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THE CANADA  
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY  
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MAY, 1896.

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THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

BY W. L. ROBERTSON, M.A.

FOR some months past, the world, the Anglo-Saxon world at least, has been excited over the revival and extension of a doctrine or theory which has hitherto been considered, even by American authorities, an utterly untenable principle in International Law. This doctrine named as you all know after James Monroe, President of the United States from 1816 to 1824, has a history. It is this history, together with the position of this theory in International Law, which I propose to briefly discuss. And here, I may say, I find my task at once easy and difficult—*easy*, because so much has been written on the question during the last three months; *difficult*, because little or nothing new can be said on the subject. Nevertheless, it is possible that some of you may not have had the leisure or opportunity to give the matter much attention, and it will be to these that my remarks will have special application.

First as to the Genesis and History of this now famous doctrine.

The United States began its career as a nation under circumstances with which you are all familiar. The struggle with the Mother Country, and the assistance given by France, gave the young Republic a strong bias against England, and an equally strong bias

towards her great enemy, France. French ideas of equality and fraternity among all classes of men moulded and permeated the opinions of early American statesmen, such as Jefferson, Madison and Monroe. The condition of Europe during the last years of the 18th century, was such as to give encouragement to those who fondly hoped for the emancipation of the masses from the thralldom of monarchical government. With the spread of the democratical principles enunciated by the French Republicans all classes in the United States were in sympathy. To them it was a compliment to the young American Republic, and an endorsement of the stand the American people had taken in throwing off the yoke of the Mother Country. Hence we find that a deep interest was excited in the United States in the events that crowd the pages of the history of Europe at this period. The triumph of republican principles, everywhere, was for a time confidently expected, and their apparent defeat when Republican France became the bond slave of the Emperor Napoleon, and when the liberties of Europe were placed under the iron heel of the conqueror and tyrant, left a deep impression upon the minds of the Americans.

The downfall of Napoleon in 1815, followed as it was immediately by a re-arrangement and re-organization of Europe, a re-organization in which the rights of the people of Europe were scarcely considered by the monarchs and statesmen who carried out the "healing and settling," was another blow which went to prove that the day for the complete triumph of republican principles was still far removed.

The United States, then, seemed to be the one home of democracy, and the preservation of this refuge for oppressed humanity, the first duty of its citizens. Nevertheless, in spite of the interest taken by the United States in European affairs, it seems to have been the policy of all the early Presidents to occupy a position of dignified neutrality. It is probably true that in the desperate struggle which England waged for twenty odd years against the colossal power of France and her allies, a struggle in which the very existence of European, and therefore of American, freedom was at stake, the sympathy of the United States was with the enemy of liberty, and against its most gallant and staunch defender. But the share the United States took in this struggle was confined to sympathy so long as her individual rights were not involved. The war of 1812, of so great interest to all Canadians, was, as we all know, provoked by the high-handed proceedings of England on the seas towards American vessels and seamen. In Dr. Gilman's life of Monroe, there is a summary given of the attitude taken by the United States Presidents prior to Monroe, with respect to foreign affairs. There is not even a hint of the principle soon to be known as the "Monroe Doctrine." There are, however, several very distinct declarations from Washington, Adams (J.), Jefferson, and Madison, to the effect that the

true policy of the United States is to maintain a dignified neutrality in the struggles and complications so frequently arising in European affairs. At the same time it is recognized that the United States has a special set of interests to guard, if her dearly bought independence was not to be sacrificed. This, however, was a very different attitude from that taken by Monroe in his famous message in 1823; while Monroe's position is very far removed from that recently assumed by Secretary Olney and President Cleveland, and endorsed by the United States Congress.

Let us now review the circumstances which led to the enunciation of the "Monroe Doctrine." The downfall and permanent exile of Napoleon in 1815, was followed by a congress of the great powers of Europe, to restore or re-arrange the boundaries of the different states. Of these great powers, perhaps no one claimed and received so much credit for the destruction of Napoleon's supremacy, as Russia. Russia, at this time, was governed by the Emperor Alexander, a man of curiously mingled qualities. Just at this time he was much under the influence of one Madame Krüdener, who filled his mind with all manner of quixotic and chivalrous ideas. Of these, one took a very strong hold, and through him found expression in an alliance between the monarchs of Russia, Austria and Prussia, and subsequently of France, to bring about a golden age in Europe—an age in which the principles of Christianity would be recognized and practiced. This Holy Alliance, as it was called, bound the monarchs mentioned to "exercise their power according to the principles of religion, justice, and humanity; to afford one another on all occasions aid and help; to treat their subjects and soldiers with fraternal feeling, and to regard their people as members of a great

Christian family, whose guidance was entrusted to them by God." Three years later a congress of the five great powers met at Aix-La-Chapelle, for the purpose among other things of removing the army of occupation of the allies from French territory. But an opportunity such as this afforded was not to be lost by the Monarchs of Russia, Austria, Prussia and France. England was represented at this Congress by her ambassador, and through him seems to have given a provisional assent to the forming of an alliance of the great powers for the purpose of repressing revolutionary movements of a popular character among the people of Europe. This new alliance was not necessarily the outcome of the Holy Alliance, but it shewed pretty clearly what, under vague, misleading and high-flown phrases, the professed advocates of Christian Government meant when they proposed to rule in accordance with Christian principles.

