses, so too did the school physical training programmes which could progress no faster than their professional instruction. By the mid to late 1930's sports and games, prompted by the 1933 Syllabus and the new teachers trained along the guidelines of that manual, were beginning to

be encouraged as genuine, curricular aspects of the regular course of physical training:

> A definite attempt is being made in our schools to provide games and exercises that relate to activities in which the pupils take part outside of school hours. Our object now is to link our work up with other parts of the school programme and to teach the things which provide a suitable outlet for the abundant energy of the average child.[267]

It was the Strathcona Trust, through its public school teacher training programme, which brought the elementary schools from drill and calisthenics in 1909 to vigorous exercises and games in 1939.

The secondary schools, just prior to the war, were progressing in the construction of gymnasia, particularly the collegiate institutes. Some thirty-seven of the province's forty-four collegiate institutes had built gymnasia of some description by 1914.[268] The value of these gymnasia varied from around eight hundred dollars in smaller towns, such as Napanee, Clinton and Ingersoll, to 10,000 dollars in large urban centres such as Niagara Falls, Brantford and Toronto.[269] High schools in towns such as Aylmer, Sudbury, Mitchell, Kincardine and Meaford were also equipped with small gymnasia in 1914.[270] Where secondary schools had no gymnasia they used an assembly hall or an auditorium, or

even halls and corridors for physical training classes. In addition, almost all secondary schools were listed as having gymnasium equipment varying from indian clubs, wands, dumbbells, basketballs, soccer and volleyballs to more expensive heavy gymnastic apparatus in the larger collegiate institutes.[271] These facilities were a reflection more of the tendency to improve school conditions in order to receive a larger government grant as well as more of a response to the equipment needs for extra-curricular sports than any particular strong desire to ameliorate the physical training programme.[272] However, the older gymnasia were constructed more to cater to a physical training, exercise programme than to games such as basketball. The gymnasium at the Ottawa Collegiate Institute contained pillars near the side walls, had a very low ceiling, no lines on the floor and was set up with rings, wall pulleys, small dumbbells, mats, parallel bars, a vaulting horse and a high bar.[273] As new secondary schools were built in the 1920's, they incorporated gymnasia.[274]

The 1911 Syllabus provided the initial impact to the programme of physical training in the secondary schools. Reference to Appendix I shows that few high school students were registered in physical culture in 1909 relative to those enrolled in English composition.

By 1913 almost all high school students were receiving some physical training, and from 1916 through 1927 an equivalent number were enrolled in both branches of instruction. The change in the collegiate institutes, in terms of number of students taking the course was less spectacular between 1909 and 1916. More students were taking physical training in 1909 in the collegiate institutes due to the better, indoor facilities in those schools. However, just as in the high schools, parallel numbersof students were registered in both English composition and physical training between 1916 and 1927. Teachers had begun to take the Department of Education's certificate courses in 1914, some with pro tanto standing.[275] These teachers,[276] combined with the initial free distribution of the 1911 Syllabus to the secondary schools, provided the inspiration for the rapid growth of the secondary school physical training programme.

The programme in the secondary schools was unevenly distributed among the grade levels. Between 1915 and 1932, physical training was offered more frequently in the lower school, three times per week, than in the middle school, twice per week, or in the upper school, once per week.[277] The implication is that physical training was seen as essential, but not when it inter-

fered with the more serious upper school academic courses and examinations. The secondary school authorities always seemed to be able to adapt their programmes as they desired:

> The new directions of 1913 which permitted the principal to substitute for not more than half the time prescribed for Physical Culture suitable sports and games led to some curious interpretations. Many of the principals arranged a schedule which gave all of September and October, May and June, to games, and the rest of the school year to Physical Culture. These principals had entirely failed to understand the objects and results of regular physical exercises, carried on in organized classes every week of the year. No one maintains that physical exercises are an adequate substitute for sports or that formal exercises can even supply the place of exercises prompted by nature, but a proper blending of the two forms of exercises seems to be the ideal system.[278]

It is important to point out in connection to the above passage, extracted from Inspector Wetherell's 1914 report, that sports were being positively sanctioned in the physical training programme of the secondary schools as early as 1913. Inspector Spotton reported, in the same year, that a teacher applying for a position at one of his secondary schools in eastern Ontario had a decided advantage if he held the summer school qualification to teach physical training.[279] The programme in the secondary schools was farther advanced than the elementary

schools' programme in 1915, in terms of variety and availability of facilities and equipment, due to the difference of teacher training and the presence of gymnasia. In schools where equipment and indoor facilities were either lacking or limited in quality, the programme suffered:

> This is due to a variety of causes; lack of interest on the part of teachers, lack of equipment such as dumb-bells, wands or Indian clubs, or a feeling that the examination subjects are of more importance. In some of the Collegiate Institutes, the work on the apparatus in the gymnasium is not well systematized, or the classes are too large to be properly handled, and I have found schools where the upper school pupils were being practically exempted from physical training.[280]

It was possible, therefore, for a principal to list students as enrolled in physical training and yet to exempt some of the students in upper school.[281]

There were more conscientious principals, at the other extreme, who did their best to squeeze physical training into the crowded secondary school curriculum. One of these was Mr. T.A. Kirkconnell, principal of Lindsay Collegiate Institute, 1908 to 1930, who stated in 1917:

> I am arranging a time-table to give each group a full half-hour every day in physical training. The time is obtained by dropping the morning recess and making all of the morning periods

> straight half hours. This should make for physical upbuilding, and if that follows, the mental part will not be lacking, and there will be fewer breakdowns about examination time.[282]

In general, the physical training programme was systematized in the secondary schools during the war period. In 1916, it could be stated:

> Ten years ago not one high school in ten had any regular organization for bodily exercise, and even in the Collegiate Institutes the exercises were often of a merely nominal and perfunctory kind. About seven years ago the course was made virtually obligatory in all High Schools, and about five years ago the teachers in Physical Culture began to receive special training in summer classes.[283]

The programme in the secondary schools around 1921 consisted of free calisthenics, work with dumbbells, wands and indian clubs, folk dances and apparatus work. In addition, "... special efforts are made to interest pupils in games and sports."[284] Doubtlessly, it required little "effort" to encourage students to participate in games and sports over the more formal exercises. Physical training was obligatory in the secondary schools, as it was in the elementary schools, in 1921.[285] Males and females took physical training classes separately in the early 1920's and half of these classes were to be given over to sports and games, the other half to calisthenics, apparatus exercises, except in the high schools having no

gymnasium, and folk dances for girls.[286] Apparatus such as horizontal bars, parallel bars, rings, balance beam, dumbbells, wands, indian clubs, mats, climbing ropes and a basketball, indoor baseball and a volleyball, thus justifying the heavy gymnastic content of the summer teachers' courses, were listed as compulsory equipment in 1922.[287] Swimming instruction was also to be provided where possible because "... the courses for teachers' certificates in Physical Culture now include swimming."[288] By 1928, first aid and swimming (land drill, practice in the water and life saving) were recommended as suitable additions to this same course of instruction.[289] The course in the schools progressed only slightly behind teacher instruction. The essential difference between the boys and girls programmes at this time was that girls spent more time doing calisthenics and learning folk dances than heavy apparatus work. In content, the physical training instruction in the secondary schools changed very little between 1928 and 1935.[290] Sports and games were always emphasized as being important aspects of the programme.

Few schools were built during the depression and consequently gymnasia improved very little during the 1930's. As more schools were constructed, the gymnasia reflected the increased attention on curricular,

and extra-curricular, sports and games. In the small community of Elmira, a new high school was erected in 1938 to accommodate three hundred students:

> Then there is the gymnasium, two storeys high with a floor space of 48 X 70 feet with a stage 16 X 48 feet at the western end. This auditorium has a capacity for 500 persons. It has a polished maple floor, marked for basketball and three badminton courts. There are two overhead galleries and a splendid wooden, sound-proof ceiling, and haydite walls trimmed with brown enamelled brick.[291]

Throughout the period, then, the essential difference between the elementary and secondary school programmes in physical training was a product of better facilities in the secondary school combined with a distinctly different certification of teacher training. Public schools followed the syllabuses almost to the letter, while secondary school programmes incorporated a more varied programme of indoor and outdoor games, apparatus gymnastics in the collegiate institutes and some of the more adequately equipped high schools, and calisthenics. Both levels of education encouraged sports and games in their physical training programmes, although in the elementary schools, increasing attention on sports and games came as a result of the progressive attention of the syllabuses to these activities.

NOTES

[1]Ottawa Public Schools, Inspector's Annual Report, 1922, p. 48.

[2]See, M.L. Van Vliet, ed., Physical Education in Canada (Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1965), p. 5, 55 and 127. While Cosentino and Howell spend some sixteen pages, or over one-fifth of their text, on the Strathcona Trust, F. Cosentino and M.L. Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada (Don Mills, Ontario: General Publishing Company Limited, 1971), pp. 26-41, the treatment is cursory and tends to imply that the influence of the Trust ceased in 1920.

[3]W.F.R. Kennedy, "Health, Physical Education and Recreation in Canada: A History of Professional Preparation" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1955), p. 39. The traumatic effect which Kennedy mentioned was in connection with teacher training. See also, J.T. West, "Physical Fitness, Sport and The Federal Government 1909 to 1954," Canadian Journal of History of Sport and Physical Education, Vol. 4, No. 2 (December, 1973), p. 30. West concluded that the Strathcona Trust "can be seen as a program primarily designed to use physical drill for instilling patriotism. Despite its shortcomings, it represented, for most of the provinces, a beginning in providing trained personnel for physical education programmes." West's inferences seem to emphasize the negative aspects of the Trust without any real justification for such an analysis.

[4]J. McDiarmid, "The Strathcona Trust - Its Influence on Physical Education." Proceedings of the First Canadian Symposium on the History of Sport and Physical Education (University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, May 13-16, 1970), pp. 395-413.

[5]G. Redmond, "Apart From the Trust Fund; Some Other Contributions of Lord Strathcona to Canadian Recreation and Sport," Canadian Journal of History of Sport and Physical Education, Vol. 4, No. 2 (December, 1973), pp. 59-69.

[6]L.W. Sawula, "Notes on the Strathcona Trust," Canadian Journal of History of Sport and Physical Education, Vol. 5, No. 1 (May, 1974), pp. 56-61.

[7]Ibid., p. 61.

[8]McDiarmid, "The Strathcona Trust - Its Influence on Physical Education," p. 412. Cited also in, Redmond, "Apart From the Trust Fund," p. 69. There have been several provincial histories of physical education written, including one for Ontario. See, H.W. Copp, "The History of Physical Education and Health in the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Ontario Canada" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Michigan, 1933); and S. Gill, "A History of Physical Education in New Brunswick Schools" (unpublished M.Sc. thesis, University of Maine, 1963). However, these tend to be very general studies. In addition, Copp's treatment is not only broad in scope, but often mistaken in fact. For example, in his brief discussion of the "Strathcona Award," he notes that "five million dollars was ... set aside by Lord Strathcona in 1909." Copp, "The History of Physical Education and Health in the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Ontario Canada," p. 47. Gill's history is well written and his inferences concerning the importance of the Trust are enlightening. He said, concerning the monetary donation annually, that it was an important means of financing physical education programmes but that "the far-reaching influence which the Trust had in stimulating interest in physical education throughout the province was probably more important." Gill, "A History of Physical Education in New Brunswick Schools," p. 28. This stimulation of interest was also a very important outcome of the Strathcona Trust in Ontario.

[9]Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada Yearbook, 1946, p. 111. The rural and urban population in the census years 1911 through 1941 was as follows:

| | Rural | Urban | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1911 | 1,198,803 | 1,328,489 | 2,527,292 |
| 1921 | 1,227,030 | 2,933,662 | 2,933,632 |
| 1931 | 1,335,691 | 2,095,992 | 2,095,992 |
| 1941 | 1,449,022 | 2,338,633 | 3,787,655 |

Urban inhabitants were defined as the number of people residing in cities, towns and incorporated villages. Ibid., p. 110.

[10]C.E. Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada (Toronto: W.J. Gage and Company Limited, 1957), p. 226. Major changes were few, but, "There was a striking development of vocational education. In the period between the two great wars, the number of pupils in vocational schools and courses increased from a negligible

proportion to thirty per cent of the total secondary school enrolment. New school services included free textbooks, medical and dental inspection, and transportation to school." Ibid.

[11]J.M.S. Careless, Canada: A Story of Challenge (Third ed.; Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1970), p. 315.

[12]Ibid., pp. 320-326. According to Careless, Laurier "... had sought to avoid commitments" in matters of imperial defence. Ibid., p. 325.

[13]Ibid., p. 326.

[14]W.L. Morton, The Kingdom of Canada (Third ed.; Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1972), p. 397.

[15]The foregoing background information pertaining to Borden was extracted from, Encyclopedia Canadiana, 1970, Vol. 2, p. 21, and, O.D. Skelton, Life and Letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Vol. 2 (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1921), p. 11. Sir Frederick W. Borden was a cousin of Rt. Hon. Sir Robert Laird Borden, Canada's Conservative Prime Minister, 1911-1920.

[16]J.G. Hodgins, The Establishment of Schools and Colleges in Ontario, 1792-1910, Vol. 3 (Toronto: Printed and Published by L.K. Cameron, 1910), pp. 405-406.

[17]Ibid., p. 405.

[18]Ibid.

[19]Ibid., p. 406. Hodgins does not make it clear as to the source of the fifty dollar grant. That is, there is some question about whether the money came from the coffers of the Education Department or the Militia Department. The writer's interpretation is that it probably came out of education funds since the Militia Department supplied the necessary equipment and offered to train teachers too.

[20]See, supra, chapter II, pp. 50-52.

[21]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1910, pp. 167-169.

[22]Ibid., 1911, p. 250. The sanction for the military classes in the public schools was provided in section 74 of the 1909 Public Schools Act, according to

the Minister's 1911 Report.

[23]See, infra, pp. 198-214.

[24]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1900, xlii-xliii. The events of the war in South Africa and the death of Queen Victoria were causes for reflection and nostalgia in imperial patriotism. Through Empire Day, Harcourt hoped to remind youth annually of "love for British institutions." Ibid.

[25]J.A. Morris, Prescott 1810-1967 (Prescott: St. Lawrence Printing Company, 1967), p. 77.

[26]Ibid.

[27]K. Beattie, Ridley: The Story of a School, Vol. 1 (St. Catherines: Ridley College, 1962), p. 280.

[28]For example, Colonel Peters, of the military district embracing southwestern Ontario, wrote Borden a letter on November 4, 1905 congratulating the Minister for his success in this regard. See, Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Select Files, 1885-1913, Box No. 38, Code Number LIII, Military Training in Schools, Cadet Corps, LII, Military Training No. 6. The letter was five pages long and described the cadet corps work in the London area. Col. Peters noted especially that the best effect of cadet corps work was national readiness.

[29]See, chapter III, supra, p. 155.

[30]Beattie, Ridley: The Story of a School, p. 318.

[31]Ibid., p. 320.

[32]Acts of the Department of Education, Province of Ontario Passed During the Session of 1909. Printed by Order of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario (Toronto: L.K. Cameron, 1909), p. 17.

[33]Ibid., p. 99, underlining mine. It is worthwhile noting that even at this early date, financial grants created to encourage sports and games were much larger for secondary than elementary institutions. The use of the word "athletics" in this passage probably means track and field athletics.

[34]See, supra, pp. 89-92.

[35]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1911, pp. 202-203. Financial grants for gymnasia based on the total value of the gymnasia were awarded on the basis of a percentage of that value system. Ibid., p. 203. The exact nature of this percentage system was not indicated.

[36]See, supra, pp. 96-97.

[37]As explained in the previous chapter, many schools, especially in the urban areas, were providing programmes in "gymnastics," drill and calisthenics. However, the subject was not compulsory and little effort was made in developing the programme.

[38]The Canadian Magazine, Vol. 14, November-April, 1899-1900, p. 530.

[39]Ibid., brackets mine. The author of the article was of the opinion that the Strathcona Horse was composed of and reputed to be the finest soldiers and horses in the Dominion. The story of the formation and embarkment of the contingent is contained in, ibid., pp. 529-542.

[40]Redmond, "Apart From the Trust Fund," p. 65.

[41]Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, "Imperialism and the Unity of the Empire," A Rectorial Address before the Students of the University of Aberdeen, December 18, 1900 (London: McCorquodale and Co., Ltd., no date listed), p. 21.

[42]Public Archives of Canada, Strathcona Papers, M.G. 29, Series D, 14, Vol. 24 - Additional, Letter - February 3, 1909, Borden to Strathcona. Cited also in Sawula, "Notes on the Strathcona Trust," p. 57.

[43]Ibid., Letter - March 29, 1909, Borden to Strathcona. Apparently, Strathcona wished to remain an anonymous donator, but Borden convinced him otherwise. Sawula suggests that the title of the Trust is "a misnomer" and that the title might more properly read, the "Borden Trust." See, Sawula, "Notes on the Strathcona Trust," p. 56. Tradition holds that public donations are most frequently credited to the monetary source by naming the programme, or the building, or the project as the case may be, after the benefactor. The point is that proper credit is due to Borden for formulating and carrying

out the terms of the Strathcona Trust.

[44]Canada, Parliament, Debates of the House of Commons, Vol. 90, 1909, p. 3200.

[45]Ibid., p. 3198.

[46]Strathcona Papers, M.G. 29, Series D, 14, Vol. 24 - Additional, Letter - March 13, 1909, Strathcona to Borden.

[47]See, Sawula, "Notes on the Strathcona Trust," p. 57.

[48]Debates of the House of Commons, Vol. 90, 1909, pp. 3200-3201. Laurier went on to move, seconded by Mr. R.L. Borden: "That the thanks of the House of Commons and the people of Canada are hereby tendered to Lord Strathcona for his letter to the Minister of Militia just communicated to the House." The motion was agreed to by the members. Ibid., p. 3201.

[49]See, Constitution of the Strathcona Trust for the Encouragement of Physical and Military Training in Public Schools, 1909, in Appendix K.

[50]Strathcona remarked to Borden in a letter of March 18, 1909: "While I attach the highest importance to the advantages of physical training and elementary drill for all children of both sexes, I am particularly anxious that the especial value of military drill, including rifle shooting for boys capable of using rifles, should be constantly born [sic] in mind." Strathcona Papers, M.G. 29, Series D, 14, Vol. 24 - Additional, Letter - March 18, 1909, Strathcona to Borden.

[51]The Globe, April 15, 1909.

[52]See, ibid., April 14 and 15, 1909.

[53]L.T. Spalding, ed., The History and Romance of Education (Hamilton) 1816-1950 (Hamilton, no publisher listed, 1950), p. 34.

[54]Strathcona Papers, M.G. 29, Series D, 14, Vol. 24 - Additional, Letter - April 17, 1909, Strathcona to Borden. In an earlier letter Strathcona pointed out to Borden that "... it was far from my thought or desire that the suggestion should have received so much pub-

licity, and ... I never imagined for a moment that the subject would have been discussed in Parliament .... I am not less gratified than you must be at the enthusiasm which the proposals of the Government for the education of children in physical and military training, including the use of the rifle, seem to have aroused both at Ottawa, and in the different Provinces of the Dominion." Ibid., Letter - March 27, 1909, Strathcona to Borden.

[55]See especially, ibid., Letter - March 13, 1909, Strathcona to Borden, and, Letter - April 24, 1909, Strathcona to Borden.

[56]Ibid., Letter - April 24, 1909, Strathcona to Borden.

[57]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1911, p. 254.

[58]E.A. Hardy and H.M. Cochrane, eds., Centennial Story: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto 1850-1950 (Toronto: Thomas and Nelson and Sons, Canada, Limited, 1950), p. 281.

[59]Ibid.

[60]The Globe, November 14, 1910.

[61]Ibid.

[62]Ibid., underlining mine. The double meaning which could be interpreted from the word "uniform" was probably not intended.

[63]The exact membership of the Executive Council is outlined on the first page of the Constitution of the Strathcona Trust in Appendix K.

[64]See, Appendix K.

[65]Ibid.

[66]The designated members and their duties were also outlined in the Constitution of the Strathcona Trust. See, Appendix K.

[67]Department of National Defence, Ottawa, Uncatalogued Files Pertaining to the Strathcona Trust, File D 7332-3. The Executive Council met three times in 1909, three times in 1910, once in 1911, once in 1913 and once in 1921.

[68]Ibid., File D 7332-2.

[69]Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 8.

[70]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-2.

[71]First Annual Report of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust for the Encouragement of Physical and Military Training in Public Schools, Covering the period from April 5, 1909 to June 30, 1910 (Ottawa: James Hope and Sons, Printers, 1910), p. 11.

[72]Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 19.

[73]Ibid. See also, The Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs, 1909, p. 280. While the essays were marked only by mottoes and the corresponding names were kept in sealed envelopes to insure confidentiality, it is surprising that first and last prizes went to the "founding" province of Nova Scotia and that other areas of the Dominion, namely, Toronto, Edmonton, Ottawa and Saskatoon, in that order, were so well represented. Of general interest to educational historians is the fact that Mr. J.H. Putman, at that time English master at the Ottawa Normal School, won the fourth prize of seventy-five dollars.

[74]First Annual Report of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust, p. 11. Neither the content or the application of the ideas presented in the essays were indicated.

[75]Ibid., pp. 8-9, and, Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 12.

[76]Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 12. "The rewards to teachers for physical training should be large enough to arouse interest. It was thought, however, that the maximum value of any one reward should not exceed fifty dollars." Ibid., p. 13. Fifty dollars was an enormous figure in relation to provincial grants, the largest of which never exceeded 7,607 dollars. The Ontario Committee, for one, was to take particular exception to this teacher emphasis.

[77] First Annual Report of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust, p. 15, underlining mine.

[78] Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 9. The following payments were provided for the instruction of cadets: "One dollar per cadet for the first fifty cadets; 75¢ per cadet for all over fifty and up to one hundred and 50¢ for all over one hundred and up the [sic] one hundred and twenty-five." Obviously, this bonus system provided a good inducement for teachers to qualify themselves to instruct cadet corps.

[79] First Annual Report of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust, p. 15.

[80] Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 13.

[81] Ibid., p. 24. The Council, in so doing, was allowing for possible heterogeneous conditions in each province.

[82] Ibid., p. 26.

[83] See, infra, pp. 209-213.

[84] Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-3, Vol. 1

[85] Ibid., File D 7332-3, Vol. 2.

[86] Ibid. The idea behind this physical training college proposal was a forerunner concept of modern faculties of physical education.

[87] Ibid., File D 7332-1. The accounts were held by the Bank of Montreal in Ottawa and were numbered 1292 and 1175. The latter was for the secondary fund. The account books for these two accounts for the periods 1930-1937 and 1930-1940 respectively, still exist. See, ibid., File D 7332-5.

