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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

MAY, 1900

TEACHING THE BIBLE IN OUR HIGH SCHOOLS.

BY ARTHUR W. WRIGHT, B.A.

It is not only desirable, it is imperative, that the citizens of this country should be well acquainted with the Scriptures.

The citizens of this country, of every country claiming to be a Christian country, and more especially of every Anglo-Saxon country, should be well acquainted with the letter and the spirit of the Bible. More than any other book on literature, shall I say more than all other literatures combined? it has to do with our religious ideas, our morals, our laws, our rights, our liberties, our aspirations, our literature, our modes of thought, our forms of speech. No man or woman who wishes to be in touch with what is most earnest and potent and real in this progressive age can afford to remain in ignorance of the contents of this wonderful book, for here we have revealed the source and sustaining power of all our progress; and unless our youth are kept imbued with the principles taught in the Bible the salt will lose its savor and national corruption will be the result.

II. The present means of Biblical instruction are very inefficient.

There are incontrovertible grounds for asserting that the rising generation of citizens of the Province of Ontario are growing up in comparative ignorance of this noblest, most indispensable of all literatures, and there are not wanting many signs of an increasing disregard for the morality inculcated by the Bible. Why is this so? The present means of instruction are quite inadequate and ineffective. Parents, as a rule are too much engrossed with other affairs, and are sadly indifferent to their first duty, the moral and religious upbringing of their children. The pulpit, with few exceptions, is a stranger to expository preaching, so useful for conveying the meaning and spirit of whole chapters or books and for inculcating Scripture teaching in relation to the common duties of life. The young people's societies in connection with the Churches, which have flourished so remarkably of late years, have done a useful work, but little of it has been in the field of serious Bible study. The Sunday school, on which the whole burden of the religious education of our youth seems to be thrown, is simply

unable to carry the load imposed upon it. The very limited amount of time allotted to the work, to say nothing of the impossibility of securing a sufficient number of good teachers, and of enforcing proper discipline in many schools, is a sufficient barrier to obtaining anything like satisfactory results. Bible literature, history, morals and theology cannot be taught with any approach to thoroughness in a go-as-you-please half hour a week. The Sunday-school is not doing satisfactorily the work expected of it; it cannot do it alone; and, I venture to say, it cannot be made to do it alone.

III. The State should again undertake the duty of giving Biblical instruction.

Once upon a time Biblical instruction was regularly given in many of the Public schools, then called Common schools, of this province. Some of us can remember, and with gratitude, the Bible lesson in the morning and, later in the day, the drill in Bible history from the old Irish National Readers. In the national schools of several countries, notably Norway, Sweden, Holland and Great Britain, the Bible is a text book. In the Protestant schools of our sister province, Quebec, both the Bible and Bible history are taught. In regard to this matter why should Ontario be obscurantist and retrograde? It should encourage, by every means in its power, the inculcation of Bible ethics, for a state built on any other foundation is a house resting on sand, and great will be the fall of it in some not far distant day of stress. To those who object to State aid to religion we say that sectarian dogma need not enter into the question at all. Just as English and Canadian history can be taught without offensive allusions to current party politics, so can the Bible be taught without doing viol-

ence to denominational prejudices. As the President of this section, Mr. Stevenson, well expressed it in a letter to me, which I trust he will excuse my quoting: "The State should aid the teaching of Hebrew history and literature as well as Greek or Latin or French or German or English or Canadian literature and history. The State should aid the development of the moral faculty as much as or more than it does that of the intellectual faculty." The force of that argument is to me irresistible. And yet our schools are expending all their time and energy on a wide range of studies to the almost total exclusion of a subject more important than any of them. In our Public schools we are paying a good deal of attention to the science of physical health and neglecting the science of moral health. We foster a spirit of patriotism, but we pay only casual and slight attention to purity and truth and honesty and charity and generosity, without which patriotism will be but a name for an unscrupulous and debasing national selfishness. Should these things be so? Should not the State step in and adopt decisive measures to remedy the evils which threaten its own existence?

IV. The teaching of the Bible in our schools is quite practicable.

But there is a lion in the way, and, with the exception of a voice or two in the wilderness, our politicians, our educationists, our clergy even, either from timidity or indifference, have failed to face the fancied difficulty. Of late, however, there has seemed to be a real revival of interest and courage with respect to this question, and one now hardly runs the risk of being denounced as foolhardy or presumptuous or visionary in venturing to suggest that the teaching of the Bible in all the grades of our provincial system of

education is quite practicable. If the people, through their representatives in the ecclesiastical, educational and political fields, unmistakably demand this reform, the supposed difficulties will be easily overcome. The only real obstacle to be surmounted is the lukewarmness toward the Bible of its nominal friends, the members and adherents of the Evangelical Churches. When this is got over, the other hindrances will vanish like mist before the morning sun.

Let us now glance at a few of the questions that may be raised, premising that the answers given, though the best that the writer has been able to arrive at, are merely expressions of individual opinion, and are intended only as suggestions:

1. What book shall be used, the whole Bible, or a book of selections?

The simplest and, on the whole, most satisfactory plan would be to have the whole Bible as a text book in the hands of both teachers and pupils. No book of selections that would be generally and continuously acceptable can be made, though it may be admitted that a book of selections, even the one we are permitted to *read* now, would be a great deal better than nothing. Most of the purposes served by a book of selections could be attained by prescribing a syllabus of Bible studies adapted to the various grades and classes in our schools. It might stimulate the general interest if these studies were in the line of the lessons that are studied in the Sunday schools. The whole Bible would thus be available for reference or other supplementary study, and no book can be obtained more conveniently or more cheaply. A summary of Jewish history might be given in the Readers, or in a separate book.

2. How shall time be found for this study?

There is force in the objection that our programmes of study are already overcrowded. Still changes are constantly being made, and these are not all in the direction of simplifying courses or lightening burdens. To find time, we may drop less important subjects, or curtail the time allotted to them.

3. When shall it be taught?

In the Protestant Public schools of Montreal twenty minutes every morning are spent in this kind of instruction; in the Board schools of London, England, the first forty minutes every day are devoted to it. In our Public and High schools, could we not spare the first fifteen or twenty minutes of the school day for this very important subject? The difficulties as regards organization would not be nearly so great as they are, for example, in providing for physical training in our secondary schools.

4. Who shall be taught?

Bible knowledge should be as widely diffused as possible. With this end in view, all the children and youth attending our educational institutions, from the kindergarten to the university, should be seriously engaged in getting it. Only those should be excused who present from parent or guardian a written declaration of conscientious objection. In the case of adult students their own declaration might be accepted.

5. Who shall teach?

There should be a conscience clause for teachers as well as for pupils, but those taking advantage of it would be the exception and not the rule. Most teachers in our Public and High schools both could and would teach the Bible with a fair degree of efficiency. Many of them are already engaged in Sunday school work; many others would be engaged in it did they not

feel the need of the Sabbath's relief from the strain of their calling; and all these would hail with satisfaction the opportunity to do more effective work in this line than can be done under present limitations in the Sunday-school. I agree, however, with those who contend that the best work will not be done in our primary and secondary schools until the subject is given its due position in our higher halls of learning. By all means have a chair of Biblical Literature in our Provincial University, filled by an able man, but it is not necessary nor advisable to wait for the results of this to trickle down to our schools before attempting to do anything there. Let us do what we can whenever an opening is presented. Let us keep the ideal in view, but let us not miss the practicable.

6. How shall the Bible be taught?

Teachers should be allowed to teach the Bible as they would any other book, by question and answer, by comment and explanation, by having the pupils memorize certain passages, by drills and examinations. Most teachers have common sense and discretion enough to avoid an offensive treatment of controverted points in religion, and they would as seldom get into trouble by such treatment as they now do when referring to questions of party politics in teaching history. The Protestant denominations are by no means so sensitive about their little points of difference as they were not very many years ago, and I am sure they would be willing to hold them in abeyance in the schoolroom. One may even venture to hope that in time our Roman Catholic fellow-citizens will be found joining us in this study, just as they now sometimes are present at our devotional exercises. As questions of race are fast being merged in the unifying

conception of a common Canadian nationality, so may the bigotries of creed be speedily swallowed up in a recognition of the fact that all we who acknowledge God as our Father, Christ Jesus as our Elder Brother, and the Bible as a revelation of the Divine Will, are spiritually brethren. Is this too sanguine a hope? The signs of the times say nay.

7. Would there be examinations in this subject?

Not necessarily, but why not have them? If examinations are advisable in English history, why not in Hebrew history? If good in English literature, why not in Hebrew literature? There should be class examinations by the teacher, at any rate. If you wish the average pupil to acquire knowledge, he must be made to feel that he is liable to be called upon to give it out again. "Writing maketh an exact man," and written examinations are useful as a stimulus to thorough acquirement. A good deal has been said against examinations, but there are examinations and examinations. Those that encourage cram are mischievous; those that encourage rational and conscientious study are beneficial. Departmental examinations would not be an essential feature in the working out of this problem, neither need they be altogether excluded. A correspondent suggests that a statement by the Board of Trustees could be substituted for them. If this were based on a report of the standing of the pupils by the teacher, it might be accepted in lieu of an examination.

8. What modifications in the Statutes and Regulations would be necessary to effect a change?

The Confederation Act would not require amendment.

The Public schools Act, 1896, section 7, reads:

(1) No person shall require any pupil in any Public school to read or study in or from any religious book, or to join in any exercise of devotion or religion objected to by his or her parents or guardians.

(2) Pupils shall be allowed to receive such religious instruction as their guardians or parents may desire, according to any regulations provided for the organization, government and discipline of Public schools

No change would be required here, except perhaps to make the provisions apply to High schools also, which seem to be omitted from *The High schools Act, 1896*.

The Regulations of the Educational Department, however, refer to both Public and High schools. In accordance with the powers conferred upon the Department by statute, these regulations might easily be modified to permit of such instruction as we have been advocating. They might run something like this :

97. Every Public and High school shall be opened with prayer, and with a Bible lesson of fifteen or twenty minutes' duration, and shall be closed with prayer. When a teacher claims to have conscientious scruples in regard to opening or closing the school as herein prescribed, he shall notify the Trustees to that effect in writing ; and it shall be the duty of the Trustees to make such provision in the premises as they may deem expedient.

98. The Scriptures shall be taught daily and systematically by the methods usual in the teaching of literature, history and ethics. Such courses shall be taken up in the various forms as the Education Department may from time to time prescribe.

99. No pupil shall be required to take part in any religious exercise or in Bible study objected to in

writing by his parents or guardians ; and in order to the observance of this regulation, the teacher, before commencing such exercise or lesson, is to allow a short interval to elapse, during which the children of any who have signified their objection in writing may retire. If in virtue of the right to be absent from these exercises, any pupil does not enter the school-room till the close of the time allowed for this instruction, such absence shall not be treated as an offence against the rules of the school.

100. The clergy of any denomination, or their authorized representatives, shall have the right to give religious instruction to the pupils of their own church, in each school-house, at least once a week, after the hour of closing the school in the afternoon ; and if the clergy of more than one denomination apply to give religious instruction in the same school-house, the Board of Trustees shall decide on what day of the week the school house shall be at the disposal of the clergymen of any denomination, at the time above stated. But it shall be lawful for the Board of Trustees to allow a clergyman of any denomination, or his authorized representative, to give religious instruction to the pupils of his own church, providing it be not during the regular hours of the school. Emblems of a denominational character shall not be exhibited in a Public or High school during regular hours, nor shall instruction in distinctively denominational tenets be given ; nor shall the Scripture lesson be treated in such a way as to give offence to the known sectarian opinions of any member of the class, or of his or her parents or guardians.

V. The teaching of Scripture as history, literature and morals is feasible in our High schools.

I found it difficult, if not impos-

sible, to treat the subject suggested by the title of my paper apart from the more general question of the teaching of the Bible in all our schools. Most of what has been said applies equally to the Public and to the High schools. But in some respects the High schools offer the more inviting field. The teachers are generally better qualified, the pupils more mature. As the teaching of Biblical literature in the University would aid the High school teachers in preparing for this work, so the teaching of Biblical literature in the High schools would prepare the Public school teachers for it. Books like Job, Proverbs, John's Gospel, and the Epistle to the Romans might be prescribed for literary study. In the literature papers questions might be asked bearing on this prescribed work, with alternative questions on other literature for those who had conscientious objections. An option might be given between Greek and Roman history on the one hand and Hebrew history on the other. Or, there could be school examinations on Biblical history, literature and morals, the standing of the pupils to be reported to the Education Department, and to be taken into consideration in the passing of candidates. Even if selections were not regularly prescribed, taught and examined upon, they might be taken up as supplementary literature, but our hopes are for more than that.