Very soon after this congress, a practical illustration was given of what might be expected from the Christian Majesties of the Holy Alliance. Spain had in 1812, during the enforced absence of the Spanish King, obtained a liberal constitution, known as the Constitution of Cadiz. The return of the Spanish King, after the downfall of Napoleon, led to a conflict between him and his people, which resulted in Spain adopting the Constitution of Cadiz, much to the chagrin of the royalistic and reactionary elements of the nation. Naples and Sardinia both followed the example of Spain, and adopted its constitution.

Such a state of affairs was decidedly alarming to the members of the Holy Alliance, and in consequence, a Congress was summoned at Troppau in Silesia, in the October of 1820. The powers held a brief conference and then rose to meet again the same

year at Laybach in Styria. Five great powers were represented by kings or ambassadors; besides a host of minor rulers, the king of Naples included, appeared to advance their claims. All of the great powers save England were resolved to crush out the popular movements in Spain, Naples and Sardinia. England protested against the policy of interfering with the people of Italy in their efforts to obtain constitutional government; and the position was all the more remarkable because Britain's Ministry at that time was well known to be anything but favorable to liberalism in any form. But England's protest was unavailing, and an Austrian army was sent into Italy in 1821, which crushed the revolutionary party in Naples and Sardinia after a brief struggle, and restored all the absolutism, and along with it all the evils of the old regime. The sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia endeavored in a circular to justify this interference with the internal affairs of other states. They contended that there was a vast conspiracy against all established power, which it was necessary to suppress. The British Government, while it acknowledged a right of interference in certain cases, denied that "this right should receive a general and indiscriminate application to all revolutionary governments." The right of interference, in other words, was to be the exception, not the rule.

The royal conspirators next turned their attention to Spain, where a royalist insurrection had, in 1821, broken out in the north, in favor of abolishing the free Constitution of Cadiz. The rebels were aided by France from which they drew both supplies and men.

Another congress was called at Verona, in 1822, for the purpose of interfering with an armed force in the affairs of Spain. At this congress the

Duke of Wellington, the British envoy, expressed in strong terms the decision of his government not to share in the coercion of Spain. In spite of this outspoken protest, the other great powers resolved on interference, and France was assigned the task of crushing out the budding freedom of her long-oppressed neighbour. This congress of Verona did more than discuss the propriety of restoring absolutism in Spain. It agitated the desirability of bringing into subjection to Spanish authority her colonies in South America, which had taken advantage of the Peninsular War to throw off the yoke of the Mother Country, and establish themselves as independent republics. France, it was thought, meditated giving her aid to Spain to recover these colonies, with a view to her own aggrandizement in the New World. The danger to the newly freed Spanish colonies was great, and the extension of French influence in the New World was a menace alike to England and the United States.

At that time Mr. George Canning was the leading spirit in British Foreign affairs, and he had assumed an attitude of pronounced opposition to the policy of the Holy Alliance in interfering with the internal affairs of other nations. Mr. Canning recognized the necessity of preventing the Alliance from taking action to coerce the Spanish colonies; but as England stood alone among the great powers in the policy of non-interference, Canning endeavored to enlist the support of the United States. He represented to Mr. Rush, the United States Ambassador in London, that his country's interests were likely to be imperilled if the Holy Alliance should succeed in forcing the Spanish colonies to return to their allegiance to the mother country. At first Mr. Rush was unwilling to move in the direction indicated by Mr. Canning,

as the policy of the United States was to remain neutral in the conflicts continually arising among the European nations. But Mr. Canning convinced him that the interests of the United States were at stake in the matter, and Mr. Rush then communicated to his own Government Mr. Canning's proposal that the United States should enter its protest against the Holy Alliance using force to destroy the independence of the Spanish American Republics.

James Monroe, the President at this time, had for his Secretary of State and chief adviser in foreign affairs, John Quincy Adams. The subject of making a formal declaration against European interference against Spanish America, was seriously debated in President Monroe's Cabinet, and Monroe was so uncertain as to the line of action he should take that he consulted among others, Jefferson and Madison, Ex-Presidents, and his political friends. The outcome of these anxious deliberations was the "Monroe Doctrine," which might perhaps be better named the "John Quincy Adams' Doctrine."

With considerable hesitancy on the part of Mr. Monroe the following passage was put into the Presidential message, which was sent to Congress in December, 1823: "That we should consider any attempt on the part of the allied powers to extend their system to any part of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power, we have not interfered, and shall not interfere. But with the Governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European

Power, in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States." Shortly afterwards a resolution embodying these principles was moved in Congress, but it never came to a vote. The President's message, added to the firm stand taken by the British Government, served to prevent any action being taken against the independence of the Spanish Colonies.