[88] Second Annual Report of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust For the Encouragement of Physical and Military Training in Public Schools, Covering the period from July 1st, 1910, to June 30th, 1912 (Ottawa: James Hope and Sons, Printers, 1913), pp. 12-13. The secondary fund was also used in 1911-1912 to cover the costs of printing the English and French editions of the Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools. The Executive Council

paid the Copp, Clarke Co. almost 4,400 dollars to print the English edition and some 1,600 dollars to publish the French translation. In addition there were freight, distribution and translating expenses to cover in those same years. Ibid. Because of these expenses the interest accrued from the remaining amount allowed for only meagre allotments to the local committees.

[89]See, supra, chapter III, pp. 100-104.

[90]The Globe, April 21, 1909.

[91]Toronto Daily Star, March 29, 1909.

[92]He continued to be a member of the Ontario Committee until 1934.

[93]Miller obtained this data courtesy of L.R. LaFlèche, Deputy Minister, Department of National Defence, 1938. Most of the amounts were verified from Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files. However, some years were missing from these files in which case Miller's figures were taken as accurate. The total figure for the thirty year period is calculated to be $188,788.57, a significant contribution toward the encouragement of physical and military training.

[94]This decision was made during the first meeting of the Ontario Committee held in Toronto, December 6, 1910. Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-0031/7, Vol. 1. The book was the, Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, Published by the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust (Toronto: The Copp, Clark Company, Limited, 1911).

[95]See, infra, pp. 215-220.

[96]Proceedings of the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, 1909-1910, p. 37.

[97]The scheme was devised by the Ontario Committee during the year 1911-1912 and was outlined as follows:

(a) That a standing committee on Physical Training be appointed by the Teachers' Institute [the term th[illegible]d to denote professional development meetings] in e[illegible] inspectoral district, of which the inspector shall be the convener. (At least one Separate School representative should be on the committee, if possible.)

(b) That a special prize or trophy be offered for the best class in the county or city.

(c) That two prizes, first and second, be offered for

the best classes in each township.

(d) That cities may be divided into districts, and prizes be given for each district.

(e) That a medal or trophy be awarded to the teacher of the class or school winning first prize in a county, township, city or district competition.

(f) That the judges in competitions in Physical Training be appointed by the Standing Committee of the county or city Teacher's Institute. No person connected, either as trustee or teacher, with the schools taking part in the competition shall be a judge.

(g) That county and township competitions for trophies should be conducted in connection with the county and township fairs.

(h) That the competitions each year be based on the portions of the authorized text-book on Physical Training selected by the Local Committee of the Strathcona Trust for the Province.

(i) That in addition to the trophies awarded for proficiency in physical exercises, prizes be awarded, on the report of the Inspectors, to the schools that reach the highest standing in the hygienic and sanitary conditions that promote most fully the health and physical development of pupils.

"Regulations Issued by the Department of Education, Toronto," Second Annual Report of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust, pp. 60-61, brackets mine. Five thousand copies of a five page circular, Ontario Department of Education, The Strathcona Trust, Instructions No. 10 1/2, October 1912 were sent out in the fall of 1912 to public school inspectors and secondary school boards advising them of this scheme regarding physical training competitions as well as giving a brief explanation of the Strathcona Trust itself and the method by which schools could attain the military training allotments. It is significant that the Ontario Committee devised the scheme to coincide with the existing educational structure. This action greatly facilitated the adoption of the Strathcona Trust in Ontario's schools.

[98]Ontario Department of Education, The Strathcona Trust, Instructions 10a, October, 1912. A copy of this document is reproduced in Appendix L. The indication in this circular was that $10,900 was allotted to Ontario for 1912. The only explanation for this figure being quoted is that the Ontario Committee intended to apply an unexpended portion from its first two grants. See, Table 1, p.

[99]Ibid., brackets mine. The percentage proportion of Ontario's total grant was divided between the elementary

and secondary schools on a 60:40 basis.

[100]Circular to Public and Separate School Inspectors, 1926, reproduced in Appendix M.

[101]Circular to High School Boards, 1920, reproduced in Appendix N.

[102]See, Appendix N.

[103]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-0031/7, Vol. 1. The members were Col. J.L. Hughes, Gen. J.J. Fotheringham, Lieut-Col. W.C. Mitchell, Major-Gen. J.H. Elmsley, Major-Gen. H.D.B. Ketchen, Brig-Gen. W.B.M. King, Brig-Gen. A.H. Bell, Mr. A.H.U. Colquhoun, Mr. F.S. Wiley and Mr. A.C. Paull, Secretary-Treasurer. It is interesting to note that not once during the period from 1909 to 1939 was a woman appointed to the Ontario Committee.

[104]See, supra, pp. 201-202.

[105]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-3, Vol. 2. This situation illustrates, by a good example, how the local committees had taken their own initiative to suit their own provincial conditions.

[106]Ibid., File D 7332-9, Vol. 4. No indication was given as to how a programme was judged to be "successful."

[107]Ibid., File D 7332-0031/7, Vol. 1.

[108]"Regulations Issued by Department of Education, Toronto," p. 60.

[109]See, supra, pp. 202-203.

[110]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, General File Containing Executive Council Reports, 1912-1920, Letter - December 26, 1914, Hughes to Panet, secretary of the Executive Council. The word "Trust" was probably intended to read "Committee," or to imply the Ontario Committee of the Strathcona Trust.

[111]Ibid., Letter - January 29, 1914, Hughes to Panet.

[112]From an examination of available documents pertaining to the Strathcona Trust which are located in the Department of National Defence and the Public Archives, Ottawa, it is concluded that the Ontario Committee was the only provincial committee to make any kind of investment. Documents were examined up to the early 1950's and the largest surplus accounts built up by any other province amounted to 2,602 dollars in Saskatchewan in 1934 and to 2,536 dollars in Alberta in 1948. Public Archives of Canada, Records of the Department of National Defence, Record Group 24, Volume 6612, File Number H.Q. 8251-1-6.

[113]Public Archives of Canada, Records of the Department of National Defence, Record Group 24, Volume 6612, File Number H.Q. 8251-1-2, Vol. 1, Letter - January 20, 1936, R.P. Brown, Financial Superintendent, Dept. of National Defence to the Judge Advocate General.

[114]Ibid., File Number H.Q. 8251-2-2-1 Apparently, the Ontario Committee experienced considerable difficulty in 1936 in collecting on the Sheldrake mortgage since the original trustees of this mortgage had all died. The Committee finally contacted an executor of J.L. Hughes' estate and arranged to have him sign a quit claim deed. The Committee then took steps, under the advice of the Executive Council, to avoid the same problem in collecting the remaining four mortgages. Present members, that is, members in the mid 1930's, of the Ontario Committee were made assignees in a new agreement with the remaining four mortgagees. Ibid.

[115]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-9, Vol. 6, Annual Report of the Ontario Committee to the Executive Council, 1936.

[116]Ibid., 1937.

[117]See, Appendix M and N circulars.

[118]For example, in 1927, instructions to the schools included: "In addition to the trophies awarded for proficiency in Physical Exercises, prizes may be awarded on the report of the Inspector to the school or schools that reach the highest standing in hygienic and sanitary conditions which promote most fully the health and physical development of the pupils." Ontario, Department of Education, Physical Training in the Public, Separate, Continuation and High Schools, and Collegiate Institutes, Instructions No. 10 1/2, September, 1927, p. 2.

[119]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-9, Vol. 6, Annual Reports of the Ontario Committee to the Executive Council, 1937-1941. The writer, for a reason(s) not stated, was allowed to examine only certain files beyond 1941. There were some indications that the income from the investments of the late 1930's was used to make or purchase films on rifle shooting and to publish the book, Physical Education in Rural Schools: A Guide to Teachers in the Development of a Programme Suited to the Needs of Rural Schools, Strathcona Trust Committee (Ontario) (Toronto: Hunter Rose Co. Ltd., 1954). Perhaps these projects required the use of the principal amounts as well as the accrued interest, since, in 1957, the Committee was only able to re-invest some 4,100 dollars in Government of Canada Bonds. Ibid., File D 7332-2, Report, Strathcona Trust Fund, August, 1957.

[120]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 580. See also, supra, chapter III, p. 124.

[121]The three others were located at Toronto, Ottawa and London. The four new ones opened in 1908.

[122]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 590.

[123]The North Bay Normal School did not hire an instructor for this branch of teacher training until some time after 1921.

[124]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1908, pp. 370-373.

[125]The instructors employed in the normal schools in 1908 were: S.J. Huggins, instructor in physical culture, Hamilton; Albert Slatter, instructor in physical culture, London; C. Emery, instructor in physical culture, Ottawa; Miss Iva J. Coventry, instructor in physical culture, Peterborough; Miss E.M. Cottle, instructor in calisthenics, Stratford; Mrs. Jean Somers, instructor in calisthenics, Toronto; and Q.M. Sergeant J.S. Legge, instructor in drill, Toronto. Ibid.

[126]The number of female to male students in attendance at the normal schools was 181 to 26 at Hamilton; 191 to 22 at London; 150 to 19 at Ottawa; 137 to 22 at Peterborough; 157 to 27 at Stratford; 205 to 12 at Toronto. Ibid.

[127]See supra, chapter III, pp. 106-113.

[128]P.C. McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800 (Second edition. London: G. Bell and Sons Ltd., 1968), p. 158.

[129]Strathcona Papers, M.G. 29, Series D, 14, Vol. 24 - Additional, Letter - January 29, 1909, Borden to provincial premiers.

[130]Ibid.

[131]E.B. Houghton, Physical Culture: First Book of Exercises in Drill, Calisthenics, and Gymnastics (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1886). See, supra, chapter III, pp. 106-113.

[132]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-1, Letter - December 7, 1933, A.G. Lewis, secretary of the Executive Council to the Chief of General Staff, Department of National Defence. The publication was, Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, Published by the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust (Toronto: The Copp, Clark Company, Limited, 1911).

[133]Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, 1911, v. The complete "Prefatory Memorandum" plus "General Directions to Teachers," the "Games" section of Appendix A, "Supplementary Physical Exercises," and complete extracts of two other appendices on "Class-Room Exercises" and "Physical Exercises for Infants" are all reproduced in, Cosentino and Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada, pp. 101-115.

[134]The writer was unable to acquire a copy of the original British publication.

[135]McIntosh reports that the original British text may not have been an original publication: "Parts of this syllabus bore a remarkable resemblance to a Handbook published some years previously which Miss E.A. Roberts had been asked by the Ling Association to write. Some people felt that the Board had been guilty of plagiarism if not actual infringement of copyright." McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800, p. 158.

[136]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-2, Box 50, Code Number LV, Physical Culture, Form letter - December 12, 1911, R.A. Pyne, Minister of

Education to secretaries of the Ontario school boards. The book was sent to most schools, although the Regulations and Course of Study of the Public Schools of the Province of Ontario, 1911 (Toronto: L.K. Cameron, 1911), p. 13, indicated that it was to be sent to all schools as did the Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1911, p. 257. However, as late as 1920, the principal of Central School in Lindsay indicated that his school never received a copy of the Syllabus, nor did the Alexander School in that same town. The irony of this oversight was that Sir Sam Hughes, the man who became Minister of Militia in 1911, was from Lindsay. Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-0031/7, Vol. 1, Letter - September 8, 1920, R. Gatis to the Strathcona Trust Committee of Ontario.

[137]The Syllabus could also be purchased through the publisher at the same cost. Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-1. Some 20,000 copies were distributed, gratis, throughout Canada in the English language and some 5,000 French translations were also disseminated free of charge. Ibid.

[138]Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, 1911, pp. 26-148.

[139]McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800, p. 159.

[140]E.W. Gerber, Innovators and Institutions in Physical Education (Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1971), pp. 155-173.

[141]Ibid. Essentially, educational gymnastics were stylized therapeutic gymnastics introduced into the schools by Hjalmar Ling. Modern educational gymnastics have their origin in the Ling system as modified by the British Board.

[142]McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800, pp. 158-159.

[143]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, General File D 7332-1, Letter - December 8, 1933, Lewis to Chief of General Staff.

[144]The term, used in a different context by Cosentino and Howell in, A History of Physical Education in Canada, p. 42, is simply used to mean that the exercises were one grade up from the extremely formal military and/or squad drill exercises.

[145]Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, 1911, p. 65. "This Skeleton Table represents the minimum number of exercises which can be said to constitute a complete Lesson. It is always possible to add to it. For example, two leg exercises (one of which may be marching) may be taken in the Introductory Group; a leg exercise may precede the final Breathing exercises; a Trunk bending forward, or forward and downward, may be given after the Balance exercises, etc. Such alterations should, however, only be made by an experienced teacher, and with due regard to the length of the lesson and its effect upon the pupil." Ibid., footnote, p. 65.

[146]The pictures were of girls as often as they were of boys, a fact which would commend the Syllabus to female teachers.

[147]Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, 1911, pp. 165-168.

[148]An original copy of the Grade "B" certificate is reproduced in Appendix O.

[149]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-3, Vol. 2.

[150]Ibid., Minutes, meeting of the Executive Council, February 28, 1921.

[151]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1914, p. 477.

[152]Personal visit to the old normal school buildings in North Bay and Stratford.

[153]Students enrolled at the normal schools numbered: 1168 in 1913; 1135 in 1914; not listed in 1915; 1403 in 1916; 1553 in 1917; not listed in 1918; 1223 in 1919; 1287 in 1920. Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1913 to 1920. The attendance figures were not given in 1915 or 1918.

[154]A term found repeatedly throughout the primary source material.

[155]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, General File D 7332-1, Letter - September 6, 1919, P.G. McGoll to Executive Council. The conference was apparently the result of an enquiry into the effectiveness of the courses taught in Alberta carried out by

the Alberta Local Committee of the Strathcona Trust.

[156] Ibid. The military overtones of the command-type of instruction were bound to be criticized in the immediate aftermath of a world war.

[157] Ibid. Letter - April 20, 1920, Brigadier-General, General Officer Commanding Military District No. 4, Montreal to secretary, Executive Council, Strathcona Trust.

[158] Ibid.

[159] Ibid.

[160] Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919 (London: Published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1919).

[161] Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, General File D 7332-1, Letter - September 20, 1920, E.M. Cartwright, Physical Director for Women, McGill University to Lieut.-Colonel Hill, Organizer and Inspector of Cadet Corps, Military District No. 4, Montreal.

[162] Ibid. Letter - December 30, 1920, Cartwright to Lieut.-Colonel Hill, Director of Cadet Services, Department of Militia and Defence, Ottawa. If Hill's official title was correctly indicated in September and December 1920 in Cartwright's letters, he had apparently received a posting from Montreal to Ottawa. Perhaps, then, it was Hill who did the ground work in convincing the Executive Council to adopt the 1919 Syllabus. Also, it is significant to note that Cartwright asked permission in this letter to use the new Syllabus in her fourth year undergraduate classes in order to give her students the advantage of the new edition. Obviously, the power of the Executive Council was greatly respected, at least by Cartwright.

[163] Ibid.

[164] Ibid. File D 7332-3, Vol. 2, Minutes, meeting of the Executive Council, February 28, 1921.

[165] Ibid. Colquhoun, for one, was beginning to question the suitability of the Strathcona Trust with respect to physical training. He noted that since the subject was compulsory in Ontario schools in 1920, it was difficult to ascertain the direct effects, if any,

of the Trust on the schools. He, therefore, suggested that the Executive Council should, in future, carry out the aims of the Strathcona Trust through the cadet corps only. Ibid. His suggestion was not realized until World War Two.

[166] Ibid. File D 7332-0031/7, Vol. 1, Letter - November 24, 1921, Colquhoun to principal of Paris Public School, Paris, Ontario.

[167] Ibid.

[168] Ibid. General File D 7332-1, Letter - December 8, 1933, Lewis, secretary of the Executive Council, to Chief of General Staff. The cost of purchasing copies of the Syllabus from England, having them shipped to Ottawa and then redistributed throughout Canada taxed the budget so severely that in 1933, the Syllabus published in that year could not be provided free of charge to the schools. Ibid.

[169] Ibid. Letter - November 30, 1933, T.V. Anderson, member of the Ontario Committee, to A.G. Lewis.

[170] See, Table 3, Supra, p. 221.

[171] Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, 6-711, Central Registry Calssification, Superintendent of Secondary Education, Physical and Health Education Branch, Folder 5. The candidates for the "B" certificate were foreseen to be mostly female and therefore the instructor hired to teach the course was Miss Coventry.

[172] Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-3, Vol. 2, Minutes, meeting of the Executive Council, February 28, 1921.

[173] Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919, pp. 65-98.

[174] Ibid., pp. 99-105.

[175] Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-3, Vol. 2, Minutes, meeting of the Executive Council, February 28, 1921.

[176] Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919, pp. 65-84.

[177]Ibid., p. 76.

[178]Ibid., p. 73.

[179]Ibid., pp. 86-91. Some hints on teaching the games in and out of the classroom followed these charts. For Ontario elementary schools, the exercises and games, especially those that could be taught in the classroom would have been welcomed since very few of these schools possessed gymnasia..

[180]Ibid., pp. 99-105.

[181]Ibid., pp. 34-64.

[182]Ibid., pp. 135-212.

[183]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-3, Vol. 2, Minutes, meeting of the Executive Council, February 28, 1921.

[184]A.R.M. Lower, Canadians in the Making: A Social History of Canada (Revised edition. Toronto: Longmans Canada Limited, 1969), p. 411. Lower stated: "Until 1914, Canada was steeped in Victorianism. Victorianism is perhaps, just a convenient catchword, but on the side of morality and deportment it carries connotations of primness, religiosity, undue piety, the taboos of conduct, stiffness and ceremoniousness;" Furthermore Lower indicated that it was the sons of middle-class parentage who departed from Canada in response to the demands of World War One and took with them a code of conduct which had trained them against such "sins of the flesh" as the use of tobacco, alcohol, against gambling and against dancing. Attitude changes in these young men brought about by their worldly exposure had a lot to do with changing societal sanctions toward such activities as dancing. Ibid. Lower's interpretation, then, is borne out by school officials' attitudes toward dance.

[185]W.D. Sutton, "The London Normal School," An Address given on the occasion of the unveiling of a plaque to commemorate the building and its history, August 5, 1971.

[186]G.M. Shutt, The High Schools of Guelph (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1961), p. 119.

[187]Ibid.

[188]Sutton, "The London Normal School."

[189]Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, 1911, pp. 152-155.

[190]Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919, pp. 220-224.

[191]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-9, Vol. 4, Annual Meeting of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario, 1930. Statistics on total normal school enrolment were not listed even in the Minister's Annual Reports for these years. In 1931, 1,408 "B" certificates were issued and in 1932, 1,785 were awarded. Ibid. Vol. 5, Annual meeting of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario, 1932.

[192]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, Box 161, File 8-37, Examinations in Physical Training set by the Department of National Defence, no dates, and Examinations in Physical Training Set by the Various Normal Schools, 1929-1930; File 8-39, Examinations in Physical Training Set by the Various Normal Schools, 1929; File 8-35, Normal School Examinations, 1931; Box 174, File 8-37, Normal School Examinations, 1932.

[193]Ibid., File 8-37, Examinations in Physical Training Set by the Various Normal Schools, 1929-1930.

[194]In all, some twenty-five examinations were scrutinized for the years 1929-1932. Some of the examinations were for first and second class certificates. That is, the course was common and identical for both levels of teacher certification. The only examination which contained a question pertaining to heavy gymnastic apparatus was the Ottawa Normal School exam of 1929: "Using at least three pieces of apparatus, name ten movements which you have learned. (Name the piece of apparatus and then the movements on it.)" Ibid. Ladies were to omit this question and replace it with: "Give three corrective exercises on the stall bars. Describe a class formation for teaching exercises on the horse. Describe the method of teaching Swimming, i.e. Breast Stroke, Back Stroke." Ibid. Obviously, as will be shown in a following section, Ottawa was encouraging a relatively progressive programme of teacher training by using public, gymnastic and swimming facilities. Also, some of the examinations in physical training were for Kindergarten-Primary teachers

in training. If the number of examinations in various courses is any indication, these kindergarten teachers were expected to have a general knowledge of all practical and theoretical subjects.

[195]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-9, Vol. 5, Annual Meeting of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario, 1932.

[196]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, Box 181, File F-508, Physical Training Correspondence, Major Jeffrey, District Cadet Officer, Military District Number One, to the Assistant Deputy Minister of Education, November 28, 1933.

[197]Ibid. Note that the grant was forty-five dollars per class. Presumably the instructor would have taught several classes.

[198]Ibid.

[199]The letter from Major Jeffrey concerned Ontario only. However, it is reasonable to assume that the federal body made the same grants to all provinces.

[200]Ibid.

[201]Ibid.

[202]It is known that Bukh and his team visited Canada as early as 1931. See, Gerber, Innovators and Institutions in Physical Education, p. 185.

[203]Gerber, Innovators and Institutions in Physical Education, p. 181.

[204]Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools 1933 (Second edition. London: Printed and Published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1939).

[205]H.A. Noble, "Program Sources," in Physical Education in Canada, edited by M.L. Van Vliet, p. 99.

[206]McIntosh, Physical Education in England Since 1800, p. 215.

[207]Ibid.

[208]Ibid., p. 216.

[209]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, General File D 7332-1, letters - December 8, 1933, Lewis to Chief of General Staff and December 22, 1933, Parsons to Lewis.

[210]Ibid. Letter - December, 1933, form letter written by Lewis.

[211]Ibid.

[212]Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools 1933, p. 197.

[213]Ibid., pp. 252-348.

[214]Since the 1933 Syllabus is still available in most libraries, it is not deemed necessary to describe its contents in any greater detail.

[215]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-9, Vols. 5 and 6, Annual Meetings of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario, 1933-1940. By years, from 1933, the annual recipients were 1,956; 1934 - 1586; 1935 - 1,378; 1936 - 829; 1937 - 1,906; 1938 - 814; 1939 - 514; 1940 - 1,414. The exact total was 10,397.

[216]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, Box 195, File 8-35, Normal School Examinations, 1935. Some ten examination papers were discovered for the years 1935 and 1936. Those for 1936 were located in, ibid., Box 201, File 8-35, Normal School Examinations, 1936.

[217]Ibid. Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, Box 211, File F-508, Minutes of the Annual Meeting of the Ontario Strathcona Trust Committee, November 21, 1936, Letter - January 11, 1937, J.M. Cumming, secretary of the Ontario Strathcona Trust Committee to D. McArthur, Deputy Minister of Education.

[218]Ibid. Another generous offer of assistance made by the Militia Department!

[219]Ibid.

[220]Ibid. Miscellaneous letters, letter - January 20, 1937, N. Keefe to W.J. Karr, Director of Professional Training.

[221]Ibid.

[222]Ibid. Miscellaneous Letters - 1937.