As regards the teaching of the Bible in the High schools, then, permit me to give just a brief *resume* of what seems to be the most desirable

course to pursue :

1. The whole Bible should be the text-book.
2. Freedom should be allowed in teaching the subject
3. Offensive references to matters about which there might be differences of opinion in the class would be avoided.
4. There should be a conscience-clause for both teachers and scholars.
5. The best time for teaching the Bible would be the first fifteen or twenty minutes every morning.
6. A suitable course should be prescribed for each Form.
7. There might be Form examinations in Bible knowledge, and the results should be considered in making promotions.
8. There might be Departmental examinations, with certain options for those who have conscientious objections; or, in lieu of examinations, the standing of the pupils in Bible knowledge, as reported by the Principal, could be taken into account in the granting of certificates by the Education Department.
9. Portions of the Bible might be taken up as supplementary literature.

I must now leave this important question to be dealt with as you see fit. Everybody will not agree with all that has been said, and some may dispute every position that has been taken; yet, however much we may differ as to some of the particulars, I hope that the main matter may so commend itself to you that something practical and effective may be done to attain the end in view.

EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND.

BY INSPECTOR G. J. McCORMAC.

NEW ZEALAND consists of two large islands and several smaller ones, lying about 1,100 miles south-east of Australia in the Pacific ocean. These islands were discovered by Tasman in 1642. The country remained unknown, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent till 1769, when it was circumnavigated by Captain Cook. In 1773 Cook planted several plots of ground on the islands with potatoes and cabbage, and in 1777, on paying another visit to the islands, he found some fine potatoes. The soil is very fertile; the climate mild and healthy; the surface hilly. Sheep raising is the chief industry. The natives are called Maoris, and are of the Malay race. They are steadily decreasing in numbers, the present native population being about forty thousand. The total population is 703,000. The area of New Zealand is 104,500 square miles, or twice as large as that of the Maritime Provinces. New Zealand is a comparatively new country, having been created a Crown colony less than sixty years ago. The two most important islands are North and South. They are separated by Cook strait. Wellington, with a population of 41,000, is the capital. Dunedin (47,000) is the chief port of the South island; Auckland (58,000) of the North island. The present Governor of New Zealand is the Earl of Ranfurly.

The present school system of New Zealand was established in 1877, the year which witnessed the establishment of the present school system of Prince Edward Island. The Department of Education is controlled and directed by the Minister of Education, who is appointed by the Governor. The expenses of administering the department are defrayed out of moneys appropriated by the General Assembly for the following purposes:

1. In payment of salaries and other expenses of the Department of Education.
2. In payment to the Board of every district of a sum of three pounds, fifteen shillings for each child in average daily attendance at a public school.
3. For the establishment and maintenance of normal or training schools, and in grants to Boards for the maintenance of such schools already established and under their control.
4. For the erection of school-houses and for any other purpose for which such moneys may be applied or appropriated.

The capitation allowance of £3 15s. for the maintenance of schools is paid to the School Boards in monthly instalments, and the payment for any month is made according to the average attendance stated in the Boards' summary statements of attendance for the immediately preceding quarter. All other grants to School Boards are paid quarterly.

The colony is divided into thirteen educational districts. For each district there is an Education Board, consisting of nine members elected by the residents of the district. Among the duties devolving upon the Board are (1) the establishment and maintenance of public schools within the district; (2) promoting the establishment of school districts within such districts, and defining the limits thereof; (3) dividing any such school district into two or more

school districts or parts of districts, or combining two or more school districts or parts of such districts into one; (4) appointing and removing officers and teachers; (5) establishing scholarships, school libraries and district high schools; (6) raising money for certain school purposes, and administering the funds granted by the Education Department, and all other funds which may become the property of the Board. Every Board appoints a secretary and one or more inspectors, who receive such salary as the Board deem proper. The Board must hold at least one meeting every month. The "school year" begins January 1st. The Board funds consists of the following moneys: (1) Grants for the capitation allowance; (2) rents and profits derived from property or endowments vested in the Board; (3) special endowments or grants for particular purposes; (4) special fees for higher education; (5) donations, subscriptions, etc.

Out of those funds the Board provide for (1) the payment of salaries and other expenses connected with the carrying on of the business of the Board; (2) the expense of purchasing or renting school sites, playgrounds and buildings, or for erecting, fitting up and improving school building; (3) the payment of teachers' salaries; (4) the maintenance and education of pupil teachers; (5) grants to committees for general educational purposes; (6) subsidising school libraries; and (7) generally for the payment of all expenses necessarily incurred by such Board or any committee under their supervision in the carrying out of any of the provisions of the School Act. The Board of each district appoint the teachers for every school under its control, and may remove teachers from one school to any other school within the dis-

trict, but every teacher to be eligible for appointment must have a certificate of competency from the Minister of Education. There are five classes of certificates distinguished (from the highest to the lowest) by the letters A, B, C, D, E. In each class there are five divisions distinguished (from the highest to the lowest) by the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The class for which a certificate is granted depends upon the attainments in learning, as proved by examination; the division in the class, upon experience and practical skill in the art of teaching and of school management. The relative value of certificates depends in equal degree upon attainments in learning and upon practical skill as indicated in the subjoined scale, in which the letter and number denoting any one certificate stand opposite to the letter and number which in any other column denote a certificate of equal value:

SCALE OF COMPARATIVE VALUES.

A1	1st Rank.
A2	B1	2nd "
A3	B2	C1	3rd "
A4	B3	C2	D1	4th "
A5	B4	C3	D2	E1	5th "
	B5	C4	D3	E2	6th "
		C5	D4	E3	7th "
			D5	E4	8th "
				E5	9th "

In some schools apprentice pupil-teachers are employed. These spend a portion of the school hours in teaching, and the remainder under the instruction of the head-teacher.

With the sanction of the Minister of Education, any Board may convert any public school in the district into and establish the same as a district High School. Every High School is under the charge of a headmaster, and a number of assistants. All the branches of a liberal education, comprising Latin and Greek classics, French and other

modern languages, mathematics and science as well as the ordinary branches of education, are taught in such schools.

For every School District there is a School Committee, consisting of 5, 7 or 9 resident householders, which has, subject to the general supervision of the School Board, the management of educational matters within the school district. It may appoint teachers of sewing for any school under its control and establish saving banks for the use of children attending the school. The School Committee grant "good attendance certificates" of two classes, viz., (1) To every child of school age who has been present at school every time the school was open during the year. (2) To every child who for the year has not been absent from school more than five times in all. "School age" means any age between the years of five and fifteen. The subjects of instruction in the public schools are (1) Reading, (2) Writing (3) Arithmetic, (4) English grammar and composition, (5) Geography, (6) History, (7) Elementary science and drawing (8) Object lessons, (9) Vocal music, and (10) for girls sewing and needlework, and the principles of domestic economy. The schools are kept open five days of the week for at least five hours per day. The teaching is entirely secular. No fees are payable at any public school except at district high schools, where fees are charged for instruction in the advanced branches. In Marlborough 10 shillings a quarter is charged for two subjects and 5 shillings a quarter for every additional subject; in South Canterbury 10s. a quarter for one subject alone, 12s. 6d. a quarter for two subjects, or 15s. a quarter for three subjects; in Wellington 11 a quarter for one subject alone,

and 10s. a quarter added for each additional subject, and in Auckland 8 guineas a year is charged for one or all subjects. Provision is made for the instruction of all school boys in military drill and in many schools provision is made for physical training. In many districts there are evening schools taught by male teachers from the public schools. In outlying districts or parts of the country where from the scattered state of the population it is not practicable to establish public schools, itinerant teachers are appointed by the Board. Any person who wilfully disturbs a school or who upbraids, insults or abuses a teacher in the presence or hearing of the pupils assembled in school is liable to a penalty of 40 shillings. The school attendance laws are very strict, being somewhat similar to the Tasmania Truant Laws. In 1895 an Act for the promotion of elementary technical instruction was passed. Every public school is yearly inspected and examined by a Public School inspector. The average number of pupils on the rolls of the schools last year was 133,861 and the average attendance for the year was 110,993, so that 82.9 per cent. represents the degree of the regularity of attendance. The lowest average attendance for any year since the system was introduced in 1877 was 73.6 per cent. So it can be said that the attendance is very regular. This is no doubt due in a great degree to the very stringent compulsory attendance laws. Included in the foregoing enumeration of attendance are 2,260 Maori children. Besides these there are, in native schools, 2,864, and in Government boarding-schools for natives 73 Maori children.

Last year there were nearly as many girls as boys enrolled in the schools. 7.6 per cent. of the pupils

were 5 years old; 10.0 per cent., 6 years; 11.2 per cent., 7 years; 11.2 per cent., 8 years; 11.6 per cent., 9 years; 11.5 per cent., 10 years; 11.1 per cent., 11 years; 10.7 per cent., 12 years; 8.3 per cent., 13 years; 4.5 per cent., 14 years; and 2.3 per cent., over 14 years

Of the 133,961 children under instruction in the schools, 132,197 receive instruction in reading, 132,179 in writing, 132,065 in arithmetic, 68,415 in English grammar and composition, 84,650 in geography, 65,715 in history, 47,170 in elementary science, 126,731 in drawing, 81,805 in object lessons, 107,256 in vocal music, 54,645 in needlework, 5,709 in domestic economy.

There are 1,585 public schools in the colony, and there are on an average about 70 pupils to each school. There are 241 schools with less than 25 pupils; 160 schools with between 15 and 20 scholars; and 213 with between 20 and 25 scholars. The number of schools with less than 25 pupils each was increased during the last year by 55. The teachers number 3,628 (1,456 male and 2,172 female). The average number of pupils to each teacher is 30. There are 183 sewing instructresses. The pupil teachers number 1,076; 850 of these are female. The total amount paid in salaries to teachers last year was £359,412, or an average salary of £94 6s. 8d. to each teacher. The highest salary paid any teacher is £496. Seven teachers receive salaries of £400 and upwards, 62 receive salaries of between £300 and £400; 238 receive salaries of between £200 and £300; 1,264 receive

salaries of between £100 and £200; and the remainder, which includes the sewing mistresses and pupil teachers, less than £100 each.

All the schools with the exception of 437 are supplied with teachers' residences.

There are two institutions for the training of teachers, one in Otago, the other in North Canterbury. These two institutions receive grants-in-aid of £300 each per annum.

Over £7,000 is yearly spent in scholarships. Last year 320 scholarships were given, ranging in value from £4 to £52 12s., and having a period of tenure of either two or three years.

The native village schools number 74, having 2,864 pupils in attendance. The average attendance last year was 77½ per cent. There are four boarding schools for Maoris. The 74 schools are under the charge of 60 masters and 14 mistresses, whose salaries range between £74 and £233; and there are 60 assistants and 14 sewing mistresses, with salaries between £7 and £50.

There is an institute for the blind, and also a school for deaf mutes. The high schools number 24. Last year they had an attendance of 2,709. Fees ranging from £8 to £13 per annum are collected from pupils attending these high schools.

There is one university, the University of New Zealand, situated at Otago. The colleges are Canterbury College, Auckland University College and the Canterbury Agricultural College. The number of students at the colleges last year was 660, of whom 200 were women.

THE STUDY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES.

BY ANNIE MARION MACLEAN, M.A., PH. D.

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ON account of the wide-spread popular interest in social and economic questions throughout the country as evidenced by the mental attitude of large bodies of people, by articles in the secular and religious press and by the existence of numerous social study clubs in remote country villages as well as in the large centres, it seemed a not profitless undertaking to see how far the colleges are responding to the public demand for instruction along the lines mentioned. The task has not been a difficult one as the number of universities in Canada is not great, there being only fifteen English ones doing regular college work leading to degrees in arts, science, medicine and law, and it is only the Arts courses that are of interest in this particular investigation.