But in the same message occurred a passage which is often taken as part and parcel of the "Monroe Doctrine;" although it really deals with a very distinct matter. The Russian Government had laid claim to the control of the North-West or Pacific Coast of North America, on the ground of prior discovery and occupation. Both Britain and the United States were interested in refusing recognition to the Russian claims, and concerted action between the two Anglo-Saxon nations was equally to the advantage of both. But this harmony of action was seriously impaired by President Monroe inserting in his message the following wholly indefensible statement. "The occasion has been judged proper for asserting as a principle, in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." It is quite evident that this second doctrine has no necessary connection with the first, although both occur in the same message and both refer to the United States interests. It is certain that while Mr. Canning approved of the first, the real "Monroe Doctrine," he strongly objected to the second. What meaning was attached to the "Monroe Doctrine" by the American statesman, who probably had most to

do in framing the famous message, is shown by the following extract from a statement by John Quincy Adams (now President) in 1825, when referring to a proposed congress of American republics at Panama: "An agreement between all the parties represented at the meeting, that each will guard by *its own means* against the establishment of any future European colony within its borders, may be found desirable. This was more than two years since announced by my predecessor to the world as a principle resulting from the emancipation of both the American continents." Such is the explanation furnished by Mr. Adams who was Mr. Monroe's Secretary of State, and probably drew up his message. But it seems that even this mild and moderate view of the rights of the United States failed to receive the endorsement of the House of Representatives. For a resolution was carried before that body that the United States "ought not to become parties to any joint declaration for the purpose of preventing the interference of any of the European powers with their independence or form of government; or to any compact for the purpose of preventing colonization upon the continent of America." On this subject it is remarked by the eminent American authority on International Law, Dr. Woolsey:—

"On the whole then (1) this policy is not a national one. The House of Representatives, indeed, had no right to settle questions of policy or of international law. But the Cabinet had as little. (2) The principle of resisting attempts to overthrow the liberties of the Spanish republics was one of most righteous self-defense, and of vital importance. But the other principle of prohibiting European colonization was vague, and if intended to prevent Russia from stretching her borders on the Pacific further

to the south, went far beyond any limit of interference that has hitherto been set up. What right had the United States to control Russia in gaining territory on the Pacific, or planting colonies there, when they themselves had neither territory nor colony to be endangered within thousands of miles."

In 1848, when Mr. Polk was President, there was an attempt made to give the Monroe Doctrine a new and extended meaning. The Government of Yucatan, it was announced in the President's message, had offered the dominion over that country to Great Britain, Spain, and the United States. The President, therefore, urged Congress to take measures to prevent it from becoming a colony or a part of the territory of any European nation, giving as his reason the principle laid down by Mr. Monroe in 1823. It is here worthy of notice that Mr. Polk confined his objections to the acquisition of territory in North America alone. But, whatever support the Monroe Doctrine may have received from the endorsement of President Polk, is largely negatived by the attitude taken by Mr. Calhoun, the famous Southern statesman. Discussing the President's message, he declared that the Yucatan case was very different from that which led to Mr. Monroe's interference; further that the declarations of Mr. Monroe could not be accepted as the settled policy of the United States, and were made without any threats of resistance,

The principle, he said, that "lies at the bottom of the President's recommendation is that when any power on this continent becomes involved in internal warfare, and the weaker side chooses to make application to us for support, we are bound to give them support for fear the offer of the sovereignty of the country may be made to some other power and accepted. It goes infinitely and

dangerously beyond Mr. Monroe's declaration. It puts it in the power of other countries on this continent to make us a party to all their wars."

If then, the comparatively modest claims of President Polk regarding the right of the United States to interfere in the affairs of North American States was likely to lead to serious international entanglements, what must be thought of the extraordinary pretensions of Secretary Olney and President Cleveland?

Mr. Calhoun's contention that the Monroe Doctrine had never been accepted by the United States as a national principle, to be enforced, if necessary, by a resort to arms, is fully borne out by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850. By this Treaty, which deals with the proposed construction of a ship canal across Central America, to connect the Atlantic and the Pacific, the Governments of Great Britain and the United States agree that neither will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over the said Ship Canal, or occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume, or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito Coast, or any part of Central America, etc. The whole of the provisions of this treaty, for brevity's sake, are not quoted; but the tenor of them is that the United States did not claim, nor receive, any special jurisdiction in the affairs of Central America. In other words the Monroe Doctrine was not recognized as a principle of International Law.

It will thus be seen that the Monroe Doctrine was never accepted by the United States as a principle of International Law; much less was it recognized by other nations. In fact, the American authority already quoted, Woolsey, does not hesitate to condemn it in the strongest terms. "To lay down," says he, "the principle that the acquisition of territory on

this continent by any European power, cannot be allowed by the United States, would go far beyond any measures dictated by the system of balance of power for the rule of self-preservation, is not applicable in our case; we fear no neighbors." Doubtless it is true that with growing power, and we fear, with growing arrogance, the United States has become more and more disposed to interfere in the disputes that have arisen between the European States and American peoples. The action of Louis Napoleon in forcing the Republic of Mexico to accept for a time an Emperor, was viewed with strong disfavor by the people of the United States; nevertheless the form of Government of Mexico was changed without the United States vindicating their so called rights by an appeal to arms. The same disposition to interfere, or give covert aid, has been shown in her dealings between Spain and her revolting possession, Cuba. But the wiser and controlling elements in United States politics have generally been found on the side against active interference in the quarrels between European powers and American States. Lord Salisbury, then, when he repudiated the Monroe Doctrine as a principle of International Law, was simply expressing a fact that, as I have shown, is fully recognized by the best American authorities, not to mention the opinion of standard European writers.