[223]Department of National Defence, Uncatalogued Files, File D 7332-9, Vol. 6, Annual Meeting of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario, 1940.

[224]Ontario, Department of Education, Normal Schools of Ontario, First and Second Class Professional Examinations, Toronto: 1939. A study of the modern period of physical education development in Ontario might support the writer's suggestion that the term physical training was permanently changed to physical education in 1939.

[225]T.A. Reed, The Blue and White: A Record of Fifty Years of Athletic Endeavour of the University of Toronto (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1944), p. 34.

[226]Ibid.

[227]Calendar of the University of Toronto, 1901-1902. Also cited in, Kennedy, "A History of Professional Preparation," p. 46, and in, D.B. Caswell, "A History of the Development of the Secondary School Physical and Health Education Programme and the Teacher Education that Accompanied this Growth During the Period 1900-1965 in Ontario" (unpublished paper, University of Toronto, 1966), p. 7.

[228]Kennedy, "A History of Professional Preparation," p. 4.

[229]Calendar of the University of Toronto, 1912-1913, pp. 545-546.

[230]Ibid. Caswell noted that the women's programme in the diploma course improved in 1912 coincident with the appointment of Miss Coventry as director of athletics for women. Caswell, "A History of the Development of the Secondary School Physical and Health Education Programme," p. 8.

[231]Calendar of the University of Toronto, 1917-1918, p. 63.

[232]Ibid., pp. 63-64.

[233]J.W. Barton, Physical Training, First Aid to the Injured and Athletics (Second edition. Toronto: The

Musson Book Company Ltd., 1915).

[234]Calendar of the University of Toronto, 1921-1922 to 1938-1939.

[235]Kennedy, "A History of Professional Preparation," p. 93. Kennedy noted that the course for men was discontinued for three years after Barton's retirement. After 1927, students were required to attend an extra year beyond graduation to obtain the diploma. Ibid.

[236]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1913, p. 162.

[237]Ibid., pp. 162-163.

[238]Ibid., p. 163. This was also an interim certificate.

[239]See, supra, p. 233.

[240]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1913, p. 163. The specialist's was also an interim certificate when first issued. When the teacher's licence was made permanent, or when the teacher had demonstrated his competency to teach physical training, the interim physical culture certificate was made permanent.

[241]Ibid., pp. 163-166.

[242]Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, p. 595. No fees were charged for the physical culture course. Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1913, p. 162.

[243]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1913, p. 166.

[244]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, 6-711, Central Registry Classification, Superintendent of Secondary Education, Physical and Health Education Branch, Folder 5, Letters - 1916 to 1919.

[245]Calendar of the University of Toronto, 1913-1914 to 1938-1939. The calendars only listed the various syllabuses as reference texts.

[246]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, 6-711, Central Registry Classification, Superintendent of Secondary Education, Physical and Health Education Branch, Folder 8, Refresher Course For the Men Teachers of Health and Physical Education for July 2 - July 16, 1938, dated May 13, 1938, Mr. F. Bartlett, Director of Physical Education for Toronto Schools, to Mr. Steele.

[247]Ibid. The course was restricted to 80 persons.

[248]See, Cosentino and Howell, A History of Physical Education in Canada, pp. 44-45. The refresher course may also have been encouraged by the professional organization of the Canadian Physical Education Association, formed in 1933. However, the Association reached only a small group of 68 school teachers in Ontario by 1939. See, D.W. Plewes, "The Canadian Physical Education Association" in Public Archives of Canada, Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Papers, M.G. 28, Series I, Vol. 22.

[249]Regulations and Course of Study of the Public Schools of the Province of Ontario, 1911 (Toronto: L.K. Cameron, 1911), p. 13.

[250]Ontario Department of Education, Courses of Study: Public and Separate Schools, 1924 (Toronto: United Press, 1924), p. 22.

[251]See, Appendix H for the years 1909 to 1933.

[252]The writer is unable to explain why, in some years, the enrolment in physical culture was actually greater than in english composition. The latter subject was chosen from the full list of subjects, for comparison purposes, as being the subject which enrolled the most students throughout the period. In addition, it is unfortunate that the statistics were changed in 1934 to include separate school totals, but it can be assumed that there was no drop-off in enrolment in public school physical training during the years between 1934 and 1939.

[253]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, 6-711, Central Registry Classification, Superintendent of Secondary Education, Physical and Health Education Branch, Folder 1, circular - September 27, 1913, W.H.G.

Colles, inspector of public schools, to the public and separate school teachers of East Kent.

[254]Ibid.

[255]Annual Report of the Board of Education for the City of Toronto, for the Year Ending December 31, 1913, p. 62.

[256]A.W. Doan, "The Public School Buildings of Toronto" (unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Toronto, 1921), n.p. The thesis only concerned the public schools west of Yonge Street.

[257]Annual Report of the Board of Education for the City of Toronto, for the Year Ending, December 31, 1913, pp. 63-64. Girls under eleven, girls over eleven, boys under eleven and boys over eleven formed the age classifications.

[258]Ibid., for the Year Ending December 31, 1915, p. 30.

[259]Cochrane and Hardy, Centennial Story, p. 226. Bartlett retired in 1944.

[260]Ottawa Public Schools, Inspector's Annual Report, 1913, p. 51.

[261]Ibid., 1922, p. 47.

[262]Ibid., 1932, p. 30.

[263]Ibid., 1934, p. 54.

[264]Ibid., 1933, p. 34.

[265]C.E. Mark, The Public Schools of Ottawa: A Survey (Ottawa: Pattison Print, 1919), p. 78. Mark also related that the Ottawa Board encouraged every teacher on its public school staff to "qualify as a Physical Instructor under conditions laid down by the Strathcona Trust Fund." Ibid., p. 90.

[266]These were popular public affairs. Ottawa schools attracted some eight thousand spectators to its 1936 Lansdowne Park competitions. Ottawa Public Schools, Inspector's Annual Report, 1936, p. 46.

[267]Ibid., 1938, p. 37.

[268]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1914, pp. 109-111.

[269]Ibid.

[270]Ibid., pp. 112-117.

[271]Ibid., pp. 109-117.

[272]See supra, chapter III, pp. 148-155.

[273]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1910, picture, p. 382.

[274]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series G, G-2-A, High School Inspectors' Annual Reports, Vol. 86, 1925, n.p.

[275]See, Table 4, supra, p. 244.

[276]The inspector for the Welland school area reported that the number of teachers qualified with the summer school certificates were increasing as early as 1915. Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series G, G-2-A, High School Inspectors' Annual Reports, Vol. 66, 1915, n.p.

[277]Ibid., Vol.s 66 to 105, 1915 to 1932.

[278]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1914, p. 669. The passage was from Inspector Wetherell's report concerning some fifty-four secondary schools in central Ontario.

[279]Ibid., p. 674.

[280]Ibid., 1915, p. 38.

[281]Such interpretations are, of course, impossible to make from the statistics given in Appendix I for these years.

[282]W.Kirkconnell, A Canadian Headmaster: A Brief Biography of Thomas Allison Kirkconnell 1862-1934 (Toronto: Clarke, Irwin and Company Limited, 1935), p. 125.

[283]Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1916, p. 34.

[284]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, 6-711, Central Registry Classification, Superintendent of Secondary Education, Physical and Health Education Branch, Folder 7, Letter - March 1, 1921, Deputy Minister of Education to Miss Margaret Brown, McGill University.

[285]Ibid.

[286]Ontario Department of Education, Courses of Study and Examinations of the High Schools, Collegiate Institutes and Continuation Schools, 1922 (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1922), pp. 12-15.

[287]Ibid., pp. 14-15.

[288]Ibid., p. 14. Hart House pool would have been the most probable location for teacher instruction in swimming.

[289]Ibid., 1928, pp. 14-15.

[290]Ontario Archives, Government Records Section, Records of the Education Department, Ontario Department of Public Records and Archives, Record Group 2, Series P, P-3, Box 195, File F-513, Response to a Questionnaire Received from the American Consul General at Ottawa Relating to Physical Education and Recreation, 1935.

[291]G. Klinck, Development and Progress of Education in Elmira and Vicinity (Elmira, Ontario: The Elmira Signet, 1938), p. 60.

# CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The development of physical education programmes in Ontario's public-supported schools before 1939 was related to improvements in education in general as well as to the influence of key individuals such as Egerton Ryerson, James Hughes, Sir Frederick Borden and Sir Donald Smith.

Prior to 1844, a period characterized by the very establishment of a public educational system, there was little administrative or parental desire for physical training in the school curriculum. Indeed, there were not many play facilities for student recreation in the schoolyards which were in existence prior to the mid 1840's. In his 1846 Report, Egerton Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education for Ontario from 1844 to 1876, made the first official plea for physical training in the school curriculum. Ryerson restricted his appeal to the grammar, or secondary, schools and supported his claim for the need of physical training in the schools by noting the attention paid to physical culture by educational writers from Plato to Locke. However, the focus upon classical studies in the grammar schools

during Ryerson's tenure combined with the lack of professional preparation of secondary school teachers prevented Ryerson's plea from being realized.

Ryerson became convinced of the value of physical training for school children through his European travels to such countries as Germany, Prussia, Switzerland, Denmark and Great Britain. Consequently, the Chief Superintendent made more concerted efforts to expose prospective elementary school teachers to physical training at the Toronto Normal and Model Schools. He hired "Colonel" Henry Goodwin as "master of the art of gymnastics" at the Toronto Normal and Model Schools. Play sheds, the forerunners of modern gymnasia, were constructed in connection with the latter institution and were used by Goodwin to train the normal school students in drill and calisthenics. Goodwin's influence was confined to the small number of teachers who attended the teacher training institute. By 1877, only seventeen per cent of Ontario's teachers had any professional training. Nevertheless, Ryerson's appointment of Goodwin from 1852 to 1877 was an important prerequisite to the establishment of physical training programmes in the schools.

Not only did Ryerson support professionally the development of sound physical training programmes within the educational system, he also harboured a personal

belief in the value of physical activity for himself and his children. He enjoyed rowing and riding, supported his son's interest in sports and defended his action in sending his daughters to a private school which gave dancing lessons. In addition, he attempted to promote a series of gymnastic exercises, which he had extracted from a British educational journal, in the schools through the Journal of Education for Upper Canada. Ryerson was the editor of the Journal and in this capacity he tried to use the monthly publication to disseminate his and others' ideas on such topics as school facilities' improvement, new equipment, equipment costs and curriculum development including that branch of instruction known as physical training. However, the gymnastic exercises which he advocated in 1852 were not suited to the conditions in the schools since very few school boards were able to afford the equipment illustrated in the woodcut prints nor were trained teachers available to give instruction in such exercises. In general, the Journal proved of negligible value in dispersing Ryerson's views on physical training because of the lack of an efficient means of distributing the periodical. Moreover, those teachers who did wish to experiment with the physical exercises recommended in the Journal were restricted in their ability to do so by the individual school boards' philosophical and financial sanctions.

The major impetus to the emergence of physical training programmes in the schools came as a result of the influence of the Civil War on Ontario. Few schools, if any, enjoyed the luxury of gymasia prior to 1876. Therefore, any physical training had to be conducted outdoors and without the aid of complex equipment. Military drill suited the condition of the schools in the 1860's. It could be conducted outdoors; ex-soldiers, who were employed as teachers by many school boards, were trained in military drill; little equipment was required; the educational objectives of discipline and obedience were satisfied by the parallel aims of military drill; it trained the youth for future volunteer purposes and it was an appropriate form of instruction for the ideal pupil during the period — the male student.

Ryerson's social conservatism in educational matters was demonstrated by his willingness to use military drill as the initial form of physical training in the schools. His ideas on physical training preceded the Civil War, but it was the threat of military battle with the United States which acted as a stimulus for programme realization. Military drill programmes were put into practice in some of the elementary and secondary schools in the early 1860's. Although Ryerson announced in 1865, the formulation of a fifty dollar grant scheme to reward schools

which conducted military training, of which military drill was only a part, there is no evidence that the award system was put into practice before 1876. When the War ended in 1865, the interest in developing school programmes in military drill declined. Thereafter, the inclusion of physical training in school curricula depended upon the conscientious efforts of normal school graduates.

Ryerson's greatest achievements, then, were centred in the environment which he created for the acceptance of physical training in the schools (including his editorial efforts in connection with the Journal of Education for Upper Canada, although these attempts were probably of minor significance) and in his appointment of "Colonel" Henry Goodwin at the Toronto Normal and Model Schools and the subsequent preparation of teachers in physical training. Ryerson was also the instigator of the fifty dollar grant plan in 1865, a proposal which, probably, was not put into effect during Ryerson's term of office but which served as an important precedent for the establishment of a similar award in 1891.

During the period between 1877 and 1908, programmes in physical training were more fully implemented in Ontario schools in terms of the number of schools offering and the number of pupils receiving the instruction in

physical training. The effectuation of this subject was one example of the Department of Education's general penchant to introduce practical subjects into the curriculum throughout these years.

Ontario's prosperous private schools such as Upper Canada College, Trinity College School and Bishop Ridley College as well as the University of Toronto supported systematic physical instruction programmes and thereby provided a model for the public educational system to follow. Such features of these physical training programmes as the emphasis on military drill, the teaching of calisthenics and, to a limited extent, apparatus gymnastics, the use of dumbbells and indian clubs in the exercises, the provision of gymnasia, the appointment of specialized physical training instructors, plus the actual acceptance of deliberate physical training instruction within the educational setting of the private schools and the University became critical components of the elementary and secondary school programmes.

While the private schools and the University of Toronto were fortunate in being able to build indoor exercise facilities in the latter decades of the nineteenth century, school boards were financially incapable of constructing gymnasia at the elementary school level. Furthermore, educators were not convinced of the need for such facilities in the public schools and school

boards tended to concentrate on the improvement of school-yards through the promotion of Arbour Day (a day in the spring set aside for general clean-up of the school grounds). For the secondary schools, on the other hand, legislative grants were established, beginning in 1886, to encourage the construction of gymnasia and the purchase of gymnasium equipment. The grants were based on the size of the secondary school and on the value of the gymnasium and its equipment and the subsidies were part of a plan to provide financial incentives for the general improvement of secondary schools during this period. In addition to the grant scheme, the Department of Education reinforced its desire to have the high schools and collegiate institutes build gymnasia by the enactment of Regulation 50 in 1887. Under this regulation, secondary schools were required to make drill and calisthenics obligatory. Collegiate institutes were also asked to include apparatus gymnastics in their physical training programme wherever facilities and the appropriate equipment enabled them to do so. Compliance with Regulation 50 was often delayed due to the stress placed on the July examinations, yet the effect of the grant system and the passage of Regulation 50 was immediate in terms of an increase in the number of gymnasia at the secondary schools. These important measures of school legislation were responsible for the creation of all-weather physical training

facilities and for giving the secondary schools a decided advantage in the implementation of their programmes. By 1900, most high schools and collegiate institutes provided some form of indoor facility for physical training with the best gymnasia located in the larger, urban schools.

Although the construction of gymnasia was a direct result of the grants and Regulation 50, physical training programmes themselves were induced by the publication of two texts: the Manual of Drill and Calisthenics, written by James L. Hughes for publication in 1879, and E. B. Houghton's Physical Culture published in 1886. The former work, which was printed coincident with the decision to have drill and calisthenics form a part of the training of all third class teachers at the county model schools, represents a cornerstone in the history of physical education in Ontario. Its author, James L. Hughes, was an inspector of schools for Toronto at the time and also a prominent athlete in the sport of lacrosse. He was a firm believer in the discipline, obedience and physical values of military drill and, therefore, his book placed a heavy emphasis on military drill exercises. The impact of Hughes' Manual was direct in terms of increasing the number of pupils taking drill and calisthenics.

By far the most important early physical training textbook was Houghton's Physical Culture. This manual

included a section on drill, placed a new emphasis on calisthenics, dumbbell and rope exercises and promoted physical training, particularly with the use of indian clubs, for girls. Thus, the work lent itself to immediate, practical application in the schools. It produced dramatic increases in the number of students who received physical training instruction in the elementary and secondary schools. Both Hughes' Manual of Drill and Calisthenics and Houghton's Physical Culture were of great benefit to teachers who had no previous professional preparation in teaching physical training. Moreover, drill and calisthenics formed the backbone of the programme of teacher training at the normal and county model schools during this period. The two aforementioned texts catered to existing school facilities and improved upon the professional preparation of teachers.

Another book, the Manual of Hygiene, published in 1886, was indicative of growing societal, and therefore educational, health concerns in the 1880's. The creation of the provincial Board of Health and the focus of attention of that body and of the Ontario Education Association on matters pertaining to the improvement of general health standards produced a positive atmosphere for the acceptance of physical training programmes in the schools. The establishment of kindergartens in Ontario's educational institutions during the late 1880's brought

more awareness of the importance of physical activity to child development. The growth of the kindergarten movement in the province was due to the pioneer work of James L. Hughes and it reflected the general tendency during this period to magnify the importance of the child in education.

In the schools themselves, military drill formed the core of the physical training programme. At the elementary school level, this state of affairs was due to the suitability of such instruction to school facilities, or lack thereof, and to the presence and availability of drill sergeants to provide that form of physical training. In the secondary schools, some courses featured instruction in calisthenic exercises with dumbbells and indian clubs after the publication of Physical Culture. However, the high schools and collegiate institutes were restricted by the lack of a compulsory system of teacher preparation until 1897. In 1879 the federal Department of Militia offered to provide drill instructors to the secondary schools and twelve years later drill and calisthenics were made obligatory by Department of Education regulations. That same year, 1891, the Education Department offered a fifty dollar grant, which was, in effect, the practical realization of a similar proposal made by Ryerson in 1865, to induce military drill in the schools. As a result, the years between 1891 and 1896 were peak

ones in terms of the number of students taking physical training. The shift in the fifty dollar award system, in 1898, to support the formation and instruction of secondary school cadet corps detracted considerably from the regular programme in physical training.

It is readily apparent that the military influence on physical training programmes in the schools prior to 1908 was profound. Military drill formed the basis of instruction from 1860 to 1908. Retired army personnel provided their expertise in military drill instruction. It was the fear of military strife with the United States during the years 1860 to 1865 which allowed for the introduction of physical training in the schools. Hughes' Manual of Drill and Calistenics reinforced military instruction in the schools. Finally, the effort on the part of the Militia Department to provide drill instructors to the secondary schools and the establishment of the fifty dollar grant system in 1891 both resulted in making military drill the basis of physical training in the schools. The military emphasis and leadership in physical training did not abate between 1908 and 1939.

In 1909, the fifty dollar award system for cadet corps instruction was accepted at the elementary school level. The prestige attached to being a cadet and being paraded in public ceremonies combined with the public approval of cadet corps and the fifty dollar inducement

furnished a leading example for the introduction of the Strathcona Trust for the encouragement of military and physical training.

While the time was propitious for more emphasis on military drill in the schools around 1909, there was an even greater need to revitalize static physical training programmes in general. Sir Frederick W. Borden, the Minister of Militia and Defence from 1896 to 1911, having established his competency in the formation and training of the Strathcona Horse, used his influence to persuade Lord Strathcona to finance a scheme to encourage military and physical training in the schools. The resultant 500,000 dollar Trust was designed by Borden to fulfill a twofold objective: to promote further instruction in military training in the schools and to develop a regular system of physical training in the schools. It was never the intention of Borden or Strathcona to use the scheme to enforce compulsory military instruction in the schools. In point of fact, it was the Strathcona Trust more than any other measure which served to dissever the concept of military drill from physical training in the schools.

One of the first steps taken by the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust was to establish a 50 : 35 : 15 financial percentage split in the awards for physical training, military drill and rifle shooting respectively. In 1921 the same Council decided to confine military

training to cadet corps only, a step which clearly reflected the dual purpose of the Strathcona Trust. Local, provincial committees were given considerable latitude in the administration of their portions of the fund.

Ontario formed its local committee and entered into the Strathcona Trust agreement in 1911. It is significant that James L. Hughes served on the Ontario committee from its inception until 1935. During the first ten of those years, Hughes acted as secretary for the committee. He was a key figure in devising the competition for the available awards which was based on inspectoral districts. Although Ontario received the largest portion of the Trust fund between 1911 and 1939, it was necessary to create the awards system in order to provide any real incentive for programme development. The Ontario committee was careful to establish a clear communication link with inspectors and school boards in order to distribute the awards efficiently and fairly. Furthermore, this provincial committee was unique in its decision to retain unearned portions of the annual grants and to invest those sums in land mortgages and in Dominion of Canada bonds. The annuity was used to provide further incentives for physical and military training, to make films on rifle shooting and to publish a book in 1954 entitled, Physical Education in Rural

Schools.

It was Borden who chose to adopt the 1909 British Syllabus of Physical Training and to have it republished in 1911 by the Strathcona Trust. This Syllabus was distributed free of charge to all schools in Ontario and it became a required text in the province's seven normal schools. The tables of exercises presented in this manual were based upon the Swedish system of physical training. That is, the exercises were "paramilitary," positional ones (which characteristic earned these exercises the epithet, "physical jerks") and they were done in unison and stressed the importance of breathing. The Syllabus was suitable to the instruction of pupils from age seven to fourteen and its chief merit was its extreme usefulness to teachers at that time.

The attainment of the Strathcona Grade "B" certificate qualified a teacher to instruct from the 1911 manual and many teachers and normal school students in Ontario earned this certificate between 1911 and 1939. The establishment of the Trust itself and the adoption of the Syllabus were intended and proved to be stimuli to teacher preparation and to the programme of physical training in the schools. Discontent with the 1911 text did come from within the schools and was chiefly expressed by the western provinces. Educators, after the war period,

favoured more informal methods of physical training such as sports and games and more vigorous exercises than those suggested in the book. However, the school boards continued to rely on the Strathcona system to produce change instead of taking the initiative themselves or persuading the Department of Education to assist programme development.

The Executive Council adopted the 1919 Syllabus in 1921 and teachers were trained, beginning in the latter year, from and in the new book. Throughout the period up to 1939, teacher preparation in physical training in the normal schools was only as dynamic as the syllabuses themselves. The 1919 Syllabus introduced more movement-oriented exercises which involved the use of large muscle groups throughout a full range of motion. In addition, the manual made games and sports curricular and thereby instituted the characteristics of modern physical education programmes. Meanwhile, the Militia Department perpetuated the Strathcona system at the normal schools by giving financial grants to the physical training instructors at those institutions who taught the course for the grade "B" certificate during the 1920's. The Militia Department examiners for the certificate tended to stress the importance of military drill even in the 1930's, after the 1933 revision of the basic manual. While the

1933 Syllabus combined systematic physical exercise lessons with games and sports and emphasized the importance of teaching dancing and swimming, it seemed that military personnel were unable to keep pace with the changes.