While the age of scepticism in regard to purely economic study may be said to have passed away, and political economy is accepted as an essential in nearly every college curriculum, the study of sociology is still regarded as of doubtful character, and on the whole a thing to be shunned by orthodox institutions of learning. This attitude of course is gradually changing, and it is inevitable, as governing bodies learn more of the nature of sociological researches and the value of the work they have long looked at askance. This tendency is observable in the colleges under discussion, and from it we may expect new development.

1. I have not attempted to include the various French Catholic colleges, but have confined myself to the English. The several colleges

affiliated or federated with McGill and Toronto have not been considered, as their courses of study are identical with the central institutions.

Under the general term used in the title of this article, I include political science proper, covering constitutional history and international law, and sociology and economics. It can be seen from the course subjects and references to which of the trinity each properly belongs. It is not a matter of importance that the three be differentiated; it is simply instructive to know in a general way how far what is evidently a popular interest is reflected in the higher places of learning. It might seem that the initiative in thought would come from the University; but as a matter of fact this is not always the case. Universities cling to traditions, and view with distrust any teaching that may be at variance with these preconceived notions. It will be seen from the attached compilation of courses that the Maritime Province colleges have taken up the social sciences in a broader way on the whole than the institutions in other parts of the Dominion. If discoverable, the causes which have led to this shaking off the shackles of the past would be most interesting; but it is not the aim of this paper to undertake such a discovery. This is intended merely as a search for things that are, without seeking the causes for their existence. I have taken up the universities alphabetically and have thought it well to insert a tabulated statement concerning them, as it may serve to illuminate what is to follow.

Institution.	When Founded	Where Located.	Denomination.
Acadia College*.....	1838	Wolfville, N.S.	Baptist.
Bishop's College.....	1853	Lennoxville, P.Q.	Anglican.
Dalhousie College*.....	1821	Halifax, N.S.	Non-sectarian.
King's College*.....	1789	Windsor, N.S.	Anglican.
Laval Univ.	1852	Quebec and Montreal.	Catholic (French).
Macmaster*.....	1887	Toronto.	Baptist.
Univ. of Manitoba.....	1877	Winnipeg.	Non-sectarian.
McGill Univ.*.....	1811	Montreal.	" "
Mt. Allison*.....	1861	Sackville, N.B.	Methodist.
Univ. of New Brunswick*	1800	Fredericton, N.B.	Non-sectarian.
Univ. of Ottawa.....	1848	Ottawa.	Catholic.
Queen's College*.....	1841	Kingston, Ont.	Non-sectarian.
St. Francis Xavier Col.	1853	Antigonish, N.S.	Catholic.
St. Joseph's College.....	1864	Mennamcook, N.B.	"
Univ. of Toronto*.....	1827	Toronto.	Non-sectarian.
Trinity College*.....	1852	"	Anglican.
Victoria Univ.*.....	1836	"	Methodist.

Admit women on same terms as men.

COURSES IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES.

ACADIA.

Course I. The constitution of Canada.

Course II. Social and Industrial Life during the Middle Ages.

Course III. Economic Theory.

Course IV. Economic History.

Course V. Sociological Thought.

Texts: Kidd—Social Evolution;

Fairbanks—Intro. to Sociology;

Schaffle—Quintessence of Socialism.

Course VI. The Constitution of England.

Course VII. International Law.

Course VIII. (a) The Study of Society.

Text: Small and Vincent—Intro. to the Study of Society.

(b) The Leading Features of Socialism.

BISHOPS.

Course I. Political Economy.

Texts: Marshall—Economics of Industry; Mill—Principles of Pol. Econ.

Course II. Political Science.

(a) Principles underlying Govt.

(b) Theory of Law and Govt,
(c) Federal Gov't.—Eng., U. S.,
Can.

Authors referred to:

Pollock, Bluntschli, Nelson, Holland, Dicey, Maine, Fowler, Bryce, Bagehot, Seeley, Parkins, Caldecott, Bourinot, Roberts, Kingsford, Channing.

Course III. Eng. Political History.

Course IV. Eng. Constitutional History.

DALHOUSIE.

Course I. Political Economy.

Text: Mill—Principles of Pol. Econ., with prescribed passages from other authors.

Course II. Advanced Political Economy (a continuation of course I).

Course III. Constitutional History.

Text: Parnell—Langmead—Const. Hst. of Eng.

KING'S.

Course I. Political Economy.

Text: Newton—Political Economy; Walker—Political Economy.

LAVAL.

There is a chair of Political Economy, but I was unable to discover anything about the courses of study.

MACMASTER.

Course I. Constitutional History.

Texts: Woodrow Wilson—The State; Bourinot—Constitutional History of Canada; Houston—Constitutional Documents of Canada.

Course II. Economics.

Text: Ely—Outlines of Economics.

MANITOBA.

Course I. Industrial Economy.

Course II. Social Economy.

Text: Walker's Political Economy.

Course III. The British Constitution.

Text: Bagehot—English Constitution.

MCGILL.

Course I. The Historical Development of Sociological Thought.

References: Comte, Spencer, De Greef, Schäffle, Mackenzie, Ward, Tarde, Giddings, Small and Vincent.

Course II. Political Science, as follows: General principles, relation to the social and economic sciences; origin and theory of the state; history of early institutions; the limits of legislative power; its relations to civil and political rights; modern governments and their administration, with particular reference to the growth of political institutions including local government and municipal administration; comparative politics; present day issues of problems; individualistic and socialistic movements.

References: Woodrow Wilson, The State; Willoughby, The Nature of the State; Bluntschli, Theory of the State; Mulford, The Nation;

Small and Vincent, Introduction to the Study of Society; Henderson, Social Elements; Bagehot, Physics and Politics; Sidgwick, Elements of Politics.

Course III. Economics (as under):

Scope and Method, main principles; History of Economic Theory; Wealth and its Distribution; Industrial Changes; Banking, Money, etc; Capital and Labor; Tariff Legislation; Protection and Free Trade; Public Finance and Taxation; Corporations and Trusts; Transportation, railways, shipping and commercial development, and generally the industrial organization of society.

References: Gide, Principles of Political Economy; Marshall, Economics of Industry; Davidson, The Bargain Theory of Wages; Toynbee, Industrial Revolution; Rae, Contemporary Socialism; Schäffle, The Quintessence of Socialism; Thurston, Economics and Industrial History; Ashley, Economic History; Mill, Political Economy; Adam Smith, Wealth of Nations.

Course I. Toynbee's Industrial Revolution.

Bagehot's Physics and Politics.

Fiske's American Political Ideas.

Course II. Gibbin's History of Commerce.

Egerton's Colonial Policy.

Course III Patten—Theory of Consumption.

Hobson—Problems of the Unemployed.

Bagehot—English Constitution.

Wilson—Congressional Government.

Bourinot—Constitutional History of Canada.

Course IV. The Wages Question and Ritchie's Principles of State Interference.

Sidgwick's Elements of Politics (selected chapters).

Giddings's Sociology.

JUNIOR CLASS ECONOMIC HISTORY.

Course V. Text Books—Cunningham's Industrial History of England. Caldecott—English Colonization and Empire.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Toynbee's Industrial Revolution.
Ashley's Economic History.

Mrs. Green's Town Life in the Fifteenth Century.

H. Zimmern's Hansa Towns.

Laveleye's Primitive Property.

Seeböhm's Village Community.

Social England.

Course VI. General Economics.

Text : Gide—Principles of Political Economy ; Bastable—Commerce of Nations ; Taussig's—Silver Situation ; Bagehot—Lombard Street.

Additional for Distinction : Marshall—Economics of Industry ; Davidson—The Bargain Theory of Wages ; Rae—Contemporary Socialism.

Course VII. The Theory of Wages.

Course VIII. The Theory of Money.

Course IX. The Theory of International Trade.

Course X. Taxation and Finance.

MT. ALLISON.

Course I. Constitutional History. Creasy's English Constitution ; Skottowe's History of Parliament ; Dr. Bourinot's Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada. Lectures will be given co ordinate with the study of the prescribed text-books, upon the Origin of Government, the History of the Aryans, the Governments of Greece, Rome, the United States, etc.

Course II. Political Economy.

Walker's Advanced Political Economy ; Gide's Principles of Political Economy. These works will be supplemented by lectures on the Canadian Banking Law, Sociology,

and the various modern problems of Applied Economics.

Course III International Law.
Text Book : Woolsey's International Law.

Books recommended : Hall's International Law ; Maine's Lectures on International Law ; Wharton's Digest.

QUEEN'S.

Course I. The General Principles of Political Economy.

Text : Gide's Principles of Political Economy.

Course II. The Theory of the State.

Texts : Plato's Republic, Book I. Locke—Treatise on Civil Government, Book II ; Leroy Beaulieu—The Modern State

Course III. The Nature of Social and Political Relations.

Texts : (a) Political Economy. Smith—Wealth of Nations
Mill—Principles of Political Economy.

Nicholson's Principles of Economics, Vol. I.

Ingram — History of Political Economy.

(b) Society and the State.

Aristotle—Politics.

Mill—Representative Government.

Maine—Ancient Law.

Carlyle—Sartor Resartus and Past and Present.

Willoughby—The Nature of the State.

Course IV. Economic, Social and Political Principles.

Reference Books :

Cunningham—Growth of English Industry and Commerce.

Wells — Recent Economic Changes.

Jevons—Money and Mechanism of Exchange.

Seligman—Essays in Taxation.

Brentano—The Relation of Labor to the Laws of to day.

Bluntschli—Theory of the State.
Holland—Elements of Jurisprudence.
Arnold—Culture and Anarchy.
Rae—Contemporary Socialism.

OTTAWA.

TORONTO.

Course I. The Elements of Economics.

Course II. English Constitutional History to Magna Charta.

Course III. English Constitutional History from Magna Charta.

Course IV. The Theory of Political Economy.

Course V. Economic History and Political Philosophy.

Course VI. International Law.

Course VII. Canadian Constitutional History.

TRINITY.

Course I. English Constitutional History.

Course II. English Economic History.

Course III. Political Economy.

Course IV. Political Science.

VICTORIA.

The courses here are the same as those offered in the University of Toronto, and with the same teaching staff.

After considering the foregoing, it appears that on the whole the Canadian colleges are devoting a fair share of their time to the social sciences. It must be said, however, that in some of the colleges the actual instruction given is not so great as might appear from the number of courses offered, as in many of the honor courses the student is left to do practically all of the work himself, rendering account at stated intervals by means of more or less rigid examinations. This method is often made necessary by the inadequate number of in-

structors, and the student's almost unlimited capacity for work. Thus comparisons with American colleges are valueless unless the foregoing fact be fully recognized. It might seem to the average observer that the Canadian institutions offer more instruction of an advanced grade in the undergraduate curriculum than colleges of similar size across the border. This may be true to a certain extent, but only on the basis mentioned. It may be of questionable benefit to immature students to allow them to enter upon a course of reading such as study in the social sciences entails without careful guidance from some one well qualified to lead them through the mazy paths. But be that as it may, we find the universities of this country recognizing the fact that the various social sciences constitute a department of learning to be considered in all arrangements and rearrangements of curricula. The question as to the pedagogic value of this may be raised, but it is an indisputable fact that the social and thus the moral value is great; particularly is this so with what is strictly sociological work. The study of the reactions between human institutions and individuals summons to its aid all the scientific and philosophical knowledge which the student may possess. And it is just here that from the standpoint of pedagogics its importance may be urged. A closer correlation of studies is greatly to be desired, and it seems that social science bids fair to bring about this result. If such is the case, the trend of the colleges in this direction is a cause for self gratulation. It gives evidence that the Canadian colleges are responding not merely to a demand born of fitful desire, but rather from an inherent belief that after all a systematic knowledge of the laws gov-

erning human association, or the society in which we live and move and have our being is the rational end of all intellectual development.

THE PLACE OF AMERICA IN WORLD POLITICS.*

BY DAVID JAYNE HILL, LL.D., ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE ultimate moral unity of the world is based on the oneness of nature and the oneness of man. For long ages men lived apart, separated by mountains and oceans, isolated, unknown, and hostile among themselves. Locality placed its birthmark of race, prejudice and superstition upon every man, and nations were impossible. War, conquest, subjugation, slavery, despotism, these were the cruel instruments by which ancient states were founded; and it is only in modern times that nationality, the child of mutual devotion to common purposes shared by great masses of men, has carried human organization beyond the confines established by arbitrary power.