But the recent claims advanced by the United States are far in advance of anything ever propounded by Monroe or Polk. Britain is not seeking to force her system of government on any American State; she is not seeking to establish new colonies on any part of this continent; she is not even meddling with the affairs of any North American people. On what ground, then, can President Cleveland invoke the Monroe Doctrine as

a justification for his interference with the boundary dispute in South America? At first sight the ground is not apparent; nor is it possible after the closest investigation to say that it is well taken. But there is by a forced construction of the doctrine, a relation between the present circumstances in Venezuela, and that under which Monroe thought interference justifiable. Britain claims certain territory which Venezuela asserts belongs to her. From the standpoint of President Cleveland, Britain's strength enables her to put forth unreasonable and fictitious claims, which she can enforce regardless of all right and justice. By such a line of action a weak nation like Venezuela might be robbed of much of her territory, and the possessions of Britain correspondingly increased. What Britain is doing, or proposes to do, may be done by France or Spain, and thus under cover of a mere dispute over boundary lines European influence in America might be indefinitely extended.

It is not my purpose to argue the justice or injustice of the Monroe Doctrine; that has been done so well in Lord Salisbury's reply, in Prof. Shortt's excellent paper recently published, and in Hon David Mills' admirable and almost exhaustive article in the Canadian Magazine for February, that I may stand excused. But one is surprised at the attitude taken by a portion of the British press and by some of the British publicists regarding this Monroe Doctrine, and the recent American claims based thereon. To the Canadian who has studied the history of the relations at various times of the United States to Great Britain and Canada, it is bewildering to find that a powerful element in British politics still persists in closing its eyes to the fact that hostility towards England, veiled or unveiled, has been the attitude of our

neighbors since the Revolution ending in 1783. The attempts made in many quarters to prove that American sentiment is friendly to England, and that "blood is thicker than water" in this case as in others, while entirely honorable to the individuals and associations engaged in the pleasant work of reconciliation are based on a radically false view of what both the history of the past, and the experience of the present teaches. The "Monroe Doctrine" in its modern form is simply an expression of the hostility of the majority of the United States people to England and her American colonies. For the Mother Country to yield to her monstrous claims at this time may secure a temporary peace, and may gratify that powerful class in Britain whose commercial and financial interests are so closely interwoven with those of the United States.

But the cessation of American insults and threats of war would be bought at the very dear price of Britain's dishonor, without securing what all must ardently desire, the establishment of permanently good relations between the two great English nations of the globe. While all who reflect on the horrors of war, must shrink from the very thought of a conflict between nations so closely bound together by common interests, nevertheless, Canadians at least must feel that a policy of resolute and calm resistance to all claims based on the Monroe Doctrine is the policy which will best secure the interests of the British Empire, and at the same time put a stop to that spirit of perpetual and insolent aggression which unfortunately is cultivated in the United States in the joint interests of patriotism and party politics.

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## OUR RURAL SCHOOLS, THEIR PRESENT STATUS: HOW CAN THEY BE IMPROVED?

BY JOHN BALL DOW, B.A., BARRISTER, ETC., WHITBY.

IN considering the rural schools, it is my purpose to confine myself strictly to the point of view of a trustee and to carefully abstain from trespassing upon the proper domain of the teacher.

Since the formation of the Ontario Educational Association, a great deal of attention has been given to the consideration of matters relating to our public schools. Legitimate criticism has not been unrecognized in recent legislation. It may safely be claimed that most of the defects which have been alleged to exist in the public schools generally, are to be found in a more aggravated form in the rural schools. In our admirable

system of education, the rural schools are, probably, the weakest and most neglected part. This should not be so. It has been truly said that its system of parish schools was the foundation stone of Scotland's greatness, the secret of the successes and triumphs of her sons. That system, inaugurated by John Knox, still retains very many of its original features. Principal Grant in a recent paper on the "Schools of Scotland" says: "In several respects the Scottish system differs from ours. (1) The old practice of appointing the teacher 'for life or fault' is still largely followed. Consequently instead of having young boys and girls teaching for

six months and replaced, perhaps after a considerable interval, by successors of the same kind, as is too often the case in Canada and the United States, Scotland has had for generations teachers of the type of 'Domsie' whose character has been so lovingly sketched by Ian Maclaren.