The syllabuses were suited only to children up to the age of fourteen. For this reason, secondary school professional preparation developed quite apart from that for the elementary schools. Between 1913-1939 teachers in the high schools and collegiate institutes received their certification to teach physical training from Department of Education summer courses conducted at the University of Toronto. This system of professional preparation, stimulated by Dr. J. W. Barton, a former Y.M.C.A. physical director, stressed the importance of sports and games in the secondary schools at the outset of its formation. Instruction was also given in the Strathcona exercises and in physiology, anatomy, apparatus gymnastics, dancing and swimming. Since the Department of Education preferred to allow the Strathcona Trust to carry on the preparation of normal school teachers, there developed a dichotomy of teacher training in physical training during this period which exists to the present day.

The Ontario committee's inspectoral system of Strathcona competitions was successful at the elementary school level. Many of the province's larger cities gave

public physical training displays of the Strathcona competitions. Notable among these were the exhibitions put on at the Canadian National Exhibition grounds in Toronto and at Lansdowne Park in Ottawa. The programmes in the schools followed the syllabuses' revisions almost to the letter and the syllabuses plus teachers trained in their usage were responsible for large numbers of students being enrolled in the programmes during this period. Figure 1 shows the total number of elementary school pupils who received physical training instruction as a direct result of the implementation of the Strathcona system in 1911, and also as a consequence of the use of the manuals written by Hughes and Houghton in 1879 and 1886. This graph also illustrates the period of stabilization in terms of programme growth between 1891 and 1911.

In the secondary schools, gymnasia became a common feature of the schools in reaction to the stimulus of government grants. Physical training programmes experienced a decided increase in the number of students taking the subject in reaction to the publication of the 1911 Syllabus. From that point on, secondary school programme growth and maintenance was a product of the Department of Education's summer school certification scheme.

The major force behind the establishment, preservation and evolution of physical training programmes in the

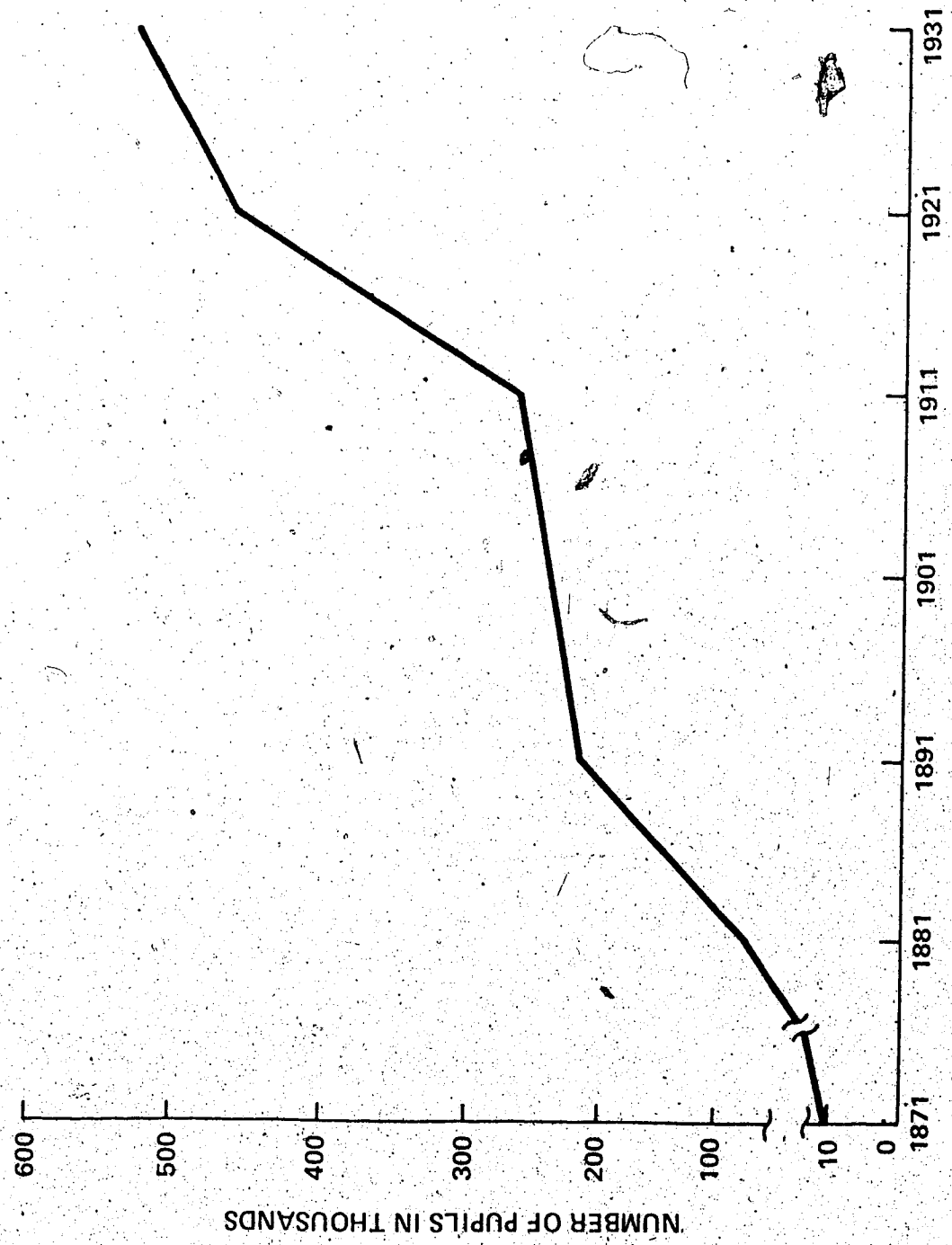
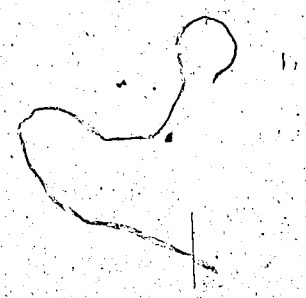



FIGURE 1. Increase in the Number of Pupils Taking Physical Training in the Elementary Schools of Ontario, 1871 - 1931 (Based on Data from Appendix H)

Ontario public educational system between 1860 and 1939 was a military one. By the latter year, sports and games had supplanted the more militaristic and/or paramilitaristic physical training programmes. Ontario owes a debt of gratitude to the pioneer efforts of Egerton Ryerson, James Hughes, Sir Frederick Borden and Sir Donald Smith in supporting the emergence, implementation and growth of early physical training programmes in Ontario schools.



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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

### Ontario Ministers of Education, 1876-1943*

Honourable Adam Crooks, Q.C., B.A.
Feb. 19, 1876 - Jan. 19, 1883.

Honourable George William Ross, LL.B., LL.D.
Nov. 23, 1883 - Oct. 21, 1899.

Honourable Richard Harcourt, M.A., LL.D., D.C.L.
Oct. 21, 1899 - Feb. 5, 1905.

Honourable Robert Allan Pyne, M.B., M.D., LL.D.
Feb. 8, 1905 - May 23, 1918.

Honourable Henry John Cody, M.A., LL.D., C.M.G.
May 23, 1918 - Nov. 14, 1919

Honourable Robert Henry Grant
Nov. 14, 1919 - July 16, 1923.

Honourable George Howard Ferguson, K.C., B.A., LL.B.
July 16, 1923 - Dec. 15, 1930.

Honourable George Stewart Henry, B.A., LL.D.
Dec. 16, 1930 - July 10, 1934.

Honourable Leonard Jennett Simpson, B.A., M.D.
July 10, 1934 - August 18, 1940.

Honourable Duncan McArthur, M.A., LL.D.
Aug. 22, 1940 - July 20, 1943.

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## APPENDIX B

### Physical Training Instructors on Staff at the Toronto Normal School, 1852-1940*

Major H. Goodwin, Instructor in Drill and Calisthenics, 1852-1853; 1854-1877.

C.R. Dearnlay, Instructor in Drill and Calisthenics, 1877-1884.

T. Parr, Instructor in Drill and Calisthenics, 1884-1898.

Miss Wilhelmina MacKenzie, Teacher of Calisthenics, 1896-1899.

Arthur King, Instructor in Drill, 1900.

Mrs. Jean Somers, Instructor in Calisthenics, 1900-1922.

Sergeant-Major D. Borland, Instructor in Drill, 1901-1905.

Q-M. Sergeant J.S. Legge, Instructor in Drill, 1906-1909.

Major E.H. Price, Instructor in Drill, 1910-1934.

Sergeant-Major J. Joyce, Assistant Instructor in Drill, 1926-1929.

Miss Mary F. Uren, Instructor in Physical Training, Model School, 1922-1923.

Miss Carolyn Stockton (Mrs. L.M. Archibald), Instructor in Physical Training, Model School, 1923-1929.

Miss Bessie C. Bunker, Instructor of Physical Education, Model School, 1929-1937.

N. Keefe, Instructor in Physical Training, 1933-1939.

Miss Evelyn Bale, Instructor of Physical Education, Model School, 1937-1940.

Lieut. D.W. Burns, Instructor of Physical Training, 1939--.

Miss Alma Small, Instructor of Physical Education, Model School, 1940-1941.

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*J.C. Boylen, et al., eds., Toronto Normal School 1847-1947 (Toronto: School of Graphic Arts, 1947).

## APPENDIX C*

## GERMAN CALISTHENICS

As taught by Colonel Goodwin, late teacher of calisthenics and gymnastics at the Normal School, Toronto.

### EXERCISE 1

One. Place the right hand on the breast, and swing the left as high as possible.

Two. Swing the left arm, without bending it, to the side. Palm to the front in both one and two when completed. Continue 1, 2, &c.

### EXERCISE 2

Same as Ex. 1 with hands reversed.

### EXERCISE 3

Swing both hands up and down as instructed for the left hand in number one.

### EXERCISE 4

One. Place the right hand at the side, fingers in front, thumb to the rear.

Two. Swing the left arm from front to rear, over the shoulder, bringing it around in a circle and keeping it *close to the side*.

### EXERCISE 5

Same as Ex. 4, with arms reversed.

### EXERCISE 6

Circle with both hands.

### EXERCISE 7

One. Hands at the sides, fingers in front, thumbs to the rear.

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*J.L. Hughes, Manual of Drill and Calisthenics (Toronto: W.J. Gage and Co., 1879), pp. 58-59.

APPENDIX C (Continued)

EXERCISE 7 (Cont'd)

Two. Hop twice on the *right* foot, and swing the *left* to the *front*.

Three. Hop twice on the *left* foot, and swing the *right* to the *rear*.

Continue the movements, hopping lightly *on the toes*, and swinging the left foot *only* to the front, and the right foot *only* to the rear.

EXERCISE 8

Same as Ex. 7, with the *right* foot to the *front*, and the *left* to the *rear*.

EXERCISE 9

Hopping as in Exercises 7 and 8, swing the left foot outwards to the left, and the right foot to the right alternately.

NOTE.— It is an excellent practice, where there is room, for a class to advance or retire, hopping and swinging the feet as in Exercises 7 and 8.

EXERCISE 10

One. Place the hands as in Ex. 7.

Two. Bound as high as possible, alighting on the *toes*.

NOTE.— The class may advance or retire in line, while bounding as in Ex. 10.

EXERCISE 11

One. Hands as in Ex. 7.

Two. Move forward or backward by merely *sliding the feet*, being particularly careful to keep the knees *firmly braced* and the *heels close to the ground*.

## APPENDIX D

Preface and General Instructions from, E.B. Houghton, Physical Culture (Toronto: Warwick and Sons, 1887), pp. 1-12.

# PREFACE.

As this is simply and purely a practical text book embracing nearly all the elementary exercises required to make physical education efficient, interesting and popular, there will be very little said here about theory. There will also be very little said about Hygiene, as that subject is already taught in the schools.

The following are a few extracts from a work on Education by J. G. Spurzheim, M. D. of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians, London:—

"The physical education of both sexes deserves the greatest attention, and it is unpardonable to neglect that of girls. A good and healthy organization is the basis of all employment and of all enjoyment. Many parents, however, are anxious to cultivate the mind at the expense of the body. They think they cannot instruct their offspring early enough to read and to write, whilst their bodily constitution and health are overlooked. Children are shut up, forced to sit quiet and to breathe a confined air. This error is the greater, the more delicate the children, and the more premature their powers are. The bodily powers of such children are sooner exhausted, they suffer from dyspepsia, headache, and a host of nervous complaints; their brain is liable to inflammation and serious effusions; and a premature death is frequently the consequence of such a violation of nature. It is indeed to be lamented that the influence of the physical on the moral part of man is not sufficiently understood. There are parents who will pay masters very dearly in hope of giving excellency to their children, but who will hesitate to spend the tenth part to procure them



bodily health. Some, by an absurd infatuation, take their own constitutions as a measure of those of their children, and because they themselves in advanced life can support confinement and intense application with little injury to health, they conclude that their young and delicate children can do the same. Such notions are altogether erroneous—bodily deformities, curved spines and unfitness for various occupations, and the fulfilment of future duties, frequently result from such misunderstood management of children. The advantages of a sound body are incalculable for the individuals themselves, their friends, and their posterity. Body and mind ought to be cultivated in harmony and neither of them at the expense of the other. Health should be the basis, and instruction the ornament of early education. The development of the body will assist the manifestations of the mind, and a good mental education will contribute to bodily health."

"Bodily exercise is another important point in education. Muscular activity is greater in childhood than in any later age. It is necessary to the development of the body and to health. The body, the intellectual and moral faculties, may be exercised at the same time. The muscles of the arms, or legs or trunk may be exercised according to the utility of such exercise in any future situation, or according to their local weakness. All gymnastic amusements serve to these purposes. It is to be understood that bodily exercise ought to be proportionate to the innate strength and progressive growth of the individuals, and not beyond the innate capacity, since in that case the misapplication of a principle will do harm. It is said that Milo carried on his shoulders a calf day by day till it was full grown. As bodily exercise particularly strengthens, as it invites to sleep, and secures against great disorders, it is to be generally encouraged. Gymnastic amusement may be established for all ages and for all classes of society. The gymnastic exercises of the Greeks are generally known and admired."

Montaigne, in his "Essays," published in 1580, eloquently urges the claim of physical education, and Locke in his "Essay on Education" does the same. The advice of those philosophers was put in practice by Bassedow in 1774, who founded an educational establishment at Dessau which he called Philantropinum, and introduced physical exercises as a regular

branch of instruction. The example thus given was followed at other schools, notably at that established by Salzmann, at Schnepfenthal, near Gotha. Pestalozzi, the great school reformer, paid due attention to physical education, and F. L. Jahn made it popular in Germany. The names of the eminent authorities who have spoken and written on the subject would almost fill a volume.

It may, perhaps, be unnecessary to remark that Hygiene and Physical Culture are concurrent subjects, and that one is incomplete without the other. In fact the pupils taking an active interest in physical culture will become alive to the importance of developing all the faculties of the body and mind to the highest standard. When they find that the subject of physical culture covers a vast field, including much more than is generally understood by the term; that it means more than making the muscles hard and strong; more than depth of lung; more than capacity for endurance; that it is the adapting of the human body for all its possibilities, they will naturally and of their own accord turn their attention to Hygiene, which will then become to them a living fact of vital importance.

The idea so prevalent, that because certain simple calisthenic or gymnastic movements are conducive to health and strength they are sufficient, is erroneous. This theory ignores the intellect. Such exercises require to be repeated daily to be of use, and the intellect having nothing to feed upon, they become monotonous and wearisome; hence inattention, listlessness and indifference.

As all exercises should be recreative, that is, the mind should take pleasure in directing the movements of the body, it naturally follows that those exercises which present the possibility of developing great skill, will prove of most interest to all. When this is thoroughly understood, the participant will eagerly turn to the elementary exercises that lay the foundation for the higher branches of gymnastics, such as the horizontal bar, fencing, Indian club swinging, etc.



The effect that gymnastic and calisthenic exercises have upon any but the muscular system is too often, unfortunately, not considered; the important effect they have of increasing the action of the respiratory, circulatory and nutritive systems, is seldom thought of. We see this exemplified by those who engage exclusively in such exercises, for instance, as in the unintellectual exercise of lifting heavy dumb-bells.

So long as those engaged in intellectual pursuits consider that gymnastic and calisthenic exercises, consist of a few crude and monotonous movements invented for the production of strength, they will not care to give them the attention they deserve. When, however, it comes to be generally known that though gymnastic and calisthenic exercises will (desirably) for the time being, divert their attention from their usual pursuits, their intellectual faculties will not lie dormant, but only be directed to another channel; they will then be induced through the acquisition of skill and grace to find the health and strength of body which it is the ultimate aim of physical culture to produce.

The training of pupils in the regular and beautiful exercises comprehended under a good system of gymnastics and calisthenics, is really the only way in which physical education can be efficiently conducted.

Another feature which does a great deal towards making the subject popular is the annual school entertainment. School life is replete with incidents which associate themselves with the most pleasant memories of youth, and the annual school entertainment, in which the mental and physical culture of the year should take an equal part, always produces a pleasing sensation in scholastic circles and causes hearts to beat with expectation: it leaves many pleasant memories, never to be

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erased in after years: it, too, awakens an interest in the minds and hearts of parents unknown in any other instance.

It may be here noticed that the true antidote for aerial and other objectionable gymnastic performances, is the general diffusion of knowledge of, and skill in gymnastics. The public will then appreciate a skilful performance carried out on a proper basis, and performances of the sensational order will cease for want of support.

It is respectfully submitted that all interested in the important subject of health, will, after studying the general plan of this work, come to the conclusion that our young people, in following up the course of exercises given therein, will have their intellectual as well as bodily powers called into play, that their interest will be maintained by the acquisition of skill and grace of movement, as well as of health.

THE AUTHOR.

# THE GYMNASIUM.

(1) *Training Schools Colleges, Collegiate Institutes and High Schools.*

The three sizes best adapted for gymnasia according to the capacity required are: 1st 80 × 40, 2nd 70 × 35, 3rd 60 × 30, the last size given being the smallest that can be recommended.

The windows in the sides of the building should be placed as high as possible; they should be about three feet high and about six feet wide; there should be as many of them on both sides as can be put in; there should be a large window or several windows in one end of the building, the other end being a dead wall. The windows should all work on pivots. The doors should be placed at the end of the building containing the window or windows. A large door for bringing in sawdust etc., may be placed at one side. The end of the building having the dead wall should have a plank floor for about twenty feet from the wall, so that it can be used, if necessary, for the purpose of school entertainments, gymnasium choral society, hand ball, etc., and it should be entirely free from apparatus. The trapeze and flying rings should be in the central portion of the building, the point from which they are suspended being sixteen feet from the ground; the point of suspension for the row of side rings can be any height from thirteen to sixteen feet from the ground. The building must be properly heated and ventilated; if heated with a stove, it and the stationary gymnastic apparatus should be properly placed at the end of the building containing the doors and windows. The flooring, except at the dead wall end of the building, should consist of sawdust

or sand, about one foot and a half deep; this should be sprinkled with water every morning, about an hour before the first class commences to exercise, and again at noon if necessary. A locker should be provided, where the movable appliances can be securely kept when not used by the class.

The stationary apparatus indispensable is as follows:—

2 horizontal bars, 2 pairs of parallel bars, 1 pair not being as wide or high as the other, 1 single trapeze, 1 pair of flying rings, three pairs of ropes and a row of side rings.

The movable appliances indispensable are, Indian clubs, wooden dumb-bells, wooden rifles, foils and masks, single sticks and two masks, and wands or barbells.

The Indian clubs should weigh from a pound and a half to three pounds each, and the wooden dumb-bells from one to two pounds each. A horizontal ladder, placed where it will not be in the way, would add to the appearance though not much to the efficiency of the gymnasium. Apparatus, except that mentioned, is not particularly useful, takes up a great deal of room and is costly, so that school gymnasia at least are a great deal better without it, it being a desideratum to have all the possible space in the building free for class exercises, and besides the money necessary to purchase it would be much better expended for foils and masks, single sticks, etc.

Heavy dumb-bells, cannon balls, and appliances of a similar kind should not be allowed in the school gymnasium.

### (2) *Public Schools, etc.*

The trustees of public schools can generally utilize the existing sheds for gymnastic purposes, or, if it would suit better, the full attic story. Where there is no shed or attic story it would be as well to build a gymnasium 60 × 30; where there are good sheds they might be converted into gymnasia by boarding them in, and placing the windows as high as possible, and as many as are required, in the sides of the building. The windows should



be hung on pivots. Ventilation and heating should be properly provided for. The flooring should be removed and about a foot and a half of sawdust or sand substituted; the dust should be kept down by sprinkling with water before being used in the morning, and if required, at noon. The stationary apparatus indispensable consists of three pairs of ropes only, the point of suspension for such ropes to be as high as possible from the ground, but not more than sixteen feet, the ropes to hang about twenty inches apart and to be of three sizes, viz.: one inch, one and one-quarter inch, and one and one-half inch, they must be of the best manilla, they must not be allowed to be knotted, and the ends should be finished with a crown knot.

The movable appliances indispensable are light wooden dumb-bells and Indian clubs. The wooden dumb-bells should weigh from a half to one pound each; the Indian clubs from three-quarters to two pounds each.

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## GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS.

Teachers of Physical Culture should avoid all outward show, but should nevertheless try to become as proficient in the exercises as their genius will permit. They should always be courteous. When engaged in teaching they should be kind, earnest and enthusiastic. They must show that they are actuated, by an earnest desire to impart the necessary information by every means in their power. They should never lose sight of the fact, that the lives and limbs of the pupils are entrusted to their care, and must therefore try to avoid all possibility of accident, by seeing that the apparatus is secure, by strict attention to whatever the pupil is practising, by giving careful assistance when required, and by pointing out when and where danger is to be apprehended, as also how to obviate such danger. They should have sufficient judgment to know when

some of the exercises can be safely practised in the open air, or when they must all be confined to the Gymasium. In fact, they must never forget that the pupils are under their control for the acquisition of health, and they should insist that every requisite for the attainment of this important object should be provided. The exercises should all be taught and executed with life and animation, and while the teachers of Physical Culture should see that certain rules and regulations are carried out in the gymnasium, they must at the same time not forget that the acquisition of skill, freedom of movement, fun and mirth are its greatest charms, aiding boys and girls to accomplish tasks, that otherwise they would not have the inclination or spirit to try; while engaged at drill, however, strict discipline should prevail.

The teacher should, when possible, appoint a competent pupil as leader,* which will enable him to move about, correct errors, and give assistance in any shape that may be necessary. The pupils should all be required to take an active part in the lessons, and not merely be allowed to watch their companions, as nobody ever learned gymnastics by merely looking at the practice of others. Study of any subject except that of Physical Culture, while in the gymnasium, should not be allowed.