All the progress of the world has tended to unify mankind; for the clearing of forests, the search for subterranean treasures, the redemption of arid wastes, the tunneling of mountains, and the flight of ships over the sea, have brought men closer together. Navigation has carried adventurers into broader seas; commerce has united the sympathies of far-distant peoples; invention has abridged distance, abbreviated time, and rendered world-wide publicity almost instantaneous; international credit has interlaced the interests of widely separated countries; destructive agents have rendered war almost equivalent to mutual annihilation and general

impoverishment; and even philanthropy has become international the floating hospitals of Russia turning their kindly prows toward South Africa, and the red crescent of the Turk claiming its rights in the ministry of mercy beside the red cross of the Christian in the great Parliament of Peace recently assembled at The Hague.

It is at last one world, and not a mere juxtaposition of worlds, in which we live; and our science, our literature, our commerce and our politics have all become cosmopolitan.

Three times in human history the world has changed its front, each time bringing into one another's presence larger and more powerful groups of nations. First, upon the Nile and the Euphrates rested the termini of civilization, halting as if uncertain of its future, glancing alternately at the Mediterranean and the Persian Gulf, through centuries of suspense and indecision, while the long, white caravans of early commerce, solemnly winding across the plains of Mesopotamia and the Arabian desert, opened the first rude highways of trade between the East and the West. Then turning seaward to begin its westward journey round the globe, Tyre, Sidon, Carthage and the isles of the Ægean, became the forefront of the world. Asia Minor, the Greek mainland, Sicily and Italy enter into

* The Convocation Address delivered on the occasion of the Thirty-second Convocation of the University, held April 2nd, 1900, at Central Music Hall, Chicago.

life at the touch of trade, and pass out of barbarism into civilization. For centuries the Mediterranean continues to be the centre of the world; and Asia, Africa and Europe contend for supremacy in the land locked sea. The Hansa towns rise to power and prosperity by extending their commerce to the north, but their source of wealth is still the eastern trade. Venice, risen from the sea and become the queen of the Adriatic, is long the most prosperous maritime power of the world; and Britain, a lone island in the northern seas, has still no dream of empire. Europe, inspired by the migrations on land and sea which awoke her sleeping energies through contact with the ancient East, when her knights poured into Asia to rescue the birth-spot of Christianity from the desecration of the infidel, is building her great monarchies on the ruins of the Middle Ages, when a Genoese sailor, trusting a larger vision, under the patronage of Spain, turns the prows of his little fleet into the darkness of the western seas, to find another continent. Returning, Columbus has changed the front of the world once more, the Atlantic becomes the highway of nations, the illimitable West rises everywhere to bar the search for a shorter path to India, and a New World is added to the trophies of Mankind.

The whole force and energy of Europe are now directed toward the sea, and all the maritime powers are eager to plough the ocean with their navies, and sow their colonies over the globe. A new Spain, a new France and a new England come into being, to repeat the struggles of the Old World in seeking the primacy of the New. A slender line of rude settlements springs up along the Atlantic seaboard of America, taking possession of the broad middle zone. The Spanish cannot de-

stroy it on the south, the French cannot drive it into the sea from the north and northwest, for it carries in its blood domestic and civic virtues bred in the forests of Germany, and liberties wrested from powerful kings through centuries of freedom and self-rule. Sturdy, industrious, self-reliant, the increasing stream of population presses westward, building camps and cabins in the wilderness. The thrilling history of westward expansion across the American continent is the most brilliant chapter in the history of civilization, the greatest exhibition of human energy in the long battle of man with nature. Independence gained, the great North-west Territory ceded to the United States by Great Britain, the self-governing colonies federated into a nation, the Constitution framed, the vast national domain, through a supreme act of sovereignty, ruled in the name of the people, an irrepressible race crosses the Rocky Mountains, or reaches the golden shores of California by the slow ships which circumnavigate South America. The natural wealth of the Pacific slope attracts adventurous men, fearless, enterprising, indomitable, who, in their country's name, without etiquette or formality of any kind, take possession of the continent's western rim. We need not pause to speak of military occupation, conquest or cession, as we follow these swift and sure movements of destiny; for all are unimportant in the light of the controlling fact that strong men have at length arrived, capable of redeeming nature, ready and able to plant justice, law and political institutions, where but yesterday only wild vegetation and rude races grew and perished in the rank luxuriance of a primeval age.

The foremost in this race across the continent, voluntary exiles from

civilization, fond of adventure and courting danger, yet feel themselves isolated and alone, and look back with a kind of terror at the awful spaces of plain and mountain that separated them from their eastern homes. But the whole vast area is soon bound together and made one, held by the inseparable bonds of a federated statehood, sealed by the blood of the whole land, the terrible price of national union; and the great transcontinental railroads which presently thread the prairies and pierce the mountains, prove that the nation has at last mastered its domain, and clasped it together with bands of steel from ocean to ocean.

Each citizen becomes intent upon his private task, and no one is conscious of the change which time and toil have wrought, while still farther westward, along the track of the sinking sun, far out into the Pacific, Americans continue to wander, building their homes where eternal summer smiles on the islands that float between the ocean and the stars. The nation is startled by the voice of kindred beyond the sea demanding the protection of the United States for the fragile republic of Hawaii, brought into being in a night, and asking to share the flag and the destinies of the American people.

It is an impressive moment, and the government hesitates with indecision at the thought of extending national responsibility over a spot of earth so remote from its continental heritage, thereby advancing the frontiers of the nation two thousand miles into the western ocean. It has not dreamed of overleaping its continental boundaries, and has no thought concerning far-distant islands, except that they would be a burden and a care. But a series of grievances becomes intol-

erable, a strong impulse of chivalrous feeling long repressed, an inexplicable incident interpreted as an insult and a challenge, drive the United States into a war with Spain; and the new, untried navy is bidden to do its work. The Atlantic coast towns shudder at the thought of the sudden appearance of some destructive armada, looming out of the mysterious mists of the sea to lay them waste, and peaceful cottagers dream of exposure on the unprotected shore of New England; when suddenly in the early hours of a May morning, a squadron of American ships quietly steams into Manila Bay, and before the sun has set the world understands that the front of civilization has changed once more, and the Pacific Ocean has become the centre of the world.

I have said the centre of the world, for that is always the centre where the new work calls, where the unsolved problems rise, and where the energies of civilization gather to complete their unfinished task. And this vast ocean, around whose borders nearly one-half of the earth's inhabitants are distributed, and toward which their converging lines of interest are directed, the outlet of their commerce and the common medium of their intercourse, is destined to be the most magnificent meeting place of nations which history has known. More than a hundred lines of railroad, bearing the products of every zone, now run toward the Pacific; and when the trans-Siberian line is completed, the journey from Paris to Japan, including the sea passage, can be made in fifteen days. Across this great ocean, whose waters for centuries were traversed by only one small sailing ship each year between Manila and Acapulco, a dozen lines of steamships, some of them operating nearly a hundred vessels, now

connect the ports of America, Asia, and Australia. Several systems of trans-Pacific cables are already in contemplation, destined to complete the telegraphic unity of the world which already has 170,000 miles of submarine communication—an aggregate length seven times the girdle of the globe. The future commerce of this great ocean is beyond human calculation; its total annual trade already amounting to \$5,000,000,000; while that of Japan alone, which has doubled within ten years has reached \$2,000,000,000.

As if awakened from a marvellous dream to find itself in the presence of a more wonderful reality, the United States emerges from its war with Spain to discover that it has suddenly become one of the greatest oceanic powers of the world, holding on the west, Tutuila, the finest port in the southern Pacific, the Hawaiian islands, Guam and the Philippine archipelago, while its continental coastline of more than five thousand miles, occupies nearly one fourth of the entire Pacific waterway. In Alaska alone, the area of Great Britain, Ireland, the twenty-six states of the German Empire and the whole of France could be delimited without overlapping its borders. On one of its great rivers forty lines of steam vessels are now said to be in operation, and its mineral wealth is believed to surpass all that has been extracted from the territory west of the Mississippi, which would twice pay the cost of the Civil War. In rebuke of our indifference to the value of a great possession, a responsible man of science affirms after personal inspection, that Alaska is "far better country than much of Great Britain and Norway or even parts of Prussia." In the light of the principle laid down by Montesquieu, that "countries are

not cultivated by reason of their fertility, but by reason of their liberty," Alaska, so long treated with contempt, may become in the distant future the home of happy millions, and even the seat of great and powerful states.

No longer a struggling federation of small commonwealths scattered along the Atlantic seaboard, but a great and powerful nation commanding the breadth of the continent and ruling distant islands, what is to be the part of the United States in those great movements which are changing the political and moral geography of the world? Will it endeavor to undo the work of those unseen forces that have thrust it into the forefront of advancing civilization, which is now returning to its cradle in the East after completing the circuit of the globe? Will it follow the counsel of those who oppose the extension of American sovereignty beyond the confines of the continent, and who demand that our flag be lowered before the standards of self constituted chieftains, imagined to embody the sovereignty of a people because they have inflamed with insurrection a single one of eighty-four native tribes, never recognized as a state, nor even constituting a nation, and wholly devoid of public responsibility? When the public archives have told their whole story, it will appear that the treaty of Paris was not a bargain in the interest of trade, but the charter of liberty for twelve millions of human beings gathered under the protecting folds of a flag able to defend them from foreign aggression and domestic anarchy. The one conceivable opportunity for the free development of self-government in the Philippine archipelago, so far as that may be possible, was secured when the sovereignty over those islands passed

from Spain to the United States. In the name of just administration, in the name of international tranquillity, and in the name of self-government itself, the United States can not lower its flag wherever it has been raised, until anarchy has been suppressed, public order established, and the world convinced that our President expressed the real purpose of the American people when he sent forth his Philippine commissioners "as bearers of the good will, the protection and the richest blessings of a liberating rather than a conquering nation."

The advocates of Little America as opposed to Greater America have sought to inspire the conviction that our recent development is the fruit of political materialism—a repudiation of those great ideas which animated the founders of this nation. Deriving their standard of national morality from the cloister, they find the path of duty in perpetual isolation, and proclaim the doctrine that the material and moral expansion of the country are contradictory and incompatible. But all experience teaches that the improvement of national character is not to be sought by pious contemplation of one's virtues in a monastic cell, but winged from the stern issues of life by conscientious effort in the great field of activity; for nations, like men, become strong and great only by manfully mastering their divinely appointed tasks. It is impossible that the Hindoo conception of duty should find acceptance in occidental minds. The American people, in spite of calumniators, have grown in soul as rapidly as they have grown in wealth and comfort; and organized charity, public education and general culture are the irrefutable proofs that material prosperity does not of necessity impoverish the soul of a na-

tion. It is a sad perversion of truth for men to say that there is nothing colossal in America but its geography and its private fortunes, nothing great or noble in its gentleness and magnanimity, for all that is really notable in our civilization has sprung from considerations which lie beyond the needs of particular persons or even of the present time. We plant trees, build cities, enact laws and found colleges; but how small would all our enterprises seem, if the only benefit to be derived from them were the little good that may fall to us! The future! That is the hope and the inspiration of humanity, the power that moves man's nature by "secret and inviolable springs." The guarantee of human progress lies in the constructive instincts of mankind, and the dignity of a race is measured by the unselfish enthusiasm with which its members think and toil for the good that will live after them.

Any form of expansion which does not include the extension and diffusion of that which characterizes our deeper and purer national life, that which we are proud to call our "Americanism," is not worthy of the energies and the ambition of the American people. What, then, is that Americanism which we cannot abandon or disregard without casting into the sea the precious pearl of our national inheritance? It is the principle that no form of civil polity is tolerable which does not permit and encourage the most free and unrestrained development and exercise of all those mental and moral faculties and energies which give force and value to the individual man; the idea of a free, generous and harmonious co-operation of man with man, of institution with institution, of party with party, and of commonwealth with common-

wealth in the promotion of general prosperity, without regard to class, creed, section or racial origin; a reverence for ideals of justice and equity incorporated into the law of the land, made operative by the combined force of society and sustained by the glad and willing obedience of all its members. Liberty is sweet, but it is not the whole secret of our national development. Fraternity is noble, but it is not the only bond of our civic coherence. Deeper than both liberty and fraternity lies the sublime conception of an imperative moral order, which is not merely the fertile source of personal rights but the compelling force of individual and national duties. Without this fundamental bond, men are but self-conscious atoms, and societies mere drifting vapors which skirt the hills in the morning and vanish before the noon.