(2) Far from having any of the dread of over-lapping which seems to exist in our system, boys in the majority of parish schools can be prepared for the Universities without the necessity of going away from home to a high school. Scotland is thus more democratic in spirit than Ontario. For it costs about as much for a boy to leave home and attend a high school, as it costs him when grown up to attend the University, and this cost dooms great numbers of clever boys to the limit of the 'three R's.' Our poor boys have thus less chance of getting a University education than Scottish boys of the same class."

I do not advocate the "life or fault" engagement nor the preparation of boys for the University in the rural schools, and I disapprove of so framing the system as to draw our youth away from agricultural and industrial pursuits, but I would rejoice to see teachers of the highest scholastic attainments and broadest culture of the type of "Domsie" abounding in our rural schools. Such, I believe, is the goal at which the Hon. the Minister of Education aims. In order to get at the facts necessary to form an intelligent opinion upon the subject under discussion, it occurred to me that of all men the Inspectors of public schools throughout the Province could best point out the defects (if any) of our rural schools, and suggest appropriate remedies for such defects. Questions were submitted for their consideration, and I now take the opportunity of thanking the inspectors for the very great courtesy, kindness, care

and patience which they have shown in answering those questions. Forty-five out of sixty Rural Inspectors have returned very full answers.

(The questions and a summary of the answers will be given in a subsequent numbers.)

Keeping, then, within the scope of my inquiry, it would appear from the answers given that the chief defects in these schools are :

(1) Youth, inexperience, insufficient scholarship and frequent changes of teachers.

(2) Illiberality of trustees and rate-payers, and consequent inadequate maintenance of the schools, and remuneration of teachers.

While these defects continue to exist it is idle to expect satisfactory results.

The remedies which I beg respectfully to suggest, are :

(1) Abolition of third class certificates at a date in the near future, to be fixed in advance.

(2) Increased legislative aid, the formation of Township instead of Section Boards of Trustees, and the levying of a uniform rate over the Township.

(3) Enlargement of sections, where possible, so as to have graded schools, and erection of teachers' residences, to encourage permanency in the teaching profession.

As to the first proposed remedy, it seems useless to limit the duration of third class certificates, as year by year the fresh supply exceeds, and as long as these certificates are granted will continue to exceed, the lapses. According to the Minister's report for 1895, there are already two hundred and sixty-two first and 3,184 second class teachers in the Province, the number of public schools being 5,649. A sufficient number of second class teachers would quickly be obtained if their prospects were improved by removing the competition they now meet from third class teachers.

As to the second: Township Boards having larger and more important duties under their charge, a better class of men would seek appointment as trustees, resulting in—

(a) Greater liberality and breadth of view on the part of trustees. It is noticeable with regard to our Municipal and Legislative bodies that the smaller their powers and functions, the more narrow, illiberal and petty is the exercise of them, and this characteristic holds good as a rule with respect to School Boards.

(b) Less directness in the mode of taxation. (Members of Section Boards can count up to a cent what they will have to pay out of their own pockets when engaging a teacher.)

(c) A desire on the part of sections to get full value from the uniform township rate.

(d) Employment of better teachers at more remunerative salaries.

As to the third :

Better work appears to be done in graded schools, and in the older parts of the Province distance from school is not now so great an objection as formerly, while a better school is a sufficient set off to any inconvenience of distance.

How can more permanency in the teaching profession be obtained more readily than by erecting teacher's residences? It may be worthy of notice that provision for a teacher's residence was originally inserted in the Public Schools Act, but has been omitted in

recent legislation. It is still retained in the High Schools Act. If desirable in localities having high schools where residences are easily got, it is surely more needful in rural parts where they are not to be had. Besides the public can afford to erect residences and would receive a fair return for the outlay, while to the teacher it might, and probably would, be impossible to do so.

In the hands of teachers holding nothing less than second class professional certificates receiving salaries sufficient to induce them to follow teaching as a life calling, governed by Township Boards composed of trustees having a true estimate of the value of education, our rural schools should accomplish the work that is properly theirs to do, and the sons and daughters of our farmers could obtain at their own doors all the education that is required by those not seeking a profession, and thus avoid the necessity of leaving home to attend a high school. The "Public School Leaving Examination," and the "Continuation Classes" are important steps in advancing the status of the rural schools but raising the standard of qualification of the teachers, improving the conditions of their employment and amending the system of control and maintenance of these schools in the directions above pointed out, are their necessary and logical accompaniments.

April 8th, 1896.

### THE SCHOOLMASTER'S TEST.

THE question "What is the test by which a schoolmaster is commonly tried?" is one of considerable importance. Its answer will practically be a measure of the function that the public expects the schoolmaster to discharge; and according

to the nature of that function will the status of the schoolmaster in society be regulated,—respected and maintained at a high level of efficiency if the function be high, disregarded and allowed to deteriorate if it be low. And speaking broadly it may be as-