Each class should have from twenty to thirty minutes practice four times a week. During exercise the heels should be kept together except where otherwise instructed; nothing looks more ungainly and awkward than to see one swinging clubs, for instance, with the heels apart.

While performing an exercise, breathing through the nose, and not through the mouth, should be insisted on, and by persevering this will eventually become a habit.

Singing or even counting aloud while practising gymnastics or calisthenics should not be tolerated. Singing, however,

*The leader should stand slightly in advance, back to the class.



can be engaged in while marching if so desired, preparatory to or at an entertainment.

Practising with musical accompaniment should not be permitted with any exercise, unless the pupils know it thoroughly.

A choral society in conjunction with the gymnasium exclusively might be formed.

Such exercises as putting the shot and throwing the hammer should not be allowed in the gymnasium; they are not suitable for the place, and indulgence in them is attended with discomfort and danger of life and limb to the pupils, and also injury to the apparatus and gymnasium.

In the fall and spring, the drill should take up the most time; in the winter, calisthenics and gymnastics. The time can be divided up in something like the following manner:—

## FALL AND SPRING.

*For Boys.*

*Monday.*—20 minutes Drill. 10 minutes First Series Calisthenics.

*Tuesday.*—15 minutes Light Dumb-bell Series. 15 minutes Third Series Calisthenics.

*Wednesday.*—15 minutes Second Series Calisthenics. 15 minutes Stationary Rope Series.

*Thursday.*—20 minutes Drill. 10 minutes First Series Calisthenics.

*Friday.*—Choral Practice.

*For Girls.*

*Monday.*—20 minutes Drill. 10 minutes First Series Calisthenics.

*Tuesday.*—15 minutes Second Series Calisthenics. 15 minutes Light Dumb-bell Series.

*Wednesday.*—15 minutes Third Series Calisthenics. 15 minutes Indian Club Series.

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*Thursday.*—20 minutes Drill. 10 minutes First Series Calisthenics.

*Friday.*—Choral Practice.

## WINTER.

### *For Boys.*

*Monday.*—15 minutes Drill. 15 minutes First Series Calisthenics.

*Tuesday.*—10 minutes Light Dumb-bell Series. 20 minutes Third Series Calisthenics.

*Wednesday,*—10 minutes Second Series Calisthenics. 20 minutes Stationary Rope Series.

*Thursday.*—10 minutes Drill. 10 minutes First Series Calisthenics. 10 minutes Third Series Calisthenics.

*Friday.*—Choral Practice.

### *For Girls.*

*Monday.*—15 minutes Drill. 15 minutes First Series Calisthenics.

*Tuesday.*—20 minutes Indian Club Series. 10 minutes Second Series Calisthenics.

*Wednesday.*—15 minutes Third Series Calisthenics. 15 minutes Light Dumb-bell Series.

*Thursday.*—10 minutes Drill. 20 minutes Indian Club Series.

*Friday.*—Choral Practice.

For the sake of classification, all the exercises in this book, except drill, that are performed without appliances, come under the head of calisthenics; where appliances are used, they come under the head of gymnastics.

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## APPENDIX E

Catalogue of Books Pertaining to Physical Training in the Library of the Educational Department of Ontario, 1886*

Blaikie, Wm. Sound Bodies for Boys and Girls. London, 1884, Low.

Beecher, Catherine E. Physiology and Calisthenics. New York: 1871, Harpers.

Hughes, T. School Days at Rugby. Boston, 1865, Tricknor.

_____. Tom Brown at Oxford, Boston, 1866, Tricknor.

Caldwell, Charles. On Physical Education. Boston, 1834, Marsh.

Smart, James H. Gymnastic and Dumb-bell Exercises, New York.

Wood, William. Physical Exercises. 3rd Edition. New York, 1875, Harpers.

Barnett, Dr. Parlour Gymnasium. New York, Schermerhorn.

Roth, M. Exercises for Developing the Human Body. 2nd edition. London, 1854, Groombridge.

Oswald, Felix. Physical Education. 1883, Appleton.

Freeman, F.N. Military Manual for Schools. New York, 1862, Schermerhorn.

Mason, Samuel W. Gymnastic Exercises. 5th edition. Boston, 1864.

Root, N.W.T. School Amusements. New York, 1869, Barnes.

Schreber, Moritz. Medical in-door Gymnastics.

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*As extracted from, Ontario Department of Education Catalogue of Books Relating to Education and Educational Subjects in the Library of the Education Department for Ontario (Toronto: Printed by Warwick and Sons, 1886).

APPENDIX E (Continued)

Hubbard, Clara Beeson. Songs and Games for Kindergarten Schools. St. Louis, Bolmer.

Hughes, James L. Kindergarten, Its Place and Purpose.

_____. Mistakes in Teaching. Toronto, Gage.

Norman, F.M. School Masters' Drill Assistant. 1871. Bemrose.

## APPENDIX F

Chapter XII. Physical Exercise.
From, W. Nattress, Public School Physiology and Temperance (Toronto: William Briggs, 1893), pp. 174-193.

# CHAPTER XII.

## PHYSICAL EXERCISE.

**1. The Benefits of Exercise.**—The study of physiology, however brief, will impart such a knowledge of the construction of the human frame and the functions of its various organs as will enable us to interpret the many wants of the system, to appreciate the difference between that which is wholesome and that which is unnecessary or useless, to know what is required of us in aiding in that growth of body and mind which will attain to perfect manhood, and to avoid the use of anything that tends to injure the health or undermine the constitution. Both mind and body are more susceptible to external influences in youth than in mature age. Early attention is necessary to the formation of correct habits, not only in eating and drinking, but in every action and movement of the body. Excess in anything should be avoided. We have seen that excessive action of any part is sure to be followed by a corresponding reaction or loss of function in that part for a time. The heart may be induced by stimulants to act too fast, but there comes a time when it will act too slowly. The mind may be overexerted for a while, but reaction will set in and the brain become sluggish. The muscular system may be over-taxed by hard labor or violent exercise, but weariness and prostration are the result.

While we can injure our systems by excesses, we can also do so by inattention or neglect. Untrained minds have not a large amount of brain energy. Sluggish circulations and enfeebled digestions frequently follow in people who live



in-door, inactive lives. Want of strength, loss of growth, and lack of symmetry in form may all result from a careless disregard of the necessity for daily exercise. Physical exercise stimulates the whole system, puts new life into every part, and gives increased energy and force to every organ of the body. It develops the various muscles, gives strength and form to the limb, and courage and ambition to the mind. The child grows proud, not only of his attainment of muscular strength, but of its effects. His body becomes better set up, the chest expanded, the shoulders well back and the head erect. The movements of the limbs are done with precision and ease. The step is elastic and the gait free and smooth.

Physical exercise should be taken regularly and at stated times. It is not the impulsive exercise of a day that will improve the system. It is the taking of a certain amount of muscular action every day. Too much exercise in one day or at one time is fatiguing, and will exhaust the strength rather than build it up. The amount of exercise must be regulated by the strength, and can be gradually increased as the system becomes used to it.

**2. Kind of Exercise.**—That kind of exercise which calls into action the greatest number of muscles is always the best. It is well to exercise as many of the muscles as possible at the same time, and as no one form of exercise or employment brings into use all the muscles, the necessity for some variety is at once apparent. There is quite a variety of natural forms of exercise apart from the many occupations of life. Walking, riding on horseback or bicycle, rowing, swimming, skating, snow-shoeing, lawn tennis, football, and out-door games generally are all valuable modes of natural exercise. They have also the great advantage of taking persons out into the open air and sunshine, where the lungs are better supplied with pure air, and the blood enriched

with larger quantities of oxygen. Walking is one of the best exercises we can get, because it involves the use of a great many muscles. The legs, arms and body are all in motion, which means muscular action. Swimming is another form of exercise which is especially useful, inasmuch as it requires the active employment of a very large number of the muscles. A healthy, strong person in water of a moderate degree of warmth, so that too much heat of the body is not carried off, will, after a little practice, not only secure all the benefits of a bath, but also the good effects of the most perfect natural exercise. The feeling of comfort and general toning of the system after a good swim can hardly be obtained in any other way.

But useful as are these natural forms of exercise, and each commendable for some special feature, yet no single one of them calls into action all the voluntary muscles; hence, in addition to these, it is advisable, especially during the period of growth and development, to devote a certain time daily to artificial training of the muscles.

3. Regulation of Exercise.—The kind of exercise most beneficial depends upon the age, the condition of health, and to a certain extent the sex and the occupation. Exercise in health may with advantage be carried to slight weariness, but not so as to cause a feeling of prostration.

The employment of some affords ample exercise for the well-being of the body. The occupation of others is such that only a portion of the muscular system is engaged. In these the idle muscles should be exercised in other ways. The brain-worker needs exercise of the whole muscular system, and, when practicable, it should be varied from day to day.

Exercise should be taken in the open air. As we have said, it is not the muscles alone that are benefited. The various organs are made to do more work. The action of



the heart is increased, the breathing is deeper and more rapid, and there is greater activity of the circulation. Pure, fresh air improves the quality of the blood thus sent more rapidly coursing through the system. The tissues of the body are supplied with better material for building it up. The waste products are given off more freely, and the skin, kidneys and lungs have to do more work in getting rid of these used-up particles.

A daily walk of four or five miles, or its equivalent in any out-door exercise, not only strengthens the voluntary muscles, invigorating the whole system, but it also stimulates the muscles which control the organs of digestion, improves the appetite, and supplies the body with new material and new resources.

4. Time for Exercise.—As a general rule, exercise should not be taken while fasting, nor very soon after taking a meal. Experience has shown that in the one case prostration often follows, with loss of appetite, and in the other digestion of the food is delayed, and sometimes stopped for a time. While the stomach is most actively engaged, say, for two hours after a meal, the body should have its leisure time. Let the occupation be as light and the exercise as gentle as possible for at least the first hour after taking food.

Our longest period of fasting is during sleep. On first rising in the morning the system is relaxed, and the body is the weakest. This is plainly not the time for exercise which is at all violent or prolonged. Some food, if only a morsel, should be taken before going out to work or to study before breakfast. The evening is not so good a time for exercise as the earlier parts of the day. After the many hours of work the energies are nearly spent, and the body is tired.

It is just as important to regulate the form and amount of exercise to the time of life as to the time of day. The little child is not likely to take too much exercise. It will drop to

sleep when tired. A plucky lad may outdo his strength, and bring on illness, in his ambition to excel at some muscular feat, or overcome his fellow in some game or sport. The satisfaction of defeating an opponent at lawn tennis, or the desire to carry off some trophy, may goad a young girl or an ambitious youth to physical harm. The imprudent efforts of people of middle and advanced age to appear young, to run to "catch" the train or street car, or show their agility in other youthful ways, have often caused sudden and serious results.

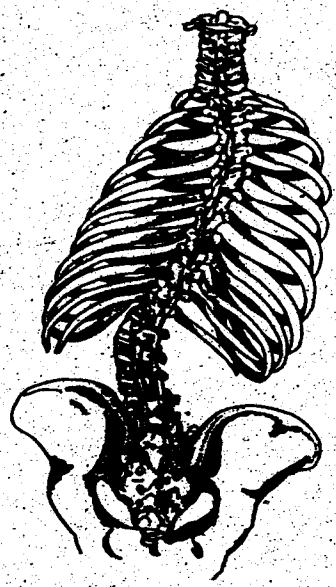


FIG. 52.—Curvature of Spine.

5. **Necessity for Exercise.**—Children when deprived of sufficient out-door exercise are generally pale, puny and delicate. Nothing weakens the young body like an in-door, inactive life. It makes a child tender and susceptible to the slightest change of weather. Colds, coughs and headaches are quite common. Children of the working-classes are usually strong and healthy. They may not be well clad, perhaps they are often dirty, but they have the freedom of the lanes, the fields and the streets, and spend the greater part of the day in the open air.

The development of the child's body from day to day calls for close attention to its many requirements. Proper nourishment must be supplied and suitable clothing provided. The child must be taken out into the fresh air, and directed and encouraged in those efforts of physical exertion which tend to strengthen the system and hasten its growth.



The bones and ligaments of the young are soft and pliable. They readily grow into false positions by constant habits of stooping or bending to one side. The spinal column is kept in position by a well-balanced action of the muscles supplied to it, and if these are unevenly exercised they become stronger on one side than the other, and draw the spine to that side, producing a lateral curve (Fig. 52), which, if allowed to exist for some time, may cause a permanent deformity. Children whose constitutions are naturally weak are more apt to grow into false positions than the healthy and robust, and hence require more careful attention. Fig. 53 is an illustration of how curvature of the spine is brought about, and shows the marked contrast between this position, which is productive of so much deformity, and the natural position, as shown in Fig. 54.



FIG. 53.—A school-girl at her desk in a position often resulting in curvature of the spine.

But there is another element which enters largely into the child's life. The training of the mind is as important as the training of the body. The child must be sent to school, and remain more or less inactive for several hours a day. As it grows older, tasks will be given that involve close application to books at home as well as during school-hours, and so it becomes necessary for the teacher, in regulating the various

exercises, to provide as carefully for the needs of the body as of the mind.

6. **Gymnastic Training.**—The importance of physical as well as mental training is being recognized at the present time by the introduction into schools and colleges of systematic drill, calisthenics, and various other forms of gymnastic exercises. The object of physical culture is threefold: To bring into action muscles which otherwise would be idle; to secure a symmetrical development of the whole body, with a perfect control of every muscle, and to give grace and freedom of movement.

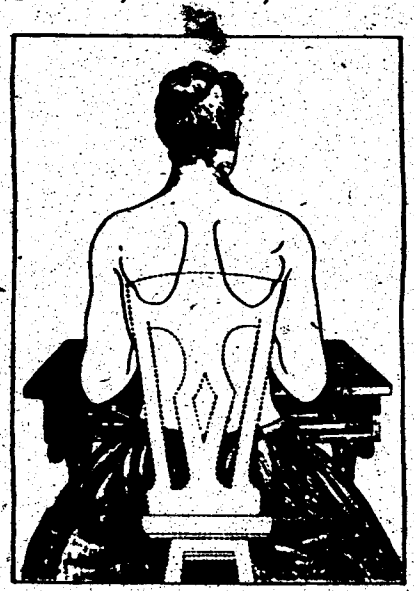


FIG. 84.—A correct position at the school-desk, with no undue strain on the spine.

There are various systems of gymnastics, but the two which are recognized as the great systems are the German and the Swedish. Modified forms of one or other of these systems are gradually being introduced into the schools of Ontario. The scope of this work does not allow a full description of any system. It may be stated, however, that they not only secure physical training, but as well a species of light mental exercise. The mind is engaged as well as the body. The object is to make the mind act quickly in conjunction with prompt motion. At the word of command, a whole class performs certain movements together. This united action leads to a desire on the part of each to excel, or at least to do as well as others, and eventually every member of the class has developed in him a desire to remedy his defects, to carry himself erect, be graceful in figure, and move with ease and facility.



Very little apparatus is necessary. Motions and movements of the body may be made without anything in the way of appliances. Wooden dumb-bells are as good as metal ones. The muscles of the arm can be exercised just as well without the actual weight in the fist. By effort the same tension can be put upon the muscles of the arm to raise a pen-handle as to raise a ten-pound dumb-bell. The weight of a body is measured by the amount of muscular force it is necessary to use in order to lift it. If we use the same muscular force to raise the pen-handle as the ten-pound weight, the muscles have done the same amount of work. But these various movements should not be made at any great expense of muscular force. They may be carried to the extent of slight fatigue, but not beyond. An exercise of fifteen minutes is quite long enough at any one time, and if during the practice it produces a feeling of dizziness or discomfort, it should be at once discontinued.

Physical culture in schools is intended not so much to promote growth as to correct false positions and habits of sitting, standing or walking, and thus guard against deformities of the body and lack of symmetry in its development. Keeping these objects in view, that form of physical training which is necessary in any particular case can be selected from the following exercises, compiled and rearranged from Lucy B. Hunt's "Handbook of Light Gymnastics," by Dr. A. F. Blaisdell, for his estimable little work, "Our Bodies and How We Live":

## EXERCISES.

### *I. FREE GYMNASTICS.*

**Position.**—Stand with heels together, hips and shoulders back, hands firmly closed and well back upon the chest.

**Directions.**—Each number fills a strain of music, except when otherwise specified.

Keep the heels together and hips back, unless the exercise otherwise directs. The arms overhead should always be with elbows unbent.

These exercises should be taken slowly and with caution at first. As the strength increases, greater rapidity and force should be employed.

Music for the free gymnastics should either be in galop or polka time.

EXERCISE 1.

1. Thrust right hand down twice, left twice, alternately twice, together twice.
2. Repeat No. 1, only thrust hands out at sides instead of down.
3. Repeat No. 1, thrusting hands directly up.
4. Repeat No. 1, thrusting hands from shoulders directly forward.

EXERCISE 2.

5. Right hand down once, left once, then clap hands through rest of strain.
6. Same exercise, out at sides.
7. Same exercise, directly up.
8. Same exercise, out in front.

EXERCISE 3.

9. Hands on the hips, step with right foot forward, then diagonally forward, directly at side, diagonally back, directly back, cross back of left, cross again still farther back; lastly, cross in front of left foot, returning to position after each step.





FIG. 55.



FIG. 56.

10. Repeat No. 9, with left foot.

EXERCISE 4.

11. Stamp with right foot forward three times, advancing each time, then left three times. Stamp three times back with right foot, same with left.
12. Repeat No. 11.

EXERCISE 5.

13. Hands still on hips, twist body alternately to right and left, twice each; four beats of music.
14. Bend body alternately to right and left, four beats of music finishing the strain.

EXERCISE 6.



FIG. 57.

15. Bend body alternately forward and back, twice each.

16. Bend body first right, then back, left, front; reverse, left, back, right, front, finishing the strain.

17. Same as No. 13, only twist the head.

18. Same as No. 14, only bend the head instead of the body.

EXERCISE 7.

19. Same as No. 15, with head only.

20. Like No. 16, bend head instead of body, right, back, left, front, then reverse.

EXERCISE 8.

21. Arms extended in front, bring them forcibly back to chest eight times.

22. Arms again extended, raise right hand twice without bending the elbow, then left twice, alternately twice, together twice.

EXERCISE 9.

23. Hands closed on chest, thrust down, out, up, and in front, twisting the arms each thrust; repeat.

24. Thrust hands from chest toward floor without bending the knees, stop on chest, then over head, rising on toes, and opening hands at each thrust, continue in half time through the strain.

25. Cross left foot over right, at same time touching fingers over head; then right foot over left, alternately in half time through the strain.



EXERCISE 10.

26. Stamp left foot, then right, charge diagonally forward with right foot, bend and straighten right knee, at the same time carrying arms back from horizontal in front. When the arms are extended in front, the hands should be the width of the shoulders apart.

27. Repeat this exercise on the left side.



FIG. 58.

## *II. EXERCISES WITH DUMB-BELLS.*

**Position.**—Heels together, hips and shoulders back, bells down at sides. One-half of each strain of music is given to the exercise, the other half to what is called "the attitude." In taking these attitudes the bells are brought first to the chest; then, unless otherwise specified, placed upon the hips.

**Directions.**—Step carefully but quickly to all the attitudes.

Rest oftener than in the other exercises.

Use too light, rather than too heavy, dumb-bells. Old-fashioned waltzes are best for these exercises. Scotch airs and airs from popular operas, in this time, can easily be adapted by a skilful musician.

EXERCISE 11.

28. Hands down at sides, palms in front, turn bells four times, bringing them to chest on fourth accented beat.

*Attitude:* Step diagonally forward with right foot, carrying hands to hips, looking over right shoulder.

29. Elbows at sides, turn bells just half-way round four times.

*Attitude:* Step diagonally forward with left foot, looking over left shoulder.

30. Arms extended at sides, turn bell four times.

*Attitude:* Step diagonally back with right foot, looking over right shoulder.

31. Arms extended over head, palms in front, turn bells four times.

*Attitude:* Step diagonally back with left foot, looking over left shoulder.

EXERCISE 12.

32. Bells far back on chest, thrust both down, out at sides, up, and out in front.

*Attitude:* Turn to the right, throw arms up at side without bending the knees. The bells in this attitude should be exactly horizontal and parallel.

33. Repeat No. 32, turning to the left and throwing the arms up on left side.

*Attitude:* Repeat attitude No. 32.

EXERCISE 13.

34. Drop bells at sides, right hand up to armpit once, left once, together twice.

*Attitude:* Drop to sitting position, bells touching the floor, rest through the remainder of the strain.

EXERCISE 14.

35. Bells on shoulders, thrust each up once, both together twice.

*Attitude:* Rise on toes, palms forward, bells parallel.

36. Arms extended in front, turn four times.



*Attitude:* Step diagonally forward with right foot, right hand on hip, looking back at left bell, which is extended in left hand.



FIG. 59.

EXERCISE 15.

37. Arms extended sideways at an angle of forty-five degrees, turn bells four times.

*Attitude:* Step forward with left foot, left hand on hip, looking back at right bell, which is extended in right hand.

EXERCISE 16.

38. Bells on chest, right hand down, then up, left hand the same.

*Attitude:* Turn body to the right, thrust right hand obliquely up, palm up; left hand obliquely down, palm down.

EXERCISE 17.

39. Bells on chest, right hand up, left down; reverse, then both down, both up.

*Attitude:* Turn to left, thrust hands up and down, as in No. 38.

EXERCISE 18.

40. Arms extended in front, palms opposite, right hand up once, left the same, both together up twice.

This should be done without bending the elbows.

*Attitude:* Step diagonally forward with right foot, the body and head thrown forward, and arms thrown wide apart.

41. Repeat No. 40.

*Attitude:* Repeat attitude No. 40, on the left side.

EXERCISE 19.

42. Arms extended at sides, right arm up once, left once, both twice, without bending the knees.

*Attitude:* Step diagonally back with right foot, right hand up, with bell perpendicular, left hand on hip.

43. Repeat No. 42.

*Attitude:* Repeat attitude on left side.

EXERCISE 20.

44. Arms extended, with bells parallel in front, bring the bells back forcibly upon the chest four times.

*Attitude:* Fold the arms with bells closely pressed against the chest, and bend back slowly from the waist.

---

## *III. EXERCISE WITH WANDS.*

**Directions.**—Always select a wand just long enough to reach the armpit when placed on the floor at one's side. All exercises from behind the head or back should be taken with caution, and avoided altogether by those with weak backs.

**Position.**—Heels together, hips and shoulders well back. The wand is held in front of the right shoulder, till first signal from piano, which consists of three chords struck with both hands, the first being the length of the other two; then drop it horizontally in front of the body. At second signal raise the wand till the arms are extended in horizontal position in front of body, place the hands so as to divide the wand into three equal parts. At third signal, carry the wand back to second position down in front.



The simplest of Strauss's waltzes must be used, or those of other composers similar in style.