The greatness of America lies in the deep-seated conviction of the American people that they mean to do what is right. The way is not always easy, but if any axiom can be stated of this nation, it is that it will not suffer any wrong which human power can repress to enjoy a permanent existence within its jurisdiction. Slavery was a dark spot on the American conscience, but the hand of Lincoln swept it away. Polygamy reproached the honor of the nation; and, behold, it is gone and its apostles are silent. Rapine and butchery desolated the fair island of Cuba, and the great guns of our squadron thundered, "Let us have peace!" "If you do not trust the people," said a great orator, "you march into night." If you cannot trust the people, whom can you trust? Presidents and cabinets and councils are never so wise as when they open their ears to the voice of the nation—not, in-

deed, to the strident vociferations of mere partisans, but to the calm expression of the national intelligence voiced by the measured, deliberate conclusions of an enlightened people.

We sometimes speak of commerce as if it were essentially sordid and selfish, but we must not overlook its beneficent influence. "Trade," says a great moralist, "is a plant which grows wherever there is peace, as soon as there is peace, and as long as there is peace." It is the great peacemaker, the friend of liberty and of law, and wherever it leads the way there the gifts of civilization soon follow. Already the hand of this great nation has been stretched out over the broad Pacific to invite the world to a peaceful compact in the interest of universal commerce. The transformation of China will be the work of the coming century, and four great European powers have sought to procure for themselves advantages in the commercial rivalry that has already begun. Appealing to solemn treaties which have opened to the American people the trade of that vast empire—apparently on the point of being imperiled by exclusive policies—in order to maintain equal rights for the traders and manufacturers of the United States, the President has invited the nations, through his distinguished Secretary of State, to give assurances that that "open door" shall not be closed against us. Recognizing the rights of the American people as a great pacific power, England, Russia, Germany, France, Italy and Japan have responded in that just and friendly spirit which we had reason to expect from them, and in a body of diplomatic correspondence recently offered to the public these powers have collectively guaranteed to the United States that fair and

equal treatment which equity demands.

And this new era of world-wide commerce which is now about to dawn is only the natural sequence of our continental development, the fulfilment of early tendencies and prophecies. In 1830 de Tocqueville wrote: "The Americans themselves now transport to their own shores nine-tenths of the European produce which they consume; and they also bring three-quarters of the exports of the New World to the European consumer." "Nations, as well as men," he continues, "almost always betray the prominent features of their future destiny in their earliest years. When I contemplate the ardor with which the Americans prosecute commerce, the advantages which aid them and the success of their undertakings, I cannot help believing that they will one day become the first maritime power of the globe. They are born to rule the seas, as the Romans were to conquer the world."

With ample territory, and coveting the land of no other nation, with inexhaustible treasures of coal, iron and timber, with industries capable of supplying the markets of the world, midway between the Atlantic and the Pacific, in the zone of maximum efficiency, the American people, cosmopolitan in origin and sympathies, are, without question, destined to become a great power on the sea.

The extension and enlargement of political obligations and commercial interests can have but one effect upon our national life and public character; for a nation great enough to bear it is always elevated and strengthened by responsibility. The increasingly delicate and growing magnitude of private business have always demanded more capable and honorable administra-

tion, and it cannot be otherwise in our public life. In commonplace circumstances any man will do, but in great emergencies none but real men are wanted. Cabinet ministers, governors-general and diplomatic and consular officers must henceforth be men of the highest ability and character; for the country can supply them, and the people will demand them. The exuberant prodigality of American character may consent to entrust domestic affairs to unknown and untried men; for if we are robbed it is only by our friends and neighbors! But when complications with foreign powers arise, when the rights of the defenceless are in question, when the whole world is watching our conduct and sitting in judgment upon our motives, the pride of the nation will demand that the representatives of its honor be loyal to their sacred trust.

More than any other human institutions, those of education connect the present with the past, and the past with the future. More than any others, they represent the highest and most general interests of humanity, and the degree in which their influence is felt is the best measure of the height to which civilization has attained. Never before in the development of our country, never before in the history of the world, have men of liberal training and high discipline been so much in demand for public service as at the present time.

As the mariner, when beyond the sight of land, looks up for guidance to the sun and stars, a nation, in great emergencies, instinctively returns to cardinal principles, and puts its faith in its most tried and trusted citizens. Aiming at peace, as the one essential condition for the enjoyment of liberty; at order, as the one indispensable necessity

of social existence; at justice, as the fundamental right of human nature, the country knows that in contending for these, in opposing everything that would prevent or delay them, it is acting in the spirit of all the great and good who have gone before, or who will follow after. If any form of government can rise to the level of great human interests and secure the rights of humanity, it is that of a sovereign people, able to sit in judgment upon its public servants and hold them responsible for their official acts. Wherever the flag of our

country flies, on land or sea, there the American conscience is present to uphold it, as the symbol and pledge of liberty and law. In the divine charter of humanity there are no prescriptions of latitude and longitude; the boundaries of nations do not limit the jurisdiction of ethical principles, and the vast oceanic spaces present no barriers to human rights, for there, as everywhere, the eternal laws which Infinite Power has interfused with nature press forward to their fulfilment in the unfinished work of man's development.

—*The University Record.*

NATIONAL SYSTEM OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

THE demand for "technical education" has become so pronounced that its incorporation with our State school and University system cannot very long be delayed. A glance, therefore, at the position this latest phase of school instruction holds in the education systems of the older world countries, with one or two concrete examples, showing how it is being made to further the development of the great national sources of wealth, will help to crystallise the modern connotation of the term used, and make clear to the public mind its exact relationship to general State education. It will also indicate the direction in which the State here may, by a judicious eclecticism, safely go in taking advantage of the older world experience.

In thus looking abroad what most arrest attention are:—The all-pervading character of State control over the people's education, the intense interest now taken by Governments in the intellectual betterment of the labor and industrial classes, the enormous expenditure municipal corporations, conjointly with the

State, incur in founding and maintaining technical schools, and the success with which this class of instruction is being directed to the promotion of local industries. And these social phenomena, mark, are but the resultants of the inter-play of two master-passions that at present dominate Christendom—the passion to become possessed of the most destructive armament, and a passion for acquiring foreign commercial expansion. The Governments of Continental Europe were the first to realise the economic value of an educated soldiery and a skilled proletariat. Hence, during the course of three decades, there have sprung up in Austria, France, Germany, Switzerland, Sweden and other continental countries schools in which the mental, physical and business faculties of the nation's youthhood are trained concurrently. In some of them are to be found State systems of education under which, from the elementary primary school up to the University, there is no break; each department of school, and every school course, be-

ing so correlated that there is neither waste of teaching power nor overlapping of studies.

For instance, the French State school system is organically synthetic, rhythmic in working and largely technical in character. The State educational institutions are of three grades—Primary schools, general and technical; secondary schools, classical, modern and advanced technical; superior schools, technical colleges and universities. The administration of the whole of these, together with the duty of licensing and inspecting private schools, are functions of a central Cabinet department, presided over by a Minister of Public Instruction, who is assisted by a superior council, the Minister of Trade and Commerce, and by three directors, called respectively directors of primary, secondary and superior education. Professors at the universities, inspectors of schools and teachers are under this State department. Their tenure of office, salaries and duties are defined by law and departmental regulation. And yet the schools are not altogether taken out of the hands of the people. A large proportion of the cost of erecting school buildings and residences for teachers, as well as for the maintenance of the schools, is thrown upon municipal councils—these being empowered by law to appropriate for such purposes out of the municipal revenue whatever amount they may deem requisite. The choosing of school sites, defining the special character of schools needed within their boundaries, and an active part in the oversight of the schools are delegated by the Central Education Department to local councils and committees.

The State primary schools are of distinct types. First, there are primary day schools, similar in char-

acter to the State schools in Victoria, the object of which is to give a good general education to children resident in the immediate neighbourhood of the schools. Then there are district primary dayschools—a class of schools at present unknown in this colony—that draw their scholars from a wide area, in which general education is continued and largely added to by specialised instruction in sections. In the first place, the children are taught the principles which underlie agricultural, commercial, industrial and other avocations. Afterwards, they are taught the practical application of these principles and trained in the practice of the several occupations. Within the walls of this bifurcated type of school, French primary general and primary technical education begins and ends. After passing through the district primary day schools, pupils are fully capable of either going out into the world to earn their own living as junior workmen, or of pursuing their studies at the State Universities.

The course of instruction laid down for schools of the first-named type takes a much wider range than does the programme of free instruction here. It covers all the requirements of what is known by the term a good, secondary school, English education. Between the age of six and thirteen years, the law makes education compulsory upon children, and during that period they are all subject to examination by inspectors from the Education Department, whether under instruction at home or at school. Annual public examinations are held by the Department, at which children of eleven and over are called upon to present themselves. Those who pass get a "Certificate of Primary Instruction," holders of which are exempt from the operation of the

compulsory clauses of the education law, and may go into employment.

But the chief interest centres in the evolution of the course of instruction given in schools of the second type—the district primary day schools. Admission to these district schools is restricted to children who have taken their certificates of primary instruction, and have since then “passed a full year in the highest standard of a primary elementary school,” or who have passed an examination of equivalent value to both the above requirements. Every district day school must be provided with a properly-furnished workshop and workrooms, and it is mandatory upon teachers to put all the boys through a course of manual work in both iron and wood. There are three divisions of district primary schools. In the first division, the school course is arranged for two years, the curriculum of the first year being a repetition, with but slight enlargement, of the primary school work, and that of the second year is one of specialized studies, directed to whatever will tend to give the children a taste for business and handicraft. At the end of the second year, the parents of the scholars are expected by the Department to decide upon the particular sub-division—general or technical—they wish their children to be trained under.

In the second and third divisions of district primary schools, the curriculum becomes progressively specialized. There is now a three years' course, which may be extended to a fourth year. Primary education, in addition to the subjects taught in the previous division, embraces “applied arithmetic, the elements of practical algebraical and geometrical work, the rules of ordinary accounts and bookkeeping, elementary, natural and physical science as applied to agriculture,

manufacture and hygiene, geometrical, model and ornamental drawing, the elements of common law and political economy, elementary French history and literature, the principal epochs of general history, and more especially those of modern history, modern languages, working in wood and metal, needlework, cutting out and dressmaking.” It must be borne in mind that the manual and technical training given in this division of schools is confined to what is strictly educational in character. The aim of the curricula is solely to develop in the children before they leave school skilfulness of hand and eye, and a general acquaintance with the use of tools, and with the properties of wood and iron. No attempt is here allowed to be made to teach distinct trades or businesses. This was very clearly impressed upon the officers of his Department by the Minister of Public Instruction in a circular sent out shortly after those district schools in which trades were taught had been placed under the technical education branch of the Department of Trade and Commerce. The circular is dated 15th February, 1893, and points out that the bulk of scholars in this division of district primary schools are the children of the industrial class and will be obliged to leave the school at an early age, and most likely go into employments requiring hand craft and manual work, that teachers ought, therefore, to see that the minds of scholars were directed to the study of those subjects most likely to be of practical use to them. “The teaching should be,” he says, “both technical and professional, but in a different sense of the term from that understood in those strictly technical schools which ‘give instruction in the practice of industry and commerce.’”

District primary day schools of

the next division are technical schools in the highest sense of the term—that is, schools in which professions or trades are taught, and are called Practical Schools of Commerce and Industry. The workshops and classrooms are fitted up with the best machinery and appliances, the aim being to give the pupils a superior training to that obtainable by an ordinary apprentice, and the course of study and practice extends over three or more years. Before being admitted a candidate "has to undergo an examination before the headmaster, a master on the literary side and a master on the science side. On the result depends the particular 'year' or 'course' in which he or she will be placed." In order that the local requirements of each district may be met, greater specialisation than formerly is allowed. The organization of technical education is not looked upon as a question of pedagogics, but as one of vital moment to the State. The following remarks by the Minister of Technical Instruction apply to this colony as well as to France:—"On account of the

division of labor and the use of machinery, apprenticeship at the workshop scarcely exists nowadays, except under abnormal circumstances, and the changes which have been introduced in tools have demonstrated more clearly than ever before the necessity for workmen possessing a theoretical knowledge sufficient for and adapted to the changing needs of the workshop. It has become a matter which cannot be longer ignored that we should fill up the break that has been created in our commercial and industrial organization. It has become absolutely necessary to put at the disposal of our commercial houses well-educated assistants, and to furnish our manufacturers with properly qualified workmen. It is the duty of the technical schools to fulfil this task, and you will be good enough to bear these considerations in mind when arranging the direction to be given to the studies in these schools."