served that the measure of esteem that the public in general accords to the profession of teaching is a fair test of its own stage of progress and capacity for progress. For no self-conscious society can ever progress unless it creates those conditions that will not only secure whatever has been achieved in previous generations and is being achieved in the current generation, but also ensure the achievement of further social good in the appropriate manner and in the appropriate directions by coming generations. In adjusting social arrangements therefore the leaders of every community should, so far as social arrangements lie within their power, see that the rising generation is so brought up that it can take up and carry on the work of advancing the community with effect and without blundering. Every community, having its own particular constitution and its own particular atmosphere of beliefs, customs, memories, hopes and struggles, and handing down to its successors that constitution and that atmosphere, does in large measure supply this bringing-up. But this bringing-up being undesigned and unregulated, must necessarily be haphazard, uncertain, and of various degrees of efficacy. A more thorough, systematic, and, as far as possible, uniform agency for the rearing-up of youth is quite essential. Such an agency is to be found in the profession to which we belong. Thus regarded, the schoolmaster is a factor, by no means unimportant, of the progress of his community, a colleague therefore of all those that may be engaged in the work of social, political, and other reform. In the vast army of people marching forward, he is no mere camp-follower, but the very mainstay and support of the whole, supplying competent and well-trained soldiers in the place of those that must necessarily succumb in the

struggle, and thus giving at every stage in a truer sense than even the doctor or surgeon fresh life and fresh strength.

The above considerations, which sound mere platitudes in the saying, are, however, so grossly neglected in practice even by the men of light and leading that I have considered it well to preface my paper with them. For it is only when the high calling of the schoolmaster is clearly and earnestly recognised that the public will insist upon a high standard of efficiency and a severe test of fitness for the profession of teaching. Now what is the test by which we are commonly tried by our public?

The manager of an institution, when he wants a master, inquires whether the candidate has been a "successful teacher" before, the expression "successful teacher" meaning only one that has produced a certain standard percentage of passes in the subjects that he has taught. When a teacher applies for a place or for promotion, he lays some stress upon his University honours, if he has any, and more stress upon the length of his experience as teacher: but the circumstance of which he is most proud, and which he puts forward as his best claim to recognition, is the results of public examinations for which year after year he has been responsible. To carry conviction home to the mind of the manager, the applicant often appends a formidable tabular statement showing the year, the subjects taught by him, the number sent up, the number of passes, the number of passes in the first class, etc., etc. The Inspector, who finds it impossible to devote more than a few hours to the inspection of every school, and who is therefore hard put to it to find some tangible measure of the efficiency of the school and its staff, fastens upon the results of public

examinations and writes 'up' or writes 'down' according as he considers them creditable or discreditable. The Director, who can look only through the eyes, and hear only through the ears, of his Inspectors, reviews the work of each school in the same terms. As for the public we have only to remember that boys flock in the largest numbers to the schools that have produced the best results in the recent examinations to convince ourselves that its notion of a successful schoolmaster is not far different. To conclude, nearly all people interested in education,—the manager, the teacher himself, the Inspector, the Director, the pupil, and the parent—are agreed in regarding Examination-results as the only suitable test of a schoolmaster.

I shall presently urge that this test is by no means consonant with the high calling previously mentioned. Before doing so, I desire to make it clear that, even so far as it goes, it is an extremely inaccurate and untrustworthy test. The great fallacy underlying it is that the teacher is considered solely responsible for the results of public examinations, and must exclusively enjoy the credit and exclusively suffer the discredit, of them. Now there are at least three factors concerned in the production of these results, the teacher, the pupils, and the examiners. Taking ing the last factor first, it is readily seen that they introduce into the calculation of the final product a very uncertain element, consisting in a more or less sudden and considerable variation of the standard of the questions, and in greater or less strictness in the valuation of the answers. One is tempted to add in this connection that Professors in First-Grade Colleges, who mostly draw up our question-papers, being absolutely ignorant of the actual average attainments of High school classes, seldom hit off

the right standard, but err considerably one way or the other, thus causing an amount of fluctuation in the results, which only the teacher fully realises, as he is compelled to watch with anxious minuteness the rise and fall of the examination-standard year after year, because all the same he is made responsible. The force of this remark is amply attested by the alarmingly large number of failures in the single subject of Science in the Matriculation Examination during the last two years. Coming now to pupils, it is self-evident that, being the direct agents engaged in the examinations, they are far the most potent of the causes that determine the nature of the results. How liable to fluctuations of greater or less intensity their influence must be, can be easily realised by remembering that the general attainments of pupils presented for examinations vary considerably from year to year according to the class or community from which they are mostly drawn, their average fitness for the studies they entered upon at the beginning of the year, the discipline to which they may have been accustomed, their earnestness, and general teachableness. If a certain number of pupils pass in the first class, it does not follow of necessity that the teacher has taught them admirably. It must be carried rather to the credit of the pupils themselves. Without doubt much depends on the teacher. The average student can no more pass his examination without help from the teacher than the teacher can turn out good results with a lot of numskulls. The point here insisted on is that it will be unsafe to argue in every case that good results indicate great capacity in the teacher, or bad results, his deficiency therein. Other evidence has to be taken before a just verdict can be pronounced.