EXERCISE 21.

45. Raise the wand to chin four times, keeping elbows high, last time carry it above the head, then bring down under chin four times.

46. Carry wand from above the head nearly to floor, four times, without bending knees or elbows, then down back of the neck four times.

47. Carry wand from above the head to chin, and then back of neck, alternately four times each.



FIG. 60.

EXERCISE 22.

48. Wand over head. On first beat, carry right hand to right end of wand; on second beat, left hand to left end, then carry hand back of head to hips, six times, keeping elbows stiff.

49. Carry wand back from above head down nearly to floor; and then back to hips, four times, alternately four times each.

50. Carry wand from above the head to right and left sides alternately eight times, keeping elbows stiff, and stopping exactly over head each time.

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EXERCISE 23.

51. On first beat, let go wand with left hand, place end of wand on floor between feet. On second beat, place wand on floor at arm's length, diagonally forward on right side. Step with right foot to wand through rest of strain, keeping right arm, left knee, and wand perfectly straight.

52. Repeat No. 51 on left side.

53. Repeat No. 51, keeping the foot stationary, the knee bending with each accented beat.

54. Repeat No. 53 on left side.

EXERCISE 24.

55. Arms horizontal in front, wand held perpendicularly, bring wand back to chest eight times, keeping elbows high.

56. Wand and arms in same position, bring wand to right and left shoulders alternately four times each. In passing the wand from one side to the other, raise the arms straight to a horizontal position in front.



FIG. 61.

EXERCISE 25.

57. Hands in front of chest, point wand diagonally forward at an angle of forty-five degrees, first to the right, then to the left, alternately through strain, making the change of hands just in front of chin.

58. With wand pointing in the same direction as in last exercise, step diagonally forward with right and left foot alternately through strain.



59. Repeat No. 58, only step back instead of forward, leading with left foot instead of right, keeping wand pointing forward.

EXERCISE 26.

60. Wand horizontal over head, right hand in front, reverse position, bringing left hand in front, on half time through the strain.

61. Same position, right face, bend forward, bringing wand to perpendicular on right side, four times.

62. Repeat No. 61, on left side.

EXERCISE 27.

63. On first beat, put left end of wand on floor in front of feet; on second beat, carry wand at arm's length in front, charge right foot to wand twice, left four times, changing hands and feet at same time.

64. Right foot back four times, right hand on wand, same with left hand and foot.

65. Right foot forward and back four times, left the same, holding wand in same position as last exercise.

66. Both hands on wand in front, right foot forward left back at the same time, reverse and repeat.

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## *IV. EXERCISES WITH RINGS.*

**Directions.**—These exercises are performed in couples, partners facing each other about three feet apart; the one standing on right of teacher on platform, holding both rings.

Schottische time is the best, but slow marches and quick-steps can be used.

In all exercises, turning back to back, be careful and not

pull suddenly, and never let go the ring before the word is given.

Always stand at such a distance from next couple that there can be no hitting of rings.

The rings should always be strongly made, and about six inches in diameter.

### Exercise 28.

67. On first beat of music, the ring in right hand is extended, and grasped by partner's right hand. Second beat, right feet together, toes touching; on third beat, left feet back at right angles with right feet, with left hands upon hips. Turn the ring over half-way and then back to place through rest of strain, keeping perfect time.

68. Repeat No. 67, only use left hand and left foot, instead of right.

69. Repeat No. 67, only first join both hands, on second beat, right feet together, third beat, step back, as before, turn rings through strain.

70. Repeat No. 69, with both hands joined and left feet touching, right feet back, turn rings through strain.

### Exercise 29.

71. On first beat, turn back to back, on second beat, left feet together, charge directly forward with right feet; head and shoulders well thrown back, pull evenly with partner, and turn the rings through strain.

72. Repeat No. 71, with right feet together, left out in front, turn rings through strain.

### Exercise 30.

73. On first beat, turn face to face, on second beat, raise arms above head, then lower rings without bending knees,



looking alternately to right and left of partner through strain.

74. First beat, lift arms towards platform, high up at side, the others low down at the opposite side, carry them alternately up and down through half the strain, then both together, half a strain.

### Exercise 31.

75. First beat, turn back to back, charge diagonally forward with right and left feet alternately through strain.

76. First beat, turn face to face, place left foot inside partner's left, short step back with right foot at right angles with the left. Rings over head held firmly, arms perfectly straight, sway alternately through the strain.

77. Repeat No. 76, with right feet together, instead of left.

### Exercise 32.

78. First beat, turn back to back, charge up and down the hall alternately twice each; charge with right feet at same time, then left feet at same time alternately through rest of strain.

79. First beat, turn face to face, repeat No. 78.



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APPENDIX G

University of Toronto
Curriculum For Diploma in Gymnastics
and Physical Drill,
1901*

A diploma will be granted to students of the University who shall have completed to the satisfaction of the Senate the following courses for teachers of Gymnastics and Physical Drill:-

I. A theoretical course embracing anthropological measurements and the general methods adopted to improve the physical condition of the student.

II. A practical course embracing the following exercises:-

For Men.

1. (a) Horizontal Bar.
   (b) Parallel Bars.
   (c) Vaulting Horse.
2. Rifle exercise and military drill.
3. Club-swinging and dumb-bells.
4. Fencing, single-stick and quarter-staff.
5. Boxing and wrestling.

Of these, 1 and 2 to be compulsory, together with any one of 3, 4 or 5.

For Women.

1. Exercises for the chest and upper extremities.
   (a) Dumb-bells and bar-bells.
   (b) Club-swinging and basket-ball.
   (c) Swedish exercises for harmonic expansion.
2. Progressive exercises including walking, running, leaping, marching and drill with use of vaulting bar and horse.
3. Calisthenics, including poise and ease, freedom and harmony of movement.

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*Calendar, The University of Toronto, 1901-1902, p. 278.

APPENDIX G (Continued)

4. Vocal exercises, including breathing, freedom and strength of voice, expression, quantity, rhythm and melody.
5. Exercises, involving correlation of muscular movement with the eye, including fencing, archery, tennis and other exercises of quickness and precision.

Numbers 1, 2 and 3 are required of all students, and an option of 4 and 5. An examination will be required in elementary anatomy and hygiene.

III. All candidates for the diploma shall present certificates of having completed a three years' course of instruction in the subjects of examination. Such course of instruction shall be taken in the Gymnasium of the University of Toronto, but courses of instruction elsewhere may, by special permission of the Senate, be accepted pro tanto.

IV. The fee for examination shall be $2, and for the diploma $2.

APPENDIX H

Statistics Comparing the Number of Pupils Taking Physical Training to the Number Taking Another "Regular" Subject Such as Spelling or Composition in the Elementary Schools, 1871-1933*

| Year<br>School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1871 | | | |
| Cities | 22,743 | 868 | 3.81 |
| Towns | 30,558 | 1,505 | 4.92 |
| Counties | 240,015 | 7,825 | 3.26 |
| Total | 293,316 | 10,198 | 3.48 |
| 1872 | | | |
| Cities | 24,651 | 738 | 2.99 |
| Towns | 33,690 | 3,222 | 9.56 |
| Counties | 304,362 | 7,603 | 2.50 |
| Total | 362,703 | 11,563 | 3.19 |
| 1873 | | | |
| Cities | 25,616 | 881 | 3.44 |
| Towns | 38,272 | 3,556 | 9.29 |
| Counties | 321,369 | 8,935 | 2.78 |
| Total | 385,257 | 13,372 | 3.47 |
| 1874 | | | |
| Cities | 28,801 | 1,965 | 6.82 |
| Towns | 43,338 | 3,589 | 8.28 |
| Counties | 339,794 | 11,231 | 3.31 |
| Total | 411,933 | 16,785 | 4.07 |
| 1875 | | | |
| Cities | 31,208 | 3,199 | 10.25 |
| Towns | 46,956 | 2,285 | 4.87 |
| Counties | 350,432 | 9,566 | 2.73 |
| Total | 428,596 | 15,050 | 3.51 |

*Extracted from the Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1871-1933.

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year / School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1876 | | | |
| Cities | 33,944 | 1,865 | 5.49 |
| Towns | 49,577 | 1,744 | 3.52 |
| Counties | 360,760 | 12,970 | 3.60 |
| Total | 444,281 | 16,579 | 3.73 |
| 1877 Report missing. | | | |
| 1878 | | | |
| Cities | 38,650 | 8,917 | 23.07 |
| Towns | 41,939 | 8,601 | 20.51 |
| Counties | 309,916 | 21,895 | 7.06 |
| Total | 390,495 | 39,413 | 10.09 |
| 1879 | | | |
| Cities | 39,279 | 13,073 | 33.28 |
| Towns | 44,307 | 7,114 | 16.06 |
| Counties | 314,573 | 38,320 | 12.18 |
| Total | 398,159 | 58,507 | 14.69 |
| 1880 | | | |
| Cities | 40,28[illegible] | 15,983 | 39.68 |
| Towns | 44,819 | 7,441 | 16.60 |
| Counties | 311,252 | 49,439 | 15.88 |
| Total | 396,353 | 72,863 | 18.38 |
| 1881 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1882 | | | |
| Cities | 44,252 | 30,675 | 69.31 |
| Towns | 47,540 | 15,420 | 32.44 |
| Counties | 299,128 | 57,859 | 19.34 |
| Total | 390,920 | 103,954 | 26.59 |
| 1883 | | | |
| Cities | 48,980 | 34,680 | 70.80 |
| Towns | 50,385 | 17,416 | 34.57 |
| Counties | 312,507 | 48,435 | [illegible]5.50 |
| Total | 411,872 | 100,531 | 24.41 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year<br>School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1884 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1885 | | | |
| Cities | 55,593 | 41,322 | 74.33 |
| Towns | 49,994 | 24,483 | 48.97 |
| Counties | 316,536 | 76,519 | 24.17 |
| Total | 422,123 | 142,324 | 33.72 |
| 1886 | | | |
| Cities | 59,895 | 43,545 | 72.70 |
| Towns | 53,118 | 25,002 | 47.06 |
| Counties | 341,786 | 90,128 | 26.37 |
| Total | 454,799 | 158,675 | 34.89 |
| 1887 | | | |
| Cities | 63,946 | 51,501 | 80.54 |
| Towns | 57,933 | 29,431 | 50.80 |
| Counties | 344,510 | 98,077 | 28.47 |
| Total | 466,389 | 179,009 | 38.38 |
| 1888 | | | |
| Cities | 54,302 | 48,422 | 89.17 |
| Towns | 53,824 | 33,326 | 61.92 |
| Counties | 334,854 | 118,695 | 35.45 |
| Total | 443,080 | 200,443 | 45.24 |
| 1889 | | | |
| Cities | 57,759 | 54,129 | 93.72 |
| Towns | 55,782 | 33,729 | 60.47 |
| Counties | 332,461 | 121,879 | 36.66 |
| Total | 446,002 | 209,737 | 47.03 |
| 1890 | | | |
| Cities | 60,163 | 58,173 | 96.69 |
| Towns | 62,502 | 41,025 | 65.64 |
| Counties | 319,242 | 126,544 | 39.64 |
| Total | 441,907 | 225,742 | 51.08 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year / School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1891 | | | |
| Cities | 60,163 | 56,628 | 94.12 |
| Towns | 60,240 | 41,771 | 69.34 |
| Counties | 313,690 | 125,599 | 40.03 |
| Total | 434,093 | 223,998 | 51.60 |
| 1892 | | | |
| Cities | 62,531 | 59,237 | 94.73 |
| Towns | 60,031 | 39,309 | 65.48 |
| Counties | 307,389 | 124,441 | 40.48 |
| Total | 429,951 | 222,987 | 51.86 |
| 1893 | | | |
| Cities | 62,480 | 60,265 | 96.45 |
| Towns | 59,715 | 40,687 | 68.14 |
| Counties | 304,155 | 116,179 | 38.20 |
| Total | 426,350 | 217,131 | 50.93 |
| 1894 | | | |
| Cities | 63,636 | 59,198 | 93.03 |
| Towns | 61,077 | 36,344 | 59.51 |
| Counties | 304,103 | 124,006 | 40.78 |
| Total | 428,816 | 219,548 | 51.20 |
| 1895 | | | |
| Cities | 65,465 | 60,917 | 93.05 |
| Towns | 60,921 | 37,141 | 60.97 |
| Counties | 304,302 | 132,736 | 43.62 |
| Total | 430,688 | 230,794 | 53.59 |
| 1896 | | | |
| Cities | 65,574 | 64,359 | 98.15 |
| Towns | 60,510 | 38,550 | 63.71 |
| Counties | 298,252 | 132,313 | 44.36 |
| Total | 424,336 | 235,222 | 55.43 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year / School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1897 | | | |
| Cities | 66,585 | 66,296 | 99.57 |
| Towns | 61,483 | 39,316 | 63.95 |
| Counties | 297,733 | 135,870 | 45.63 |
| Total | 425,801 | 241,482 | 56.71 |
| 1898 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1899 | | | |
| Cities | 66,860 | 64,406 | 96.33 |
| Towns | 61,283 | 41,333 | 67.45 |
| Counties | 292,451 | 132,006 | 45.14 |
| Total | 420,594 | 237,745 | 56.53 |
| 1900 | | | |
| Cities | 67,279 | 64,452 | 95.80 |
| Towns | 61,338 | 39,691 | 64.71 |
| Counties | 282,916 | 135,492 | 47.89 |
| Total | 411,533 | 239,635 | 58.23 |
| 1901 | | | |
| Cities | 68,627 | 66,225 | 96.50 |
| Towns | 60,848 | 43,019 | 70.70 |
| Counties | 277,605 | 135,850 | 48.94 |
| Total | 407,080 | 245,094 | 60.21 |
| 1902 | | | |
| Cities | 66,776 | 61,985 | 92.83 |
| Towns | 60,860 | 42,216 | 69.37 |
| Counties | 271,716 | 137,914 | 50.76 |
| Total | 399,352 | 242,115 | 60.63 |
| 1903 | | | |
| Cities | 66,113 | 59,671 | 90.26 |
| Towns | 63,024 | 43,322 | 68.74 |
| Counties | 267,457 | 139,344 | 52.10 |
| Total | 396,594 | 242,337 | 61.10 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year<br>School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1904 | | | |
| Cities | 68,050 | 45,719 | 67.18 |
| Towns | 63,029 | 48,276 | 76.59 |
| Counties | 260,154 | 135,825 | 52.21 |
| Total | 391,233 | 229,820 | 58.74 |
| 1905 | | | |
| Cities | 63,550 | 65,765 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 55,734 | 43,955 | 78.87 |
| Counties | 182,558 | 121,819 | 66.74 |
| Total | 301,842 | 231,539 | 76.71 |
| 1906 | | | |
| Cities | 67,021 | 65,011 | 97.00 |
| Towns | 59,535 | 42,112 | 70.73 |
| Counties | 194,250 | 118,311 | 60.91 |
| Total | 320,806 | 225,434 | 70.27 |
| 1907 | | | |
| Cities | 71,575 | 72,814 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 57,716 | 43,303 | 75.03 |
| Counties | 193,128 | 113,837 | 58.94 |
| Total | 322,419 | 229,954 | 71.32 |
| 1908 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1909 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 167,256 | 100,913 | 60.33 |
| Cities | 72,959 | 71,773 | 98.32 |
| Towns | 57,937 | 40,804 | 70.43 |
| Villages | 23,211 | 13,680 | 58.94 |
| Total | 321,363 | 227,130 | 70.68 |
| 1910 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 168,904 | 104,982 | 62.15 |
| Cities | 78,953 | 76,609 | 97.03 |
| Towns | 58,241 | 41,568 | 71.37 |
| Villages | 24,026 | 10,983 | 45.71 |
| Total | 330,124 | 234,142 | 70.93 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year / School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1911 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 165,338 | 109,847 | 66.44 |
| Cities | 88,775 | 90,116 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 57,725 | 47,407 | 82.13 |
| Villages | 22,867 | 15,555 | 68.02 |
| Total | 334,705 | 262,925 | 78.55 |
| 1912 Report missing. | | | |
| 1913 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 166,700 | 167,804 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 102,588 | 105,110 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 55,938 | 54,597 | 97.60 |
| Villages | 22,749 | 20,752 | 91.22 |
| Total | 347,975 | 348,262 | 100.00 |
| 1914 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 169,205 | 173,617 | 100.00* |
| Cities | 114,150 | 115,256 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 58,494 | 59,381 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,957 | 21,707 | 98.86 |
| Total | 363,806 | 369,961 | 100.00 |
| 1915 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 172,007 | 181,549 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 122,206 | 124,730 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 58,573 | 60,696 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 23,596 | 22,661 | 100.00 |
| Total | 376,382 | 389,636 | 100.00 |
| 1916 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 179,806 | 191,369 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 128,033 | 127,546 | 99.62 |
| Towns | 59,877 | 61,636 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 23,651 | 23,201 | 98.10 |
| Total | 391,967 | 403,752 | 100.00 |

*Most of the following percentages are actually well over 100.00 per cent. However, for purposes of this dissertation, it is necessary only to indicate the 100.00 per cent level.

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year<br>School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1917 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 178,375 | 196,908 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 132,138 | 135,613 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 61,676 | 64,307 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 23,295 | 23,872 | 100.00 |
| Total | 395,484 | 420,700 | 100.00 |
| 1918 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 176,710 | 192,811 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 140,880 | 147,510 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 61,522 | 66,207 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,933 | 23,554 | 100.00 |
| Total | 401,045 | 430,082 | 100.00 |
| 1919 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 172,070 | 190,282 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 145,755 | 152,724 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 61,528 | 64,069 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,039 | 22,521 | 100.00 |
| Total | 400,039 | 429,596 | 100.00 |
| 1920 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 175,198 | 193,617 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 150,179 | 162,342 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 62,688 | 67,734 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,605 | 22,313 | 100.00 |
| Total | 410,210 | 446,006 | 100.00 |
| 1921 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 175,278 | 198,526 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 165,230 | 173,465 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 62,075 | 68,348 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,422 | 23,140 | 100.00 |
| Total | 424,005 | 463,479 | 100.00 |
| 1922 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 183,460 | 204,899 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 170,089 | 179,353 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 63,844 | 70,025 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,456 | 22,172 | 100.00 |
| Total | 438,849 | 476,449 | 100.00 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year<br>School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1923 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 190,140 | 211,700 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 167,723 | 185,150 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 65,685 | 71,253 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,442 | 22,345 | 100.00 |
| Total | 444,990 | 490,448 | 100.00 |
| 1924 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 190,706 | 210,476 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 181,026 | 191,601 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 68,357 | 74,400 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,437 | 22,077 | 100.00 |
| Total | 461,526 | 498,564 | 100.00 |
| 1925 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 194,060 | 210,191 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 187,702 | 193,833 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 67,779 | 71,632 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,531 | 21,947 | 100.00 |
| Total | 471,072 | 497,603 | 100.00 |
| 1926 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 194,671 | 212,380 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 187,551 | 192,931 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 67,531 | 70,769 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,087 | 22,363 | 100.00 |
| Total | 470,840 | 498,443 | 100.00 |
| 1927 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 196,642 | 209,863 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 191,949 | 198,431 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 69,777 | 73,850 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 21,259 | 22,022 | 100.00 |
| Total | 479,627 | 504,166 | 100.00 |
| 1928 | | | |
| Rural Schools | 199,986 | 215,161 | 100.00 |
| Cities | 193,600 | 204,532 | 100.00 |
| Towns | 69,376 | 74,306 | 100.00 |
| Villages | 22,011 | 22,758 | 100.00 |
| Total | 484,973 | 516,757 | 100.00 |

APPENDIX H (Continued)

| Year<br>School Division | A. Number Taking Spelling | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1929 | | | |
| Rural | 203,154 | 216,481 | 100.00 |
| Urban | 287,584 | 304,096 | 100.00 |
| Total | 490,738 | 520,577 | 100.00 |
| 1930 | | | |
| Rural | 198,460 | 219,304 | 100.00 |
| Urban | 291,930 | 309,983 | 100.00 |
| Total | 490,390 | 529,287 | 100.00 |
| 1931 | | | |
| Rural | 208,209 | 215,820 | 100.00 |
| Urban | 293,642 | 308,244 | 100.00 |
| Total | 501,851 | 524,064 | 100.00 |
| 1932 | | | |
| Rural | 216,703 | 218,355 | 100.00 |
| Urban | 245,983 | 309,297 | 100.00 |
| Total | 462,686 | 527,652 | 100.00 |
| 1933 | | | |
| Rural | 215,886 | 223,688 | 100.00 |
| Urban | 303,414 | 311,752 | 100.00 |
| Total | 519,300 | 535,440 | 100.00 |

After 1933, public and separate school statistics were combined. Since this dissertation did not focus on the separate school system these statistics were omitted after 1933.

## APPENDIX I

Statistics Comparing the Number of Students Taking Physical Training to the Number Taking English Composition in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, 1875-1927*

| Year | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| Secondary School | | | |
| 1875 High Schools | 8,130 | 536 | 6.59 |
| 1876 High Schools | - | 388 | - |
| 1877 Report missing. | | | |
| 1878 High Schools | 10,486 | 1,822 | 17.38 |
| 1879 High Schools | 12,015 | 2,851 | 23.73 |
| 1880 High Schools | 12,288 | 2,697 | 21.95 |
| 1881 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1882 High Schools | 12,275 | 4,259 | 34.70 |
| 1883 High Schools | 11,259 | 5,000 | 44.41 |
| 1884 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1885 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1886 Statistics not given. | | | |
| 1887 Statistics not given. | | | |

*Extracted from the Annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, 1875-1927.

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year / Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | | | | Percentage Total B over A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Drill | Calisthenics | Gymnastics | Total | |
| 1888 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 7,219 | 3,722 | 2,645 | 2,383 | 8,750 | Not |
| High Schools | 10,440 | 1,670 | 1,380 | 202 | 3,252 | appropriate* |
| 1889 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 8,187 | 4,104 | 4,022 | 3,490 | 11,616 | Not |
| High Schools | 10,224 | 1,689 | 532 | 403 | 2,624 | appropriate |
| 1890 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 8,962 | 5,335 | 5,447 | 5,160 | 15,942 | Not |
| High Schools | 10,204 | 3,060 | 3,452 | 951 | 7,463 | appropriate |
| 1891 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 9,951 | 6,764 | 6,230 | 4,707 | 17,701 | Not |
| High Schools | 11,945 | 5,184 | 4,668 | 844 | 10,696 | appropriate |

*The total of the various forms of physical training indicate a considerable amount of overlap among students taking drill, calisthenics and gymnastics. Therefore it is impossible to give accurate percentage figures between the years 1888 to 1899 inclusive.