How admirably the district general and technical schools are organized, graded and systematised, may be gathered from the following:—

TIME-TABLE OF DISTRICT PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—

Subjects of Instruction	Number of hours per week of study.	SUBJECTS OF STUDY.															Total hours per week.		
		Morals.	French Language.	Handwriting.	History and Civics.	Geography.	Living Languages.	Mathematics.	Accounts and Bookkeeping.	Physics and Chemistry.	Natural History and Hygiene.	Agriculture & Horticulture.	Common Law and Political Economy.	Drawing and Modelling.	Manual and Agriculture.	Gymnastics.		Singing.	Time to.
General Education																			
Course—																			
First year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	3	4	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30
Second year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	3	4	1	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30
Third year.....	1	1	4	1	2	1	3	3	3	1	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30
Industrial Education																			
Course—																			
First year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	3	4	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	
Second year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	3	4	—	—	—	—	4	4	2	1	30	
Third year.....	1	1	2	1	1	1	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	4	4	2	1	30	
Commercial Education																			
Course—																			
First year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	3	4	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	
Second year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	3	4	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	
Third year.....	1	1	2	1	2	1	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	
Agricultural Education																			
Course—																			
First year.....	1	1	5	1	1	1	3	4	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	
Second year.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	—	2	2	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	
Third year.....	1	1	2	1	1	1	—	1	2	—	—	—	—	3	4	2	1	30	

From the above it will be seen that during the first year's course there is no differentiation—all the sections work as one class. After that, each section has its own specialties. The agricultural section has no languages, very little drawing, but is stronger in natural sciences and in manual occupations bearing upon soil culture. The industrial section has more mathematics and technical drawing and manual work on which six hours a week are spent as contrasted with two hours a week in the commercial section. In the commercial section languages occupy four hours a week, bookkeeping three hours, as compared with one hour in the other sections, and an additional hour is given to geography. The characteristic of the general section is the time devoted to modern languages, viz., three hours per week throughout the course, for boys and girls, while in the commercial section this is raised to four hours for both, and in the industrial section it disappears, being replaced by additional mathematics, science and manual work. The one hour a week given by girls to domestic economy is included in the manual work.

The same care that guards, by examination, district primary and technical schools from the intrusion of children not sufficiently advanced to benefit from them, is exercised at the close of every year, so as to eliminate pupils whose capacities are not equal to the course they have entered upon. As will be seen from the time-table, courses are divided into "years" of study: Every twelve months scholars who are capable of taking up the next year's studies are advanced, and to ascertain whether they are or are not capable an examination is held. Those who fail to pass must either

go over the last year's work again or retire. Indeed, if at any stage the head master is convinced of a pupil's incapacity for any particular work or study, he at once acquaints the child's parents, and advises that it be put to something else. The Department declines to waste public expenditure in district schools upon pupils who are not likely to give back to the State some tangible return by becoming proficient workmen.

Three things should be emphasized in this connection. The district schools are boarding schools as well as day schools, because a large number of the pupils come from surrounding towns and villages too distant to permit of their being day scholars. The boarding fees are only from £25 to £30 a year. There is a remarkably liberal system of State scholarships, tenable for three years, with a possible extension to four, and are open to children of from twelve to fifteen who give evidence of merit and win them at competitive examinations. They are, very properly, only awarded to competitors whose parents are unable to pay boarding school rates or to bear the cost of their living at home. These scholarships provide for:—1. The whole or partial expense of pupils in boarding schools. 2. Boarding scholars in private residences. 3. Paying to parents the cost of scholarship holder's food, clothing, travelling expenses, etc., so as to help to make good the loss of the child's wages while at school. Then there are a number of travelling scholarships, which are awarded to district primary technical school pupils who intend to follow commercial or industrial careers. Candidates for them must be between sixteen and nineteen, and if successful at the competitive examination, have to prove that their parents are un-

able to send them abroad without the scholarship. In the year 1894 there were 1,004 State scholarships awarded to district primary technical schools, viz., girls, 410; boys, 594. To these have to be added the large number of scholarships given by counties and municipalities. Paris itself gave 150 in 1894, at a cost of £3,250. Scholarship holders may also be granted small sums for stationery, drawing instruments, books, etc. To those who need it, grants at the rate of £12 10s. for the first year, and £4 10s. a year afterward, are made for clothing. Taking the latest returns available (1890) of the attendances of pupils at district technical schools throughout France, it seems that out of a total of 40,572 there were no fewer than 2,139 or 11.4 per cent. who held scholarships. So that the scholarship system is playing an important part in spreading technical as well as practical and general education. The jealousy with which the republic views the competition of private schools may be gathered from the fact that wherever a district primary school can take the scholarship holder in, he or she must not be placed at a private establishment. Of the number who gained scholarships in the year 1896, only six boys and 12 girls were so placed. The number of children enrolled in the year 1894-5, attending the State schools, was 4,215,411; teachers, 148,153.

There are other features of the system besides its organic synthesis and the really practical character of its primary school instruction that give it a special significance at the present juncture. Under this system, primary education, it has been shown, embraces the very widest culture of faculty that the majority of the youth of a country can by any possibility require to fit them to be-

come wage-earners, and to give them a fair chance of pushing their way into society. And this, remember, is provided by the co-operative action of the Government with the municipal councils, without parents being compelled to pay a penny for fees, books, manual work materials, appliances for technical instruction and workshop machinery.

The following return of the various positions entered upon by pupils who, in the year 1895, left district day schools, proves that the system, although but a few years in force, is working in the direction its authors desired, and for the welfare of the country:—Percentage of the whole number of students.

Entered as students in secondary schools, 7.18; entered as student teachers in primary training colleges, 19.22; entered as teachers or monitors in primary and secondary schools, 3.44; entered in special schools preparing for different professions, such as arts and trades, agriculture or commerce, fine arts or music, watchmaking, naval trades or cabin boys, professions, etc., 8.79; entered as clerks in Government offices, central and local, for instance—post and telegraph, roads and bridges, taxes, registrative, Custom house, administrative, police, etc., 5.72; entered as employees in offices or shops, merchants, manufacturers, architects and builders and shop assistants, 25.70; entered as clerks in banks or financial concerns, 0.86; entered workmen or apprentices in industrial workshops, 19.09; returned to their families to follow an industrial career, 8.97; returned to their families to follow a commercial career, 11.50; returned to their families to follow an agricultural career, 10.68; returned to their families to follow domestic duties (girls) 29.59 per cent.

Summary of careers entered upon:

—Manual occupations: Girls, 6.42; boys, 32.33. Total, 38.74 per cent. Clerical occupations or in shops: Girls, 12.87; boys, 30.90; total, 43.77 per cent. Teaching: Girls, 16.18; boys, 6.50; total, 22.68 per cent. Domestic Duties: Girls, only 20.50 per cent.

Advanced technical education is also adequately provided for by the State and supervised by departments responsible for each profession. Schools of agriculture by the Agricultural Department; schools of roads and bridges, by the Public Works Department; naval schools, by the Naval Department; commercial schools, by the Department of Commerce, etc. As in England, so is it in France, trade is rising in the social scale, and is drawing into its ranks persons who formerly en-

tered the professions. Wealthy merchants more frequently than formerly put their sons into their own business. Paris has two superior commercial schools, and Bordeaux, Le Havre, Lille, Marseilles, Rouen, Montpellier and Nancy, one each. At the end of the year 1897 the total number of students in these schools was given as 1042. One practical benefit the State offers as an inducement to young men to attend the schools of commerce is that four fifths of the students who succeed in getting a minimum of 65 per cent. of the marks obtainable during the old course of study are granted, in addition to the diploma, a remission of two out of the three years' compulsory military service.—From the *Age*, 12th August, 1899.

It was long a charge against the school training in the United States that history and geography practically ended with the American Republic. Except for what could be gleaned from Scripture and the classics, history practically began with the Revolutionary War. The simplicity of educated Americans as to the relations of Canada to the mother country has, for instance, long been a matter of astonishment and scorn to Canadians. English history naturally stands to all American history very much in the relation in which the Old Testament does to the New. It is an absolutely necessary introduction to it. Assuming as true the American view that the American development is far superior to that of Great Britain, it is none the less a development from what went before, and American history is no more com-

plete without the previous English history than English history itself would be. Indeed, not only is British constitutional history the stem upon which that of the United States grew, it is also the source and spring of all the constitutions in the world, so that, looking at the study of history not as information only, but as education, there is no history in the last ten centuries that begins to be as valuable as that of England. Recent developments have greatly enlarged the scope of the great nation's vision, and it seems there is now too much English history in the American schools for the liking of some of the people. The Germans want German history to be given an equal place, and the Irish have naturally taken up the fight and wish Irish history made a staple part of the course.—*The Montreal Witness*.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for day,
 Though sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that working strongly, binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

THE UNEXPECTED.

The journey from Oxford to Glasgow, a distance of more than 400 miles, was accomplished in one day, all in daylight. What a succession of names of cities and towns famous in the story of Great Britain! I looked with special interest for Carlisle; Scotsmen and Highlanders will readily understand why. There is no need this day to repeat the stirring tales of the Border towns. Every convenient opportunity was taken to chat with working men of all trades, and the opinion was found almost universal that a workingman can do better in Britain, as far as wages are concerned, than in Canada. This opinion was expressed more emphatically in Glasgow than at any other point on the journey. I must not write on the contrast between the country in England as it is seen for miles about the city of Oxford, and the country in Scotland as seen about Glasgow. I feel that the contrast would be unfair, and would be certainly misunderstood.

Again, we were fortunate, through the kindness of friends, in being cared for by an excellent family, with whom we felt perfectly at home, within a few minutes' walk of the University of Glasgow. The University buildings are in a very fine park, through which the River Kelvin runs; a most picturesque site for this ancient seat of learning. All classes closed, of course. We went through some of the class-rooms, and sunned and refreshed ourselves by strolling through the University grounds and resting on the banks of

the Kelvin. One morning I was taught a lesson on the meaning of the United Kingdom at Home.

Early one morning I went to get a newspaper to a bookstore at the entrance of the Botanic Gardens, Glasgow. In charge of the store was a tidy, smart lassie. I asked, thoughtlessly, for two or three newspapers published in London. No, the lassie promptly said, they had none of them. To the query, did she not keep the "English" papers, she answered, without a moment's hesitation, no, she did not; they had plenty of papers of their *own*.

The Botanic Gardens! Such a place for rest and enjoyment for its citizens as you would expect to be provided by such a populous and wealthy city as Glasgow. Here you find a park set aside for the young lads and lassies of Glasgow to play in, to romp in, unconfined. The shout was not exactly in tone the same as I heard in Greenwich Park, but, no doubt, it meant "Scotland Forever!"

We in Canada have a good deal to learn from our fathers in the Home land and one thing is how to care for the physical well-being of the children, boys and girls; give them grounds to play in: allow freedom of action in the open air.

Glasgow has the reputation of being the best governed municipality in Great Britain, in fact in the world. For its school organization the good name of this large and thriving city stands equally high. When we were there in the beginning of August, 1899, the schools were

all closed. Sympathy forbade a visit to any teacher during vacation. Found the old Grammar school of this ancient city in a fine, modern building. The school-yard is comparatively small which may be accounted for by the fact, that the school is in the heart of the city.

One beautiful forenoon (all the days were fine, during the four weeks we were in the Old Country) while sitting on Gilmore Hill, the site of the university, musing on the past and what vital influences Glasgow exerted upon us (Highlands) by its university and through the Macleods for three generations at least, two young men came to me and put the query: Can we see the Clyde? The natural answer, let us try, was given. We then experimented with the unaided eye, but not a glint of the busy Clyde could we see. The men turned out to be citizens of the U.S.A., one from Pennsylvania, the other from Kentucky. We took words and gloried in our original homeland.