Nobody knows this better than the teacher. If he is young and has yet

to make a reputation, he welcomes nothing so much as a "good set" of pupils and dreads nothing so much as a "bad set." He knows that the one will bring him credit as surely as the other will bring discredit, though in his heart he fully believes that, as he himself undergoes no change, he is not justly entitled to either. Why then does every master in recounting his qualifications lay stress upon the excellent results he has turned out for such-and such a number of years? For my own part this can do nothing more than create a general presumption in his favour; but if it is offered as a piece of conclusive evidence, I must put down the teacher either for a very ignorant man or for a sort of hypocrite who takes more than he knows to be his due. Such hypocrisy would be altogether without palliation were it not that he often receives unjust condemnation for bad results.

Having thus argued that this examination-results-test is *by itself* insufficient, inaccurate, and untrustworthy even with respect to mere teaching power, I shall next proceed to consider how singularly inadequate it is for the high calling of the schoolmaster. And first let me consider him as a mere *instructor*. Every teacher that has not allowed the monotonous routine of his life to swallow up his sense of utility and proportion will acknowledge that he is under an irresistible temptation to impart, not such knowledge and in such manner, as will be truly useful and educative, but such knowledge and in such manner as will make most show and *tell* best in public examinations. Take for instance the subject of English in high schools. Those that teach English to F. A. classes must know how ill-equipped with sound knowledge of English most pupils are when entering college. This is not to be wondered at considering that in the Matriculation

class no Text-book written in good English is taught earnestly and examined upon along with other subjects. Meiklejohn's Grammar and Sheppard's General English are now the main study of pupils. If they want any extra books—they go to K. Subrahmanya Aiyar's Hand-book of English, Murison and Adam's Composition, and Walton's Synthesis. No questions are asked at the Matriculation that cannot be answered by one that has worked at a fair proportion of the exercises given in these books. So it happens that to some extent in the fourth and in the fifth form, and to a very large extent in the sixth, pupils are kept occupied with any amount of ingenious manipulation of forms of sentences, changing the Active into the Passive voice, the Simple into the Complex kind of Sentence, the Direct into the Indirect form of narration, etc., etc. Now every one that has had experience of this will grant how fatally easy such exercises become after a certain amount of drilling, how in fact they can be performed mechanically even upon sentences whose meaning the candidate does not at all understand. Thus the sense of a passage is rarely thought of by the pupil who confines himself to its external form, and is absorbed in finding out what mechanical rules he has to apply in particular cases. But supposing this divorce of sense and form did not come about, and the teacher took care always to make the meaning plain before beginning to teach tricks to the form, even then the separate passages selected for these exercises will be haphazard, discontinuous, and absolutely valueless as a means of creating ideas or stimulating thought. Nothing like teaching a large quantity of good prose and good poetry. It is quite easy to teach all the grammatical involutions and evolutions in the world in reference to that prose and

poetry; and it is a well-known fact that, other things being equal, greater reading means greater knowledge, greater command of language, and greater culture. But the University having abolished Text books, pupils and, I grieve to say, too many teachers neglect it. It was only the other day that a certain student asked me in open class, "Why do you bother us with this Text book, Sir, while we have none for the examination?" and I dare say there was many another that thought like him but had not the pluck to second him. It is no doubt with difficulty that students can be driven to the study of any books other than General English Manuals and Hand-books: and most teachers shrink from that difficulty, partly because they fear to stretch their discipline too far, partly also because Text-book-teaching is so much more taxing to themselves than General English work. Again, several most important branches of English teaching are absolutely neglected, because they are such as the University cannot possibly examine,—speaking, reading, and recitation. Reading particularly suffers to a most shameful extent in the High School classes, and when in the Senior College classes, the scholar discovers that his pronunciation is outrageous, he finds it too late to begin to learn, and resigns himself to the most irritating singsong monotone, which in all probability he has modelled on that of some one of his junior masters.

English, however, is not the only subject to the teaching of which this University-Examination-test is disastrous; History and Geography, Science, the Optional Languages, all are affected by it in the same manner. But though this topic is so tempting. I must now hasten to the consideration of the greatest evil wrought by this test.

This is the great falling-off of the average teacher from his ideal. Extremely few masters are now capable of performing their high function,—fashioning men, by the influence of example no less than by precept and guidance, fitted to take their place in their time as useful members of a progressive community. Extremely few indeed are able to bring their personal influence to bear upon their pupils, to mould their character, guide their temper, or direct their conduct. This aspect of the teacher's function is forgotten, he is not expected to do anything in that line. He is regarded and tested as a mere supplier of information; no, even that requires a modification,—as a supplier of such information as will bear the greatest quantity of fruit in the University-Examination. For be it remembered this information-seed is not sown by the teacher in the pupils' mind to take root there and grow into his nature and bear good fruit in the fulness of time: but the pupils receive it and hold it in a sort of mechanical suspension on the surface of their memory until the proper Examination-season arrives, when they transmit it more or less disfigured by means of a steel implement on to a white paper soil, and water it plentifully with a dirty black liquid, and then await the 'result' with feverish anxiety: and lo! in about a couple of months comes out the fruit in the shape of another white paper dotted over with the same black liquid, and bearing likewise a black ring to give it the taste of authority, and these earnest young folk hug it to their bosoms, and thank God for the priceless treasure. This is the kind of work we are doing year in and year out in our schools, and we have time for nothing else. Our personality and the pupils' have thus no intimate intercourse; they have only a single point of contact, and, as if jealous of