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year / Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | | | | Percentage Total B over A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Drill | Calisthenics | Gymnastics | Total | |
| 1892 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 11,065 | 7,630 | 7,348 | 5,829 | 20,807 | Not appropriate |
| High Schools | 11,465 | 5,135 | 4,776 | 924 | 10,835 | |
| 1893 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 11,299 | 7,858 | 7,753 | 6,836 | 22,447 | Not appropriate |
| High Schools | 11,562 | 5,620 | 5,330 | 1,619 | 12,569 | |
| 1894 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 11,297 | 7,729 | 7,934 | 6,981 | 22,664 | Not appropriate |
| High Schools | 12,051 | 5,539 | 5,121 | 1,409 | 12,069 | |
| 1895 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 12,098 | 8,191 | 7,957 | 7,038 | 23,186 | Not appropriate |
| High Schools | 12,251 | 5,526 | 4,281 | 1,200 | 11,007 | |

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year / Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | | | | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Drill | Calisthenics | Gymnastics | Total | Total B over A |
| 1896 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 10,865 | 8,245 | 8,342 | 7,030 | 23,617 | Not |
| High Schools | 11,364 | 4,600 | 3,677 | 823 | 9,100 | appropriate |
| 1897 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 9,610 | 8,313 | 7,162 | 5,939 | 21,414 | Not |
| High Schools | 9,981 | 3,520 | 2,989 | 804 | 7,313 | appropriate |
| 1898 Statistics not given. | | | | | | |
| 1899 | | | | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 11,226 | 6,970 | 6,788 | 5,770 | 19,528 | Not |
| High Schools | 11,088 | 2,714 | 1,684 | 615 | 5,013 | appropriate |

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year / Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1900 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 10,943 | 9,130 | 83.43 |
| High Schools | 10,439 | 3,100 | 29.70 |
| 1901 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 11,471 | 9,445 | 82.34 |
| High Schools | 10,655 | 2,983 | 28.00 |
| 1902 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 12,800 | 10,426 | 81.45 |
| High Schools | 11,441 | 2,341 | 20.46 |
| 1903 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 13,637 | 11,106 | 81.44 |
| High Schools | 11,123 | 2,533 | 22.77 |
| 1904 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 14,673 | 11,640 | 79.33 |
| High Schools | 12,625 | 2,989 | 23.68 |
| 1905 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 14,956 | 11,685 | 78.13 |
| High Schools | 12,711 | 3,020 | 23.76 |
| 1906 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 15,260 | 12,448 | 81.57 |
| High Schools | 13,361 | 2,316 | 17.33 |
| 1907 | | | |
| Collegiate Institutes | 15,779 | 12,475 | 79.06 |
| High Schools | 13,604 | 2,870 | 21.10 |

1908 Statistics not given.

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year<br>Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1909 | | | |
| 42 Collegiate Institutes | 16,388 | 13,373 | 81.60 |
| 103 High Schools | 14,543 | 4,631 | 31.84 |
| 1910 | | | |
| 43 Collegiate Institutes | 16,829 | 15,069 | 89.54 |
| 102 High Schools | 15,131 | 5,946 | 39.30 |
| 1911 | | | |
| 44 Collegiate Institutes | 17,159 | 16,668 | 97.14 |
| 102 High Schools | 14,491 | 9,081 | 62.67 |
| 1912 Report missing. | | | |
| 1913 | | | |
| 44 Collegiate Institutes | 17,060 | 16,816 | 98.57 |
| 104 High Schools | 13,996 | 12,291 | 87.82 |
| 1914 | | | |
| 44 Colegiate Institutes | 17,231 | 17,329 | 100.00 |
| 117 High Schools | 15,247 | 13,825 | 90.67 |
| 1915 | | | |
| 48 Collegiate Institutes | 19,636 | 20,074 | 100.00 |
| 113 High Schools | 15,123 | 14,279 | 94.42 |
| 1916 | | | |
| 48 Collegiate Institutes | 21,397 | 21,581 | 100.00 |
| 112 High Schools | 15,917 | 15,581 | 97.89 |
| 1917 | | | |
| 48 Collegiate Institutes | 15,956 | 15,866 | 99.44 |
| 112 High Schools | 11,892 | 11,808 | 99.29 |

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year / Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1918 | | | |
| 47 Collegiate Institutes | 16,219 | 16,476 | 100.00 |
| 115 High Schools | 11,910 | 12,181 | 100.00 |
| 1919 | | | |
| 47 Collegiate Institutes | 17,085 | 17,381 | 100.00 |
| 117 High Schools | 12,817 | 12,919 | 100.00 |
| 1920 | | | |
| 47 Collegiate Institutes | 18,468 | 18,592 | 100.00 |
| 120 High Schools | 13,746 | 13,976 | 100.00 |
| 1921 | | | |
| 47 Collegiate Institutes | 18,952 | 18,777 | 99.08 |
| 121 High Schools | 14,308 | 14,450 | 100.00 |
| 1922 | | | |
| 47 Collegiate Institutes | 22,246 | 22,052 | 99.13 |
| 123 High Schools | 16,113 | 16,477 | 100.00 |
| 1923 | | | |
| 49 Collegiate Institutes | 25,532 | 24,724 | 96.84 |
| 126 High Schools | 17,558 | 17,602 | 100.00 |
| 1924 | | | |
| 50 Collegiate Institutes | 26,845 | 26,804 | 99.85 |
| 133 High Schools | 19,404 | 19,505 | 100.00 |
| 1925 | | | |
| 50 Collegiate Institutes | 28,565 | 29,757 | 100.00 |
| 133 High Schools | 20,331 | 20,202 | 99.37 |

APPENDIX I (Continued)

| Year / Secondary School | A. Number Taking English Composition | B. Number Taking Physical Training | Percentage B over A |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1926 | | | |
| 52 Collegiate Institutes | 29,393 | 30,382 | 100.00 |
| 134 High Schools | 20,134 | 20,916 | 100.00 |
| 1927 | | | |
| 56 Collegiate Institutes | 29,437 | 30,743 | 100.00 |
| 136 High Schools | 20,370 | 21,222 | 100.00 |

No statistics were listed in the Reports after 1927.

# APPENDIX J

## High School Cadet Corps
## Classes in Military Instruction
## Instructions No. 10, January, 1898.

Instructions No. 10.
1,000, January, 1895.

# HIGH SCHOOL CADET CORPS.

## Classes in Military Instruction.

In accordance with the provisions of section 10 of the High Schools Act, 1896, any High School or Collegiate Institute Board may establish classes in military instruction, and shall be entitled to an annual grant of $50, under conditions detailed in the above section, and regulations as to examination and inspection prescribed by the Education Department.

In order that the conditions and regulations for the establishment of companies of High School Cadets might be in harmony with the military tactics sanctioned by the Militia Department, the Minister of Education submitted draft regulations to the Minister of Militia for his consideration. After consultation with the High School Inspectors and the officers of the Militia Department, the following regulations, which contain the conditions upon which the grant is to be paid, were approved:—

### General.

1. High school cadet corps may be formed for instruction in military drill and training in the High Schools or Collegiate Institutes, but such corps shall on no account be employed in active service.

2. Application for permission to form a company shall be sent to the Minister of Education for Ontario for transmission to the Minister of Militia and Defence.

3. The following will be supplied to each company, free of charge, by the Department of Militia, on application through the Minister of Education:

(*a*) Breech loading rifles of the Snider-Enfield or other approved pattern with bayonet and scabbard complete.

(*b*) Accoutrements, consisting of a waist belt with ball-bag and bayonet frog.

4. The Board of Trustees shall make itself responsible by a written undertaking for the value of the arms and accoutrements to be entrusted to it, and shall return them in good order to the Department of Militia when required to do so.

5. The Board of Trustees shall provide a suitable room, fitted with lock-up arm racks, to be used as an armory, and shall satisfy the Department of Militia that the arms and accoutrements will receive proper care.

6. The company shall consist of not fewer than twenty-five young men, over sixteen years of age, actually attending the High School or Collegiate Institute.

7. On or before the first day of October, the Board of Trustees shall send to the Minister of Education, for transmission to the Department of Militia, a roll, signed by the then existing members of the company. On this roll shall be designated one suitable member of the company as captain, and two other suitable members as lieutenants. The Board of Trustees shall recommend from time to time other suitable persons to fill such vacancies as may occur in the list of officers, and shall maintain a company roll of not fewer than twenty-five members.

8. The Board of Trustees shall see that the members of its company are provided with a uniform forage-cap, or other military head dress, as may be preferred. If the rest of the uniform is provided, it may be composed of a scarlet, blue, grey, or rifle green tunic or Norfolk jacket, with blue, black, gray or rifle-green trousers. The uniform, or any part thereof, provided, shall be subject to the approval of the Minister of Militia. Clothing of any pattern worn by cadets or soldiers in foreign countries will not be approved.

9. The company shall be instructed in the course contained in the sections of the authorized Infantry Drill and Rifle Exercises detailed below. This instruction shall form part of the regular course in the High School or Collegiate Institute, and suitable days and hours shall be specified therefor in the regular time table of the school. Regular attendance and proper discipline shall be enforced by the principal of the school.

10. The Board of Trustees shall permit the inspection and examination of the arms and accoutrements, and of the cadet company, at any time, by any officer who may be detailed for that duty by the Minister of Militia.

## Qualification of Instructors.

11. The instructor of each cadet company shall be a regular member of the High School or Collegiate Institute staff, holding at least either a second class B military school certificate or a High School cadet instructor's certificate.

## Course of Instruction.

12. The course of instruction to be taken up by each company of the Ontario High School Cadet Corps shall be as follows:

Infantry Drill, 1896:—

Part I. Squad Drill, sec. 1 to 45. Physical Drill, with arms, 16, 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th, practices by numbers and judging the time. Extended order, sec. 47 to 57.

Part II. Company Drill, sec. 58 to 75.

Part IX. Ceremonial, sec. 181 to 183.

5. The Board of Trustees shall provide a suitable room, fitted with lock-up arm racks, to be used as an armory, and shall satisfy the Department of Militia that the arms and accoutrements will receive proper care.

6. The company shall consist of not fewer than twenty-five young men, over sixteen years of age, actually attending the High School or Collegiate Institute.

7. On or before the first day of October, the Board of Trustees shall send to the Minister of Education, for transmission to the Department of Militia, a roll, signed by the then existing members of the company. On this roll shall be designated one suitable member of the company as captain, and two other suitable members as lieutenants. The Board of Trustees shall recommend from time to time other suitable persons to fill such vacancies as may occur in the list of officers, and shall maintain a company roll of not fewer than twenty-five members.

8. The Board of Trustees shall see that the members of its company are provided with a uniform forage-cap, or other military head dress, as may be preferred. If the rest of the uniform is provided, it may be composed of a scarlet, blue, grey, or rifle green tunic or Norfolk jacket, with blue, black, gray or rifle-green trousers. The uniform, or any part thereof, provided, shall be subject to the approval of the Minister of Militia. Clothing of any pattern worn by cadets or soldiers in foreign countries will not be approved.

9. The company shall be instructed in the course contained in the sections of the authorized Infantry Drill and Rifle Exercises detailed below. This instruction shall form part of the regular course in the High School or Collegiate Institute, and suitable days and hours shall be specified therefor in the regular time table of the school. Regular attendance and proper discipline shall be enforced by the principal of the school.

10. The Board of Trustees shall permit the inspection and examination of the arms and accoutrements, and of the cadet company, at any time, by any officer who may be detailed for that duty by the Minister of Militia.

## Qualification of Instructors.

11. The instructor of each cadet company shall be a regular member of the High School or Collegiate Institute staff, holding at least either a second class B military school certificate or a High School cadet instructor's certificate.

## Course of Instruction.

12. The course of instruction to be taken up by each company of the Ontario High School Cadet Corps shall be as follows:

Infantry Drill, 1896:—

Part I. Squad Drill, sec. 1 to 45. Physical Drill, with arms, 16, 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th, practices by numbers and judging the time. Extended order, sec. 47 to 57.

Part II. Company Drill, sec. 58 to 75.

Part IX. Ceremonial, sec. 181 to 183.

Rifle Exercises:—

Manual Firing and Bayonet Exercises for Canadian Militia, 1894. Manual Exercise for Short Rifle, page 23, Parts I, II, and III.

INSPECTION AND EXAMINATION OF COMPANIES.

13. In May or June of each year, an officer, detailed for this duty by the Minister of Militia, shall examine and inspect each company and its arms and accoutrements, and shall report the result to the Adjutant General of Militia. On the report of the Minister of Militia to the Minister of Education for Ontario, that such inspection and examination have been satisfactory, the Minister of Education shall pay the sum of $50 for the current year to the Board of Trustees concerned.

HIGH SCHOOL CADET INSTRUCTOR'S CERTIFICATES.

In order to afford High School Teachers an opportunity of qualifying themselves to act as instructors of cadet companies, a special course of instruction will be provided in Toronto next July and August, lasting about one month. Details as to dates and other arrangements will be supplied by the Education Department on or about the first of May next. Teachers attending will be drilled by instructors from No. 2 Regimental Depot. At the close of the course, teachers in attendance, and such other teachers as may present themselves, will be examined by an officer of the Department. Each successful candidate will be granted a special certificate to be called "High School Cadet Instructor's Certificate."

The course of instruction for the certificate shall be as follows:

Infantry Drill, 1896:—

Definitions as far as Tactics.

Part I. Squad drill, sec. 1 to 45. Physical drill, with arms, 16 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th, practices of numbers and judging the time. Extended order, sec. 47 to 57.

Part II. Company Drill, sec. 58 to 75.

Part IX. Ceremonial, sec. 181 to 183.

Rifle Exercises:—

Manual Firing and Bayonet Exercise for the Canadian Militia, 1894, Parts I, II and III.

Candidates at the examination will be required not only to show themselves proficient in the different exercises prescribed above, but also to be able to instruct a company or squad thereon.

# APPENDIX K

Constitution of the Strathcona Trust, 1909,
and Collected Documents Relating
to the Formulation of the Strathcona Trust.

CONSTITUTION OF

# THE STRATHCONA TRUST, 1909

FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF PHYSICAL AND MILITARY TRAINING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

1. The following shall be the officers of the Trust:—

Patron—His Excellency the Governor-General of Canada.

Vice-Patron—The Right Honourable Sir Wilfrid Laurier, G.C.M.G., Premier.

President—The Honourable Sir F.W. Borden, K.C.M.G., or the Minister of Militia for the time being.

Vice-Presidents—The Minister in charge of Education in each Province of the Dominion which shall have notified its adhesion to the arrangements regarding Physical Training and Military Drill in public schools, sanctioned by Orders-in-Council of 13th August, 1908.

Executive Council—

(a) The Minister of Militia and Defence for the time being, Chairman.

(b) The members of the Militia Council for the time being.

(c) Two representatives to be named by the Minister in charge of Education in Ontario;*

Two representatives to be named by the Minister in charge of Education in Quebec;*

One representative to be named by the Ministers in charge of Education in each of the remaining Provinces.*

(d) The Military Officers Commanding Commands and Independent Districts in Canada.

With a Secretary to be detailed by the Chairman from the staff of the Department of Militia and Defence.

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*Subject to the condition that the Province represented must have notified its adhesion to the arrangements regarding Physical Training and Military Drill in public schools, sanctioned by Orders-in-Council of 13th August, 1908.

2. The Executive Council shall administer the Trust in accord with the principles set forth in paragraph 5 of this paper, and shall be charged with—

(a) Laying down the conditions which the Education Department of a Province must accept in order to entitle the schools of the Province to share in the benefits of the scheme.

(b) Accepting the adhesion of the various Provinces to the principles governing the proposals respecting Physical and Military Training in public schools, already agreed to in the case of Nova Scotia.

(c) Laying down the general conditions as regards Physical and Military Training, respectively, which must be fulfilled by schools in order to qualify them to compete for the rewards offered.

(d) Apportioning the money grant between the various Provinces and deciding what proportion should be allotted to physical training only and what to military training and rifle shooting.

(e) Framing the arrangements necessary to ensure that the military training which the Trust is designed to promote shall be so carried out as to be in harmony with the Cadet Corps policy of the Militia Department.

(f) Receiving and administering the income of the Trust.

3. In order to facilitate the adaptation of the general rules and regulations to be laid down by the Executive Council to varying local conditions—especially in regard to the instruction of the teachers, the training of the children, the inspection of schools, and the allotment of rewards—the Executive Council shall constitute a local committee for each Province which has declared its adhesion to the scheme (see paragraph 1). This Committee shall be composed as follows:-

(a) The Senior Military Officer (Commanding Officer of the District) as Chairman;

(b) Three civilian members, to be named by the Minister in charge of Education for the Province, or his representative;

(c) Three Military Officers belonging to the Province, to be named by the Militia Council.

4. The local Committees shall be charged with—

(a) Ensuring that the means of instruction in physical and military training are available for both teachers and pupils, where required.

(b) Division of the Province into convenient districts, for purposes of supervision and competition.

(c) Arranging details of the training to be given, so as to suit local conditions.

(d) The arrangement of competitions and inspections, and allotment of rewards, in accordance with the general instructions of the Executive Council.

5. The following are the general principles in accordance with which the Trust shall be administered:

(a) His object being not only to improve the physical and intellectual capabilities of the children, by inculcating habits of alertness, orderliness and prompt obedience, but also to bring up the boys to patriotism, and to a realization that the first duty of a free citizen is to be prepared to defend his country, the intention of the Founder is that, while physical training and elementary drill shall be encouraged for all children of both sexes attending public schools, especial importance is to be attached to the teaching of military drill generally to all boys, including rifle shooting for boys capable of using rifles. All boys should, so far as possible, be made to acquire a fair acquaintance, while at school, with military drill and rifle shooting.

(b) The administration of the Trust shall be such as to enable both sexes, whether teachers or pupils, to share in the rewards, and the allotments of money should be so made as to afford an inducement both to the teachers to instruct and to the pupils to perfect themselves in the training specified above.

(c) The whole of the money grant, in the preliminary stages at least, is to be devoted to encouraging the training referred to in those schools and other education establishments which are maintained out of public funds.

(d) The allotment of the funds available for rewards between the several Provinces shall, broadly speaking, be in proportion to their population of school age.

(e) Service, whether on the Executive Council or the local committees, shall be gratuitous. There shall be no fees chargeable against the Trust.

In the application of these principles, the Executive Council shall be the sole judge of the intentions of the Founder, and its decision shall be final.

6. The Dominion Government has consented to receive the whole amount of Lord Strathcona's donation upon trust, paying interest thereon at 4 per cent, and placing the amount of such interest half yearly to the credit of the account of the Executive Council of the Trust.

7. To the Minister of Militia, as Chairman of the Executive Council, is entrusted the initiative in all matters connected with the organisation and administration of the Trust.

8. The term "Public Schools" includes also, for the purposes of the Trust, Separate and all other schools and educational establishments (other than Universities) which are maintained mainly out of public funds and are under the control of the Education Departments of the various Provinces.

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EXTRACT from letter from the Rt. Honble. the Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal to the Honbl. Sir F.W. Borden, K.C.M.G., Minister of Militia and Defence, dated April 17, 1909.

* * * * *

"It is not my desire to make any alteration in the Trust Deed, as formulated by you."

* * * * *

(Sd) STRATHCONA AND MOUNT ROYAL.

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CERTIFIED COPY of a Report of the Committee of the Privy Council, approved by His Excellency the Governor General on the 13th August, 1908.

The Minister of Militia and Defence submits the following synopsis of proposals entered into between the Educational Authorities of the Province of Nova Scotia and himself respecting Physical Training and Military Drill in all Public Schools of that Province;-

The Provincial Educational Authorities have, on their part, undertaken: (a) To enforce more, generally their regulations respecting Physical Training and Military Drill in all public schools; (b) To adopt for the future, a system to be uniform with that of the other Provinces of the Dominion, and of Great Britain, suitable to the age and sex of the pupils; (c) To encourage the formation of cadet corps and of rifle practice among boys who are old enough to attend the High School; (d) To require, before granting a teacher's license of higher grade than the 3rd class, a certificate of competency to instruct in physical training and elementary military drill, such certificate (Grade "B" Military), to be issued after the examination of the candidate by the Department of Militia and Defence.

As regards (d), these certificates will be issuable to teachers of either sex. There will also be issued a Grade "A" (Military) certificate, which will represent competency

to instruct in both physical training and advanced military drill, including rifle shooting. This certificate will be issuable to male teachers only, upon their passing a satisfactory examination after a course of instruction carried out at or under the supervision of a military school of instruction.

The Minister has undertaken, on behalf of the Dominion, to provide— (a) Competent instructors at convenient places and seasons in order to enable teachers to qualify themselves to carry out physical training and military drill.

(b) The payment of a bonus, annually, to every qualified teacher who actually imparts this instruction, provided he makes himself eligible therefor by becoming a member of the Militia.

The bonus referred to in the foregoing paragraph shall be paid only upon the certificate of an Inspecting Officer of the Militia that the instruction imparted was satisfactory.

The amount of such bonus and the minimum number of boys necessary to form a corps, upon the instruction of which the amount shall depend, will be as may be hereafter determined.

(c) To supply belts, caps, (if desired), and a proportion of the arms and ammunition; also, drill books for the more advanced training of the Cadet Corps.

(d) To prepare a syllabus of the work required to be done by a school or college cadet corps, in order to entitle the teacher to the annual bonus, and to conduct the necessary examinations.

The Minister recommends that the proposals for the carrying on of Physical Training and Military Drill in the Public Schools of the Province of Nova Scotia, as outlined above, be approved.

The Committee submit the same for approval.

(Sd.) RODOLPHE BOUDREAU,

Clerk of the Privy Council.

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CERTIFIED COPY of a Report of the Committee of the Privy Council, approved by His Excellency the Governor-General on the 13th August, 1908.

On a Memorandum dated 6th August, 1908, from the Minister of Militia and Defence, recommending with reference to the promotion of Physical Training and Military Drill in the Public Schools of the Province of Nova Scotia, that the said proposals may be made applicable to the other Provinces of the Dominion, subject to such notifications as may be agreed upon.

The Committee submit the same for approval.

(Sd.) RODOLPHE BOUDREAU,

Clerk of the Privy Council.

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## PHYSICAL TRAINING AND MILITARY DRILL IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

1. The Nova Scotia Educational authorities will enforce more generally their existing regulations which prescribe the practice of Physical Training and Military Drill in all public schools, and will further adopt a system uniform with that of the other provinces of Canada, and of Great Britain, suitable to the age and sex of the pupils, and will encourage the formation of cadet corps, and rifle practice, among the boys of high school age, on the understanding that the Militia Department, on its part, will:-

(a) Provide competent instructors, at convenient places and seasons, in order to enable teachers, both those now employed in Nova Scotia, and those under training for such employment, to qualify themselves to carry out physical training and military drill; and will also

(b) Grant an annual bonus to such qualified teachers as actually impart this instruction, provided that they make themselves eligible for this bonus by becoming members of the Militia Force.