It was my good fortune to visit one of the chief industries of Glasgow. The acting foreman was most obliging, took me over all the establishment, now some hundreds of years old, explaining fully their mode of work and the products. And while he was doing this I asked about prices and profits and in so doing touched a sore point. He informed me that their profits were very much reduced, almost nothing, and this is the case, said he, though we are most economical in saving and selling all by-products as well as improving our machinery. I asked for his explanation for this untoward state of affairs. His answer was that it is all owing to competition and chiefly to the competition from America; because while their productions are duty free into our country, they charge us such a high rate

for admission to their markets, that there is scarcely anything left for the manufacturers of Great Britain, and he added, very emphatically, "It is real mean of them. We will have to revise our manner of dealing with them."

Greenock, on the south bank of the Firth of Clyde and 22 miles nearer the sea than Glasgow, with which it is connected by two competing lines of railway, Greenock is the starting point for many who visit the Highlands and Western Isles. Those who wish to throw an ungenerous gibe at Greenock, say that it is always raining in Greenock. Untrue, this saying, for finer weather could not be than we had every time we were in the thriving town of Greenock.

In this age of industry and science, every one has heard and holds in honour the name of James Watt, the famous engineer. James Watt belongs to Greenock, and has been specially honoured in various ways by the citizens thereof.

The sweet singer of Israel has the rare distinction of having voiced for man, his sense of two of his deepest griefs: the loss of a companion and the loss of a son.

Every parent in the keenness of his sorrow, cries out almost instinctively in the words used by the Hebrew poet to give expression to the agony he endures at the loss of a son. The bard of Scotland has the unique honor of telling forth in equally felicitous terms the aching void felt by those who have lost one dear to them as their own soul.

Here lies all that is mortal of Mary, in one of the most attractive spots in Greenock, that quiet resting-place—where

"Mouldering now in silent dust,
That heart that loved me dearly."

is held in reverence almost as great

as her memory was cherished by the poet when he was alive.

It is a sight to which Greenock can take visitors, assured that they will not readily forget.

The sun had passed the meridian by a few hours, the shadows were lengthening, not a cloud was to be seen in the clear blue, the kirkyard bathed in sun-light and perfectly beautiful, such were the favorable conditions under which we saw and left the quiet resting-place of Highland Mary.

How much "Mary" did for Robbie Burns! She took him to a higher plane than he ever reached before, and held him there. Blessed Highland Mary. And how much has Robbie Burns done for the human race by his meeting with the lovely Celtic maiden?

Greenock has a great trust committed to it, and it is kept in the kirkyard of Old West Kirk, a kirk which for more than a hundred years was the only church in Greenock, and may be a pre-Reformation kirk.

In the disused kirkyard of the Old West Kirk is the grave of "Highland Mary," with an elaborate sculpture by Mossman. The grave is marked by a large, monumental slab, and adorned with a well carved group in low relief, representing the parting of the lovers, surmounted by a figure of Grief. The monument bears the name of "Mary," and under the figures are the two lines:

Oh! Mary, dear, departed shade,
Where is thy place of blissful rest?

The monument was erected in 1842, by public subscription and is surrounded by a railing, enclosing a small piece of ground, which has been decorated by flowers and plants loved and sang of by the poet. The kirkyard is the charge of Greenock Burns' Club.

Must not attempt to tell about the beauties seen on the way from Greenock to Tarbet, on Loch Fyne. These beauties and heart-moving scenes were not unexpected and, therefore, are excluded from our notes. A few of the names of places will be given, and they will be sufficient for the knowing ones: Dunbarton Castle, Dunoon, Rothesay, Colintraive, Kyles of Bute, Tighnabruaich.

Slept in Tarbet, and in the morning had "inter alia," herrings, for breakfast, which a country man, and evidently a judge of herrings, who kindly acted as divider amongst us, pronounced as "na sae bad," in answer to a question from his companion.

The coach from Campbelltown, 38 miles away, we found would not be in till noon, and, as our first resting point was only 12 miles from us, we decided to walk. And walk we did, on the King's highway.

Twelve miles on foot through the Highlands of Scotland, on the King's Highway, in sunshine most brilliant, fanned by a breeze as soft and gentle as he ever could wish; cheered by an occasional glint of the blue sea, Highland cattle here and there, also flocks of sheep, haymakers, keepers of hunting-lodges, etc., etc. Such was our lot on that August morning.

Clachan, Kintyre, under Tarbet, Loch Fyne, was our home for a week. We had not seen it for more than fifty years. Then Kintyre was full of people; every farm had a tenant and work people; now it is all given up to raising sheep and cattle.

Standing on the top of the Dun, some 350 feet above sea-level, from which the adjacent farms can be seen for some distance round, I directed the attention of my companion, who kindly came with me

to the top of the Dun, to the fact that all these farms within the memory of living men were full of men, women and children; then there were a hundred for every five now. The answer was, farming did not pay; raising sheep and cattle scarcely pays. The estates in Kintyre, for the most, are held by wealthy men, who come to such a paradise as this is to rest, recuperate and return to work again, or they spend the evening of their days in these healthy places. Your people did the wise thing, to go to Canada when they did. True words, but revealing the front of a very wide and difficult question.

The view from the top of the Dun on that Saturday morning was glorious. Looking west, the sea surrounds the Dun on two sides, north and west; the island Gigha, five miles away toward the setting sun. On this same spot many a time, prone on the ground, I watched the sun sinking like a red ball into the sea, a thing of beauty which has remained with me from earliest memory. On the left, the country, beautifully green, hilly, intersected in various directions by rows of trees; on the right, Islay, sixteen or eighteen miles away, and at about the same distance the mountains of Jura were being freed by the mid-day sun from a heavy covering of cloud, rising gradually from the mountain peaks, on which the sun began to shine with bright effulgence, the sea between adding its charm of beauty, rippling, sighing, singing. To the east, two miles away, is the Clachan; beyond, on the rising ground by the road-side, was the parish school, where first schooling began, and the master of which is gratefully remembered for his marked kindness. In the Clachan stands the parish kirk, as it has done for centuries, building pre-Reformation,

surrounded by the kirk-yard, the resting-place of the parishioners for generations, the site enclosed by two burns, which unite a little distance beyond the kirk on their way to the sea. The Bruce is said to have stayed in the Clachan ten days on his way to Arran during the war for independence.

The meeting of the Educational Association of Ontario last month was a successful one in numbers and in spirit. There was much work done in the different departments of the Association. The discussion on the Bible in the schools was the prominent feature of the Convention. The discussion which took place in the Modern Language Section was searching and satisfactory. The papers read by Prof. McFadyen and Messrs. Wetherald and Wright were admirable. Mr. Wright's paper appears in this issue and we hope to have the others later on. The same subject was under discussion in the Public School department, where too much attention was bestowed upon the word RELIGIOUS in the narrow sense of that word. The distinctive characteristics of Bible-teaching in schools and colleges must be: The ten words; the Sermon on the Mount; the Lord's Prayer, and the Apostle's Creed. All Christians are at one here. Let us not be afraid of one another but trust each other and work.

The educational opportunity which comes to a community only once in a while seems at the present moment to be making something of an approach on the city of Quebec, though it is just possible that the slow-moving English population of the good old capital may not have yet awakened to the advantage that lies at their door. There are many

pleasant signs of returning commercial activity and civic enterprise to be seen about the place. The streets and open spaces have been beautified, many spacious public buildings now overshadow the picturesque thoroughfares, while the extending suburbs have immediate access to the more central sections by a system of electric cars, which has become a comfort and a pride to the citizens. And now with the strides which are being made in modernizing the place, with due regard to the preservation of the old landmarks, there comes the prospect of educational advancement which cannot but be gratifying to all who are interested in the welfare of the old place so dear to all Canadians. There are few, if any, of our readers who have not heard of Morrin College, many of them perhaps been in closer touch with the facts of its later history than is the writer of this present article. As may be seen from previous issues, reference has been made more than once to its moribund condition, but the fear of saying too much or too little has been a restraint for years back of those who have wished well to the institution and those connected with it. But now that the news comes to us that in its higher collegiate significance as an Arts College and Theological Hall, the institution has been closed, the restraint in the making of suggestions has been removed, and the question of utilizing the endowments in a way that may benefit Quebec more than the deceased institution ever did or could do, is now fairly in order. Of course no benefit can now arise from discussing the cause which led to the closing of the college. There have been mistakes made—serious mistakes—and it now only remains for those who are really responsible for these mistakes to join hands with those who are willing to

overlook the mistakes, and come to a reasonable settlement of the educational future of the English speaking section of the community, and a wise consolidation of the funds that are happily in hand to crown such a settlement with success.

The consolidation of the local educational interests of the Quebecers would be an easy task were there not so many interests to deal with. There are no less than three boards that must have their opinions collated and co-ordinated before anything practical could be realized, and it is doubtful whether any of these boards have so far ventured to make any public expression of opinion. First there is the Board of Governors of the college, in whose hands are the *post mortem* resources of that institution amounting to over eighty thousand dollars in ready money and as much more in buildings and appliances. Then there is the Board of Directors of the Boys' High School who have the supervision of about one hundred boys and seventy thousand dollars' worth of property with a yearly income from the Government of twelve hundred dollars and the prospect of a handsome legacy from the Gibb estate. And third, there is the Protestant Board of School Commissioners, which has charge of the Girls' High School, and one Public School with just barely enough to make ends meet. The last may be said to have had the hardest road to travel as far as finances are concerned, for while Morrin College has been maturing its annual gift to the country of one or two B.A.'s. at a cost of thousands of dollars each, and the High School preparing a bright lad or two to matriculate at the cost of many hundreds a head

the School Commissioners have had to bear the burden of educating the bulk of the Protestant children of Quebec, with a very limited sum to spend on each. The position of affairs at the present moment is thus easily enough understood. The system has had its superstructure on a tripod of very unequal legs, and it is a marvel that the inequality in these props, that is, the disproportionate distribution of funds, has not led to its toppling over long before this. The issue of the whole matter is that there is not a properly-equipped school, speaking for the Protestants, in the city of Quebec. The buildings are all out of date and the appliances unworthily behind the times; and, what is worse, there is a kind of settled opinion in certain quarters that things, not being as bad as they might be, do not as yet stand in need of reform. The first step that is really necessary is to get a deputation representing the public of Quebec to visit other cities in Canada and to report afterwards on the condition of the Quebec schools. Indeed, such a deputation might be arranged for after the three Boards have been brought together to consider the situation, and when the deputation had issued its report there would be exposed, by comparison, such a condition of antiquated methods and appliances that everybody in Quebec would be only too glad to join in supporting any plan of amelioration.

What that plan should be we are not altogether prepared to say. But why should Quebec, with the means at her disposal, not have an institution such as the High School of Montreal, with the grading from the little ones in the kindergarten to the pupil in highest academic class, all under one roof and in a central position? Quebec could even do better in this respect than Montreal,

and arrange to have its great central school erected in the midst of spacious grounds where the recreation without would be a complement to the training within. We expect to hear from Quebec.

Those who have been in at the death of Morrin College may find much to interest them in an article in the last *Atlantic Monthly*, entitled "The Perplexities of a College President," by one of the Guild. The prelude to the article is a choice bit of literature, an allegory with a lesson in its every line, which to be thoroughly enjoyed must be read word for word. We are not able to quote the whole article, but the troubles of the college president are thus set forth in a paragraph, the reading of which will induce the asking for the April issue of the *Atlantic Monthly* in more circles than one. It is as follows:

"Our new president must face all this with his hands practically tied. He sees clearly what ought to be done; he knows that his thought is entirely coincident with that of all who are really well informed, and who speak with easily recognized authority in these matters; and he realizes also, with a heavy heart, that the young people coming and going at his university have but this one chance to secure wise and efficient and inspiring instruction: yet he must wait, and wait, and wait, simply because the educational world is not yet willing to place its affairs upon a business basis, and accept methods of organization and administration which commend themselves to all sane business men in all undertakings. 'He is attempting to run the university precisely as he would run a woollen factory' wailed a member of the faculty, somewhat recently, to one of the trustees; and it was actually scored

against the new president in the board that his methods were too commercial. 'There ought to be one spot left in the world where there would be something of the dignity of repose!' exclaimed another very learned professor and altogether idle and indifferent teacher, in an institution whose president was working eighteen hours a day in his efforts to force the college up to a higher plane; and at the next meeting of the board there was a semi-official intimation that the president ought to be able to get on better and with less friction with his faculty. Said an honored alumnus of one of our most renowned institutions: 'The students' notebooks in physics for the year 1890 bring just as high a price as those for 1898':

Yet the president of that institution found it impossible to dislodge this calcined and fossiliferous instructor even from his position on the committee on Course of Study, much less from the university; and what hope for advancement could possibly exist under such a counsellor!'

The expression which is being given to the hitherto latent spirit of loyalty to the homeland in all parts of the Empire is most inspiring and sure to lead to most important results. Those who are looking for literature of this kind will do well to avail themselves of the "Empire Day Booklets" and "Canadian Songs," written by Dr. J. M. Harper, M.A., Inspector Superior Schools, Quebec.

CURRENT EVENTS.

THE PRESUMPTION OF BRAIN.S.

IN these days most children are thought to be too feeble to go to school in a storm. Instead of the little red schoolhouse, they have palaces of pressed brick, with furnaces, double windows and polished desks; and when it rains the storm signal stops the school. We do not recognize the probability of physical hardness, and we do too little to develop it.

No more do we recognize intellectual vigor—brains—in the child, and many of the recent methods of teaching do not stimulate the growth of mental fibre. To begin with, the kindergarten is an attempt to systematize play, and by a species of *legè-demain* to get from play the discipline of work. But play, useful and necessary as it is, is spontaneous activity, and it ceases to be play when reduced to a system.

Next, object teaching comes in and entertains the child through the

senses, as if the senses were all-important and the brain non-existent or not to be disturbed. But the sense perceptions predominate in the child; his whole life before coming to school is made up of them. It is not these that need stimulating so much as the mental activity to which they ought to lead. The objective method is good, even indispensable, in due proportion, but the tendency is to so emphasize it as to neglect the brain, which most needs and has less of the training.

When we come to reading, the methods are simplified to the last homeopathic dilution. The simplest word is illustrated by a picture of the most familiar object—a cat; and from this we advance by imperceptible gradations, interminably. This elementary process is good for a start, but it should be dropped very early—as soon as the child catches the notion of what reading is. There is a presumption that

the child has brains, and that he can soon see through so simple a process.

And spelling is tabooed by many progressive educators, especially the spelling book, as if it were too great a tax upon the "gray matter" for the child to learn to spell a word which he has not used!

In number, objects and pictures are used in many of the highly-elaborated text books to such an extent that any one of the higher orders of domesticated animals ought to learn the elementary processes of arithmetic in less time than is assigned for the average child. I am not objecting to these ingenious methods at the beginning, but they ought to be dropped at the earliest possible moment, so that the child may be compelled to employ his own activity—to use his brain; for, let it not be forgotten, the child is presumed to have brains.

In the study of language—for grammar is a term not to be tolerated till the age of adolescence—the simplifying process has eliminated everything above mere childish twaddle. Nothing beyond the child's limited comprehension is to be placed before him. The geography is made as familiar as the schoolyard. The supplementary reading is, much of it, written down to the child's low level. Finally the text-book is abandoned, and the teacher, laced in corsets of snug-fitting programmes and definite directions, is set up to talk, talk, talk. School must be made interesting. The children must not be over-worked.

There is a presumption at the start that the child has brains. It is safe, also, to assume that he has used that organ to some extent, and in more directions than one, before coming to school, and he must be compelled to use it again, and to

use it constantly. This presumption will enable the teacher to skip many of the methods and to lighten and shorten the work.—A. P. Marble in the *Pennsylvania School Journal*.

CODDLING CHILDREN.

When Solomon said, "Spare the rod and spoil the child," it is not likely he meant that unless a child is beaten regularly and frequently with the birch he would not grow up a credit to himself and his relations, any more than that the instrument used for the purposes of correction should at all times be a rod. The meaning is rather that unless judicious and adequate punishment is given the child who commits a disobedient act, a seed has been sown which will grow and multiply until the offender is spoiled for usefulness either in the home, church or state.

There are few advocates nowadays of the severe and oftentimes brutal methods of education in home and school a generation or so ago; yet the excessive leniency and indulgence so commonly extended at present from parent or guardian to child is not producing any better men or women, nor in many cases so good.

There is a happy medium between the two extremes and it is found in firm but kind discipline and work. Tasks not exceeding children's strength, mental or physical, should be given and care taken that the work is done by the child to whom it was given. Thus, and in no other way, are habits of industry formed without which no man or woman is a useful citizen.

Why should parents take all the burden of life and the growing sons and daughters be exempt? Let the son earn the money, or large parts of it at least, which is to pay his col-

lege expenses. Let the daughter take her turn at the wash-tub and ironing board and thus work her way to the piano or easel. If there is toil or privation necessary to be endured, it is false kindness for the parents to take it all on themselves. Let the young people share it. Let them help as soon as they are able to contribute to the family resources and learn to do something useful.

The father and mother who pamper their children too much by a training which encourages a thousand artificial wants without giving them the means of satisfying one of them, arms them very poorly for the battle of life. When they have to provide for themselves they will be beaten at every turn by those of tougher fibre who have had to "hustle from the word go" ever since leaving their cradles.—*Orange Sentinel*.

A LESSON FROM BRITAIN.

Lord Balfour, of Burleigh, Secretary of State for Scotland in Lord Salisbury's Cabinet, has for many years studied social questions, and having directly under his department the prisons, reformatories, police and all matters pertaining to crime and criminals in Scotland, he has become by research and training an authority on the manner of dealing with juvenile offenders. In a circular recently issued to magistrates and others who may have to try juveniles charged with crime, he insists that first offenders shall not be sent to gaol, but if the offence be serious that instead the boys shall get a sound whipping from an officer of the court, and that girls be dealt with by the matrons. He points out that to send a boy to gaol for his first offence is practically to throw him into the criminal class; whereas to whip him soundly is but to do

what, had his parents done it when necessary, would probably have saved the lad from crime. Lord Balfour then goes on to show how after careful inquiry he has found that the sending of first offenders when young to gaol has been in fully eighty per cent. of cases the means of confirming them in crime, whereas a good, sound whipping has had an excellent deterrent effect. Lord Balfour is a most humane man, whose earnest desire is to lessen crime, to improve the social and moral condition of the people, and who, having carefully studied juvenile crime, has deliberately come to the conclusion that to send boys or youths to prison for their first offence is a grave mistake and that it is equally wrong to "molly coddle" them, and so he insists that they shall be soundly whipped for first offences of a serious nature.

We do not purpose here going into statistics on juvenile or other crime. We defer that for future articles, but we affirm that in view of the advance of education, the improvements in so many directions which are visible all around us, and in the possibilities for earning a good living which a country such as ours offers, there must be something wrong in our social system when we have so many criminals young and old. We believe that the great cause of this excess of crime is due to "molly coddling," and to the neglect of home duties by the parents of to-day, who are spending far too much time at meetings of "faddists:" and one has only to watch how many children behave in public places, even when accompanied by their parents, to know that the trainers of the young are themselves in far too many cases sadly in need of training in the ordinary courtesies of everyday life.

We appeal to clergymen of every

creed and to the earnest Christian men and women of Canada to rouse themselves from their present lethargy, face the social problems of today as Christ faced them when on earth, and cease from tacitly encouraging "fads" which invariably degenerate into vices if not cast aside. If the Christian churches purge themselves of the maudlin sentimentality of to day and come out square-

ly for the home being retained as the centre of all that is good, and for the severance of religion and Christian work from miserable substitutes, this fair land of ours, with its people always ready to follow after the good and pure, would soon be the earthly paradise it was meant to be by the Creator.—*Orange Sentinel, Toronto.*

BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

In the *Atlantic Monthly* for April there is an important article on "The Perplexities of a College President," by one of the Guild. The *Atlantic* has succeeded in collecting a remarkable number of educational articles of insight and advanced thoughtfulness. "An Acadian Easter" is a series of lyrics written by a Canadian poet, Francis Sherman, whose first volume of poems was published a couple of years ago. The most important short story in this issue of the *Atlantic* is "Maud Evelyn," by Henry James. The subject and style are extremely characteristic of his work.

The first article in *The Century Magazine* for April is an account of a family of Marmosets, written by Justine Ingersoll, and very well illustrated from drawings by Charles R. Knight. "The Dulce-Piji Family" is the title of the article. The life of Oliver Cromwell, by John Morley, has reached its sixth part, "The Crisis of 1647, etc." It continues naturally to be one of the most prominent features of the magazine. "Talks with Napoleon, His Life and Conversation at St. Helena," taken from the diary of Napoleon's physician, Dr. Barry E. O'Meara, is also one of the chief attractions of this number. It is to be continued

apparently for some time. "The Sculptor Trench," by William A. Coffin, and "Browning in Asolo," by Katherine C. Bronson, are two articles of more than usual interest.

The cover of the *American Monthly Review of Reviews* has been affected this month by its leading article, "The Great Steel-makers of Pittsburg." Smoking chimneys and glowing furnaces form a striking background to the list of contents. This magazine voices somewhat strongly the current objections to the policy of England, no matter what direction that policy may happen to be taking. We can at least feel sure that it is no grief to the editors of the *Review* to be able to do this. Other important articles in the present issue are: "Publicity and the Trusts," by Professor Jenks, of the Industrial Commission, and "The Constitution and the Territories," by Professor Judson, of Chicago.

The Living Age for the seventh of April contains an article on John Ruskin, written by Miss Julia Wedgewood, and reproduced from the *Contemporary Review*. There is also a poem by Charles G. D. Roberts, "Child of the Infinite," reproduced from the *Pall Mall Magazine*.

The *Ladies' Home Journal* may well

congratulate themselves on having secured Mr. Kipling's next, "Just So Story." Three of these stories appeared some years ago in *St. Nicholas*, and the present story, "The Elephant's Child," is marked by the same gaiety and invention that made the first stories welcome to the smallest children. Other special features of this number are, "The Choir Boys of England," by Julian Ralph, and "Bandanna Ballads," by Miss Howard Weeden.

The April number of *The Philistine* contains an account of the first part of Mr. Elbert Hubbard's recent journeyings. After Chicago, The Board of Trade, and his lecture in the Art Institute, Mr. Hubbard begins with Waterloo in Iowa, and for the present ends with the teachers of Omaha. The April number concludes with a parable in lumber, and its application to the keeping of a tract of country in northern Minnesota for a park to belong to the nation. The whole disquisition is characteristic of Mr. Hubbard and is good reading, but the parable and its application are Fra Elburtus at his best.

The Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research, volume fifteen, published by Kegan Paul, Trench, Truber and Company of London, contains an interesting and characteristic paper by Mr. Andrew Lang on "The Fire Walk." Mrs. Piper, the medium, holds as prominent a position as ever in the discussions of the Society. There are two discussions on her trance phenomena in this volume, one by Mrs. Henry Sidgwick, and one by Mr. Lang. The review department is particularly interesting.

Empire Day Booklets:— "The First Beginnings of Canada," "Adventure and Colonization," "The Battle of the Plains." These brochures, dealing with prominent his-

torical events in Canada, have been prepared by Dr. J. M. Harper as possible mementos of the approaching school celebrations of Empire Day throughout the Dominion. To schools ordering fifty copies or more a tentative programme will be sent as an indication of how the day may be celebrated. Retail price, 15c. each. Orders may be sent to P. J. Evoy, Quebec.

New Canadian School Songs:— "Hail to the Land," "Our Flag and Empire," "The Land of the Mayflower." Composed for school celebrations by Dr. J. M. Harper, music by Frances C. Robinson and H. O'Connor Budden. Supplied to schools at the rate of twenty copies for one dollar. Send your orders to P. J. Evoy, bookseller and stationer, Quebec.

The following publications have been received:

From *D. C. Heath & Company*, Boston:

Gautier's *Jetatura*, edited with introduction and notes by A. Shinz.

Exercises in French composition, by A. C. Kimball.

Laboulaye's *Contes Bleus*, edited with notes and vocabulary, by C. Fontaine.

Carmen Sylva's *Aus Meinem Konigreich*, selected and edited by Dr. W. Bernhardt.

Valdés' *José*, edited by F. J. A. Davidson.

The *Essentials of French Grammar*, by C. H. Grandgent.

From the *Cambridge University Press*:

Hauff's *Der Scheik von Alexandria*, edited by Walter Rippmann.

From *Ginn & Company*, Boston:
Contes et Saynetes, edited by T. F. Colin.

From the *University of Chicago Press*:

The *School and Society*, three lectures by John Dewey.