2. As regards the instruction of the teachers already employed, there appear to be four centres, at or near which a sufficient number of teachers are employed to enable classes to be formed and carried on in the evenings, without interference with the ordinary day's work, viz:- Halifax, Sydney, Truro, Yarmouth, and possibly a fifth at Picton or New Glasgow or Antigonish, may be added. Each course would be followed by an examination.

3. For the benefit of the large number of teachers working out of reach of these centres, it was agreed that such instruction might best be provided during the summer vacation, either at the Vacation School held at Truro, or at the Summer Science School of the Atlantic Provinces, wherever held. It is proposed in these cases to hold two courses of three weeks each, at each place, followed by an examination.

4. The Militia Department will provide the Instructors required, dates and places being settled by agreement with the Education Department of Nova Scotia.

5. In order to provide for the instruction of those students who are qualifying to become teachers, the Militia Department will also provide a competent instructor to conduct a course of Physical Training and Military Drill at the Normal School, Truro, dates to be hereafter arranged with the Education Department.

6. In future the Education Department will, before granting a teacher's license higher than third class, require a certificate of competency to instruct in Physical Training and Elementary Military Drill. This certificate, Grade B (Military), will, if desired, be issued after examination by the Department of Militia and Defence.

7. The Education Department will within three years from the close of the present school year, give an opportunity (as in 2 and 3 above) for all teachers above the third class who have been licensed without the certificate of Grade B (Military), to obtain this lower certificate, so that no school of higher grade than third class need be without a teacher competent to give the prescribed physical drill effectively in all the departments of the school.

8. The certificates issued will be of two grades:—

Grade A (Military) will represent competency to instruct in both Physical Training and advanced Military Drill, including rifle shooting, and will be issuable to male teachers only, upon their passing a satisfactory examination after a course of instruction carried out at, or under the supervision of a Military School of Instruction.

Grade B (Military) will represent competency to instruct in Physical Training and Elementary Drill and will be issuable to teachers of both sexes.

9. The Militia Department will pay the annual bonuses referred to in paragraph 1 to those teachers only who hold Grade A (Military) certificates and actually instruct the pupils, and are in addition officers of the School Cadet Corps or members of the Militia.

Under the existing regulations for Cadet Corps, the Department of Militia grants to instructors of Cadet Corps who are on the instructional staff of the school or college concerned, and who attend and obtain a qualifying certificate at any of the Infantry Schools of Instruction, the same transport and allowances as are paid to officers of the Militia for similar attendance.

The annual bonuses will be paid upon the certificate of an Inspecting Officer of the Militia that the instruction imparted is satisfactory.

10. The Militia Department will draft a syllabus of the

work required to be done by a School or College Cadet Corps in order to entitle a teacher to the annual bonus, and will conduct the necessary examinations. Until Cadet Corps possess in their officers qualified instructors, this work of instruction will be carried out by instructors detailed by the Militia Department, so far as practicable.

11. The new system will, so far as possible, be brought into force on 1st August, 1908.

12. The system of physical training adopted, should be such as to lead on naturally, without change, to the system of drill in force for the Canadian Militia. With this object the Syllabus of Physical Exercises in use in British Elementary Schools will be followed, for the present at any rate. It will be supplemented, for more advanced training and rifle practice, by the official "Infantry Training" in use by the Canadian Militia.

The instruction given in the schools will be such as is suitable to the age and physical condition of the pupils.

13. The Department of Militia will be prepared to supply for the use of Cadet Corps—belts, caps (if desired), a proportion of arms and ammunition, and in addition, drill books for the more advanced training. Uniforms, if worn, must be supplied by the schools themselves.

14. The amount of the bonuses to be paid by the Department of Militia and the minimum number of boy members necessary to enable a Cadet Corps to be formed (upon the instruction of which the grant of the annual bonus depends) will be fixed after discussion between the Department of Militia and the Education Department of the Province.

# APPENDIX L

## The Strathcona Trust
## Instructions 10a, 1912

Instructions 10 a
250—Oct., 1912.

ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

# THE STRATHCONA TRUST

A Cadet Corps may be established in connection with a Public, Separate or High School, according to the Regulations of the Department of Education, as contained in the circular of Instruction No. 10, and military drill would then be included in the exercises for the pupils of the school. The Public School Regulations require instruction in physical culture to be given in connection with the course of study, and in order to do this the teacher must be qualified, but for this year the teacher of the school will not be required to be the holder of a certificate of qualification as Physical Instructor. The pupils may, therefore, acquire a knowledge of drill and receive instruction in physical culture in every school.

As already intimated in the circular of Instruction No. 10½, Lord Strathcona has established a Fund, the interest of which will be disposed of by the Strathcona Trust Committee for distribution to the Provinces of the Dominion, as special awards or prizes in connection with physical training, drill, and rifle shooting.

The sum of $10,900 has been allotted to Ontario for 1912, and has been divided between the Public, Separate, and High Schools, in accordance with the provisions of the regulations of the local committee of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario. The Public and Separate School portion has been subdivided among the several Inspectorates.

The amounts available for your Inspectorate under the three headings are as follows:—

Physical Training $19.56 Military Drill 19.22 Rifle Shooting.. 8.24

For Public and Separate Schools.

The competitions in physical training, as stated in the Regulations, are to be based on the courses contained in the syllabus of physical exercises*. Special exercises have been selected for this year's competition.

The Standing Committee of the Teachers' Association is the body appointed to arrange and carry into effect the competition in physical training in each Inspectorate.

On the receipt of the report of the Committee showing that the competitions have been held, and giving a detailed account of the results, the amount for your Inspectorate will be forwarded to the Treasurer of the Committee.

The awards for military drill and rifle shooting are to be made on joint action by the School Inspector, the Committee of the Teachers' Association, and the Officers of the Militia, as provided by the regulations.

It will be necessary for your Committee to come to a conclusion immediately as to whether any action can be taken in your Inspectorate this year, and to notify the Deputy Minister of Education without delay, so that it may be known if the funds placed at the Committee's disposal will be used or revert to the general fund in any or all of the three competitions.

TORONTO, 25th October, 1912.

*Syllabus of Physical Exercises for Schools, published by the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, Ottawa. A copy has been furnished to every school in the Province.

J. A. Craig Esq
Kemptville

# APPENDIX M

## Circular to Public and Separate School Inspectors, 1926

# Circular to Public and Separate School Inspectors.

1—Please Note that there may be earned each year grants from the Strathcona Trust as follows:—

(a) For Physical Training throughout the whole of the Inspectoral District;
(b) For Military Drill;
(c) For Rifle Shooting; (see circular of instructions No. 10½).

2—No grant can be earned for Military Drill or Rifle Shooting where there is no Cadet Corps.

3—A Silver Medal will be offered each year for the best shot from a Public or Separate School Cadet Corps who makes the best score in the Public School Inspectoral District. None will be given to a Cadet who has left school. A certificate giving the name of the Cadet, as well as the name of the Public or Separate School to which his Cadet Corps is attached, must be signed by the district Cadet Officer who will forward it to the Secretary of the Strathcona Trust, Toronto. The Public and Separate School Cadet Corps in the P.S. Inspectoral District must arrange through the School Inspector, who must consult the District Cadet Inspector for 9 competitions at 25 yards. Targets will be issued by the District Cadet Officer.

4—Your School has earned for 1926 the amount stated above. Each amount should be spent for the purpose for which it is granted.

5—The sum of Two Hundred Dollars has been granted to each Military District, Nos. 1, 2 and 3 Ontario, to be used for the promotion of good marksmanship in the District competitions. A proportional amount will be granted for the Port Arthur, Fort William and Kenora High Schools if the Ontario part of Military District No. 10 holds a District Association rifle match.

6—No grant will be paid for any Inspectoral District when the following certificate duly signed has not been sent to me, the Secretary-Treasurer of the Strathcona Trust, Department of Education, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, before August 1st, 1927.

ARTHUR C. PAULL,

Secretary-Treas., Strathcona Trust for Ontario,

Parliament Buildings, Toronto.

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I further certify that the Strathcona grant received for the year ending June 30th, 1926 was placed to the credit of a special Strathcona account, and was used (or will be used) solely for the purposes specified in Section One of this circular. If no grant was received please so state. Please tear off and forward to address given above.

Date..... Signature.....

Inspector,

for the Inspectorate of.....

.....

Full Address

## APPENDIX N

Circular to High School Boards, 1919

# Circular to High School Boards.

1—Please note that your High School Board may earn grants from the Strathcona Trust as follows:—
(a) For Physical Training throughout the whole school;
(b) For Military Drill;
(c) For Rifle Shooting.
You will receive notice from the Treasurer stating the amount earned by each school for each department, and each amount should be spent for the purpose for which it is granted.

2—No grant will be given for Physical Training to any High School that has not a Cadet Company.

3—A gold medal is offered each year for the best marksman in any High School Cadet Company in each Public School Inspectoral District. The certificate giving the name of this cadet should be signed by the Public School Inspector of the district. The High Schools in the P.S. Inspectoral District must arrange for the competition, and get the signature of the P.S. Inspector to a certificate giving the name of the winner, which certificate should then be forwarded to the Secretary of the Strathcona Trust for Ontario, before August 1st.

4—Gold, Silver and Bronze Medals are offered to High and Public School Cadets for competition at the Ontario Rifle Association as follows:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| $20 and | Gold | Medal for first | prize. |
| $20 and | Silver | Medal for second | prize. |
| $20 and | Bronze | Medal for third | prize. |
| $20 and | Bronze | Medal for fourth | prize. |
| $20 and | Bronze | Medal for fifth | prize. |

5—Fifty dollars have been granted to each Military District, Nos. 1, 2 and 3 Ontario, to be used for the promotion of good marksmanship in the District competitions. A proportional amount will be granted to the Port Arthur, Fort William and Kenora High Schools if the Ontario part of Military District No. 10 holds a District Association rifle match.

6—YOUR BOARD WILL FORFEIT ITS GRANT for 1920 unless the following certificate is signed by the Chairman, Secretary or Treasurer of the Board and sent to the Treasurer of the Strathcona Trust, Mr. Arthur C. Paull, Department of Education, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, before August 1st, 1920.

JAMES L. HUGHES,
Sec'y Strathcona Trust for Ontario,
47 Dundonald St.,
Toronto.

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I certify that the Strathcona grant received for the year ending June 30, 1919, was placed to the credit of a Special Strathcona Account, and was used (or will be used) solely for the purposes specified in Section One of this circular as recommended by the Principal of the High School. (Tear off and forward.)

DATE ..... Signature .....

Name .....

Position ..... H. S. Bd.

Place .....

## APPENDIX O

Certificate of Qualification,
Physical Training - Grade "B"

CANADA

# CERTIFICATE OF QUALIFICATION

## PHYSICAL TRAINING—GRADE "B"

**This is to Certify** that .....

has attended a course of instruction at ..... from the ..... day of .....

192..... until the ..... day of ..... 192....., and having passed the required examination is qualified to instruct in the Physical Exercises as contained in "The Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools, 1919," approved by the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust, and adopted by the Provincial Educational Authorities throughout the Dominion for use in the Schools under their control.

NOTE.—This Certificate is Registered at [redacted]

Headquarters, Military District No....., under No.....

.....
A.A. and Q.M.G.

M.D. No.....

.....
Examining Officer.

M. F. H. 203
1000—1-36
M.Q. 1713—39-9

APPENDIX P

The Strathcona Trust.
Pamphlet, 1948

# The Strathcona Trust

**For the Encouragement of Physical and Military Training in the Public Schools of Canada**

1. By Order in Council dated August 13, 1908, the Governor in Council approved certain proposals entered into between the Educational Authorities of the Province of Nova Scotia and the Minister of Militia, respecting physical training and military drill in the public schools of the province, whereby the Provincial Educational Authorities undertook:—

(*a*) To enforce more generally their regulations respecting physical training and military drill in the schools.

(*b*) To encourage the formation of cadet corps and the practice of rifle shooting.

(*c*) To adopt a system of physical training uniform with that of the other provinces of the Dominion and Great Britain.

(*d*) To require all teachers (of both sexes) to obtain certificates of competency to instruct in physical training, and also to encourage male teachers to obtain certificates in advanced physical training, military drill and rifle shooting.

The Minister of Militia undertook:

(*a*) To provide competent instructors to enable teachers to qualify in physical training and military drill.

(*b*) To pay a bonus to qualified teachers who instruct cadet corps.

(*c*) To provide arms, accoutrements and drill books.

(*d*) To conduct the necessary examinations.

On the same date, the Governor in Council also authorized that the proposals entered into with Nova Scotia should be made applicable to the other provinces, subject to such modification as might be agreed upon.

2. Lord Strathcona, then High Commissioner for Canada, became very interested in the proposed scheme for physical and military training in the schools of Canada, and with a view to supplementing the efforts of the Dominion and Provincial Governments in this regard, donated in the year 1909 the sum of $200,000, and in the following year a further sum of $300,000—a total of $500,000—which was placed in Trust for this purpose.



3. The following are the general principles in accordance with which it was the desire of the Founder that the Trust should be administered:—

(*a*) His object being not only to improve the physical and intellectual capabilities of the children, by inculcating habits of alertness, orderliness and prompt obedience, but also to bring up the boys to patriotism, and to a realization that the first duty of a free citizen is to be prepared to defend his country, the intention of the Founder is that, while physical training and elementary drill should be encouraged for all children of both sexes attending public schools, especial importance is to be attached to the teaching of military drill generally to all boys, including rifle shooting for boys capable of using rifles. All boys should so far as possible, be made to acquire a fair acquaintance while at school, with military drill and rifle shooting.

(*b*) The administration of the Trust shall be such as to enable both sexes, whether teachers or pupils, to share in the rewards, and the allotments of money should be so made as to afford an inducement both to the teachers to instruct and to the pupils to perfect themselves in the training specified above.

(*c*) The whole of the money grant, in the preliminary stages at least, is to be devoted to encouraging the training referred to in those schools and other educational establishments which are maintained out of public funds.

(*d*) The allotment of the funds available for rewards between the several provinces shall, broadly speaking, be in proportion to their population of school age.

(*e*) Service, whether on the Executive Council or the local committees, shall be gratuitous. There shall be no fees chargeable against the Trust.

4. The Trust is administered by an Executive Council composed as follows:—

*Chairman*:

The Minister of National Defence for the time being.

*Members*:

The Members of Defence Council for the time being.

Two representatives named by the Minister in charge of Education in Ontario.

Two representatives named by the Minister in charge of Education in Quebec.

One representative named by the Minister in charge of Education in each of the remaining provinces.

The Officers Commanding the Military Districts.

The Executive Council is charged with:—

(*a*) The administration of the Trust in accordance with the principles laid down by the Founder;

(*b*) Laying down the conditions which the Education Department of a Province must accept in order to entitle the schools of the Province to share in the benefits of the scheme;

(*c*) Laying down the general conditions as regards Physical and Military Training, respectively, which must be fulfilled by schools in order to qualify them to compete for the rewards offered;

(*d*) Apportioning the money grant between the various Provinces and deciding what proportion should be alloted to physical training only and what to military training and rifle shooting;

(*e*) Framing the arrangements necessary to ensure that the military training which the Trust is designed to promote shall be so carried out as to be in harmony with the Cadet Corps policy of the Department of National Defence;

(*f*) Receiving and administering the income of the Trust.

5. A Local Committee of the Trust is appointed in each province, in order to adapt the general rules and regulations laid down by the Executive Council to varying local conditions, and is composed as follows:—

(*a*) The Senior Military Officer (Commanding Officer of the District) as Chairman;

(*b*) (i) Three civilian members, to be named by the Minister in charge of Education for the Province, or his representative; with the addition, ex-officio, of the Deputy Minister or Superintendent of Education for the Province;

(ii) A Civilian Member shall also be selected by the



Province in addition to those already mentioned for each of the Military Divisions or Military Districts within the one Province.

(*c*) (i) Three Military Officers belonging to the Province, to be named by the Militia Council.

(ii) In Provinces where there are more Military Divisions or Districts than one the Officers Commanding those Divisions or Districts shall be ex-officio members of the Local Committee.

In the Province of Quebec there are two local committees; A Roman Catholic Committee—Quebec; and a Protestant Committee—Montreal.

The Local Committees are charged with:—

(*a*) Ensuring that the means of instruction in Physical and Military Training are available for both teachers and pupils when required;

(*d*) Division of the Province into convenient districts for purposes of supervision and competition;

(*c*) Arranging details of the training to be given so as to suit local conditions;

(*d*) Arranging competitions and inspections and allotment of rewards in accordance with the general instructions of the Executive Council.

6. The capital sum of $500,000.00 is on deposit with the Dominion Government who pay interest thereon at the rate of 4% per annum, payable half yearly.

The whole income of the Trust is devoted to encouraging physical and military training in the public schools of Canada, and is divided amongst the various provinces in proportion to their school attendance.

The annual allotment of each province is disbursed by the local committee in accordance with the provisions of the Trust and the general instructions issued by the Executive Council.

The awards comprise generally: Challenge Shields; Cups; Medals; Pictures or some piece of apparatus suitably inscribed; Monetary awards to teachers; grants for physical training equipment, etc.

The term "Public Schools" includes for the purpose of the Trust, separate and all other schools and educational establishments (other than universities) which are maintained mainly out

of public funds and are under the control of the Educational Department of the various provinces.

7. All the provinces are participating in the benefits of the Trust. The conditions laid down by the Executive Council which a province was required to accept in order to participate in the benefits of the Trust are set out in the attached copy of a letter dated November 10, 1909, addressed to the various provincial premiers.

Department of National Defence,
Ottawa, January 2, 1948

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**COPY**

Ottawa, Nov. 10, 1909.

Sir,—

With reference to previous correspondence on the subject, I am directed by the Honble. Sir F. W. Borden, Minister of Militia, as Chairman of the Executive Council of the Strathcona Trust, to inquire whether your Government is yet in a position to accept, on behalf of the Educational Establishments under its control, the advantages offered by the Strathcona Trust for the encouragement of Physical Training and Military Drill in Public Schools.

2. From inquiries which have been addressed to the Executive Council, some misapprehension seems to have arisen as to the aims and objects of the Strathcona Trust. It is with a view to the removal of any grounds for misunderstanding that I am directed to submit the following remarks:—

3. As you are aware, Lord Strathcona's object in forming the trust is twofold; (1) the improvement of the physical and intellectual capabilities of the children while at school, by means of a proper system of physical training calculated to improve their physical development, and, at the same time, to inculcate habits of alertness, orderliness and prompt obedience; (2) the fostering of a spirit of patriotism in the boys, leading them to realize that the first duty of a free citizen is to be prepared to defend his country—to which end all boys should, so far as possible, be given an opportunity of acquiring a fair acquaintance, while at school, with Military Drill and rifle shooting.

4. With regard to the first point, the Executive Council



deems it necessary to require that a Province before it can participate in the benefits of the Trust, should pledge itself to include in the regular curriculum of the Schools under its control instruction in Physical Training for all children of both sexes attending the same. This requirement appears to be clearly understood by all, and there have been, so far as the Executive Council is aware, no serious objections raised to the universal introduction of a well tested system of Physical Training into all the Public Schools of Canada.

5. With regard, however, to the question of Military Drill and rifle practice for boys, a somewhat important misapprehension appears to exist in certain quarters, to the effect that the Strathcona Trust is designed to be used as the vehicle for the introduction of a system of compulsory military training into the Schools of the Dominion. I am directed to state, emphatically, that such is in no wise Lord Strathcona's intention, nor that of the Executive Council of the Trust.

6. As stated above, one of Lord Strathcona's main objects is to inculcate a spirit of patriotism in the youths of this country, together with a realization of their duty as free citizens in its defence, and, consequently, their training in the rudiments of a soldier's art is, in his opinion, desirable, in order that they may be able to give proper expression to that spirit in time of national danger; but His Lordship does not seek to insist that this military training should be made compulsory. All he asks is that the Government of a Province should undertake to ENCOURAGE, as far as possible, the formation of cadet corps and the practice of rifle shooting in the schools under its control, leaving it to the parents themselves to decide whether their sons should join these corps. The proper military instruction and care of the cadet corps when formed is a matter which falls within the province of the Department of Militia. The Department of Militia, however, asks that the Educational Authorities will encourage, or, at least, place no obstacle in the way of their teachers becoming officers of their School Cadet Corps.

7. The position may, perhaps, best be summed up by restating the general conditions, which the Executive Council of the Trust asks the Education Department of a Province to accept, in order to secure to the Schools under its control participation in the benefits to the Trust. It is confidently believed that perusal of these conditions will show that they cannot fairly be in

any way construed as an attempt to introduce a system of compulsory military training into the Schools of Canada.

8. These conditions are as follows:—

(*a*) Physical training to form an integral part of the curriculum in every school, or public educational establishment maintained mainly out of public funds, at which a teacher holding a certificate other than that of the lowest grade is employed.

(*b*) A certificate of ability to instruct in physical training to form part of every teacher's certificate, other than those of the lowest grade, granted by the Education Department of the Province.

(*c*) The Education Department to undertake to encourage the formation of cadet corps, including the practice of rifle shooting under suitable conditions by the older boys, in all educational establishments under its control.

(*d*) The system of physical training adopted to be that in force in the elementary public schools in Great Britain (which has been recently revised in view of the latest development in Sweden, Switzerland and other countries), with such modifications therein as the local conditions of any Province may show to be necessary.

(*e*) The Education Department to undertake to require, within a specified period, all teachers who are already in possession of its certificates other than those of the lowest grade to qualify themselves to instruct in physical training (subject to the exemption of such teachers as are physically unable to qualify, or are nearly at the end of their term of service), so that in every school there shall be at least one teacher capable of imparting the necessary instruction.

9. The Militia Department will, on its part, aid the Education Department by affording the necessary facilities to the teachers of both sexes to qualify themselves in physical training, by providing instructors until such time as the Provincial Authorities are in a position to undertake this duty themselves.

10. The Militia Department will also afford to the teachers the necessary instruction in military drill required to enable them to become officers of cadet corps under the same advantages as are already allowed to officers of the Active Militia, and will grant certificates of qualification.



11. The Militia Department will also pay the authorized grants to the teachers qualified and acting as instructors of cadet corps, and will supply to these corps such arms and equipment as are needed under the regulations applicable to each case.

12. Sir Frederick Borden confidently hopes, that, after consideration of the foregoing explanations, your Government may see its way clear at a very early date to declaring its acceptance of the conditions mentioned in paragraph 8 of this letter, so that both teachers and pupils in the Educational Establishments of the Province may be competent to share in the benefits of the Trust.

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

A. G. LEWIS, Secretary,
The Executive Council,
The Strathcona Trust.

The Honble. The Premier,
Province of