that single point, the University comes in there to restrict all freedom of movement and interaction. Off that single point, we diverge hopelessly never to meet again through the ends of the world. Thus it has come about that no manager of a school, when he is about to appoint a master to his school, inquires, "What is the character of this man? Will he set a good example to my boys? Will he lead them aright?" On the contrary, I have heard it said by people who ought to know better, "Where is the harm in appointing Mr. So-and-So? True, he is not always sober or steady; once or twice he has nearly got put into prison: but what does it matter? He will teach none the worse for that, and his results at the

examinations will be far better than those of the saintliest teacher you may mention." I generally have no reply for such reasoning, it fills my mind with despair. The difference seems to be too much at the very root to be easily settled by argument. Besides I am by no means sure that I am not in a hopeless minority; for are there not at present too many in the ranks of our profession that have no business there? In the opinion of the great majority of managers of schools, and in the opinion likewise of many worthy people who do not manage schools, character in a school-master is of no moment. With your leave and, I hope, with your full assent I protest against such a notion. —*Educational Review.*

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#### COLONIAL LOYALTY.

WHILE the Empire draws breath after the stormy opening of the year, the moment is opportune to consider one permanent aspect of the crisis through which a portion of it has passed. The loyal demonstrations made on the first hint of danger by our principal colonies have enabled the English speaking public to appreciate better than when Mr. Foster, the Finance Minister of Canada, first used his striking phrase, the significance of that "splendid isolation" in which Great Britain elects to stand. The vigour and promptitude with which an English Colonial Minister has dealt with an English difficulty in one portion of the Empire has caused his name to be greeted with English cheers all round the world. The demonstrative applause of a London theatre finds its echo on the Stock Exchange of Melbourne and while Canadian shipmasters on Lake On-

tario meet and pass resolutions to place their services at the disposal of the Imperial Government, the Australian Natives Association, ordinarily quoted as an anti-Imperialist body, suspends a meeting at the antipodes in order that the National Anthem may be sung. From Cape Town, from Natal, and from Rhodesia, where late events have naturally stirred a sterner spirit, expressions of confidence have made themselves passionately heard. Throughout the entire Empire British subjects have felt themselves at one, and the expression of their unity has been made no less forcibly by the popular than by the responsible official voice.

Speaking in Sydney on the first day of the year, Mr. Reid, the Premier of New South Wales, pointed out that the pressure of external events was a force likely to operate in the interests of Australasian union. Little more

than a week had passed before he was deputed by the Governments of Australia and Tasmania to give wider significance to his own forecast by telegraphing in their names to the Imperial Government a united assurance of loyal support in the measures taken for the "defence of the integrity of the Empire." The Government of New Zealand forwarded a practically similar resolution and announced that the colony was fully equipped to resist invasion. Lord Salisbury in his reply accepted the resolutions in all their gravity. Nothing, he said, could give greater confidence to her Majesty's Government in maintaining the rights of the country than the knowledge that "we have the full approval and good will of our fellow subjects in the great colonies of the Empire." In the scheme of federal defence which is to be discussed by the Australian Premiers at Sydney next month it is, we learn, intended to give practical form to the assurances addressed by the colonies to Lord Salisbury. From the Government of Natal a resolution of the same kind was received, and the inevitable tendency to bitterness of Dutch feeling at the Cape did not prevent Mr. Hofmeyr, in his capacity of leader of the Dutch party, from strongly supporting the attitude of the Imperial Government towards any foreign interference in South African affairs.

In Canada the expression of loyalty early took the form of a resolution brought forward by the Canadian Government to "put the militia and defences of this country, as far as it can possibly be done by Canada, into a state which is adequate to the feeling, interests, and security of this country in itself and as a portion of the Empire." During the same sitting of the House of Assembly, Mr. M'Neill, an Ontario member, gave notice of a resolution to the effect

that the "House desires to assure her Majesty's Government and the people of the United Kingdom of its unalterable loyalty and devotion to the British Throne and Constitution, and of its conviction that, should occasion unhappily arise, in no other part of the Empire than in the Dominion of Canada would more substantial sacrifices attest the determination of her Majesty's subjects to preserve unimpaired the integrity and unviolated the honor of her Majesty's Empire." The resolution was adopted unanimously a few days ago amid prolonged cheers by an assembly composed in great part of Irish and French Catholic Canadians. In the debate which preceded the adoption of the measure nothing was more noteworthy than the position taken by Mr. Laurier, the French leader of the Opposition. It was made clear by the mover and seconder of the resolution that the intention was to demonstrate to other parts of the Empire and the world that the British people in whatever portion of the Empire they may happen to reside are "one people, animated by one spirit, and determined to stand as one man in defence of their common rights." Recent troubles were declared only to have accentuated the Canadian determination to remain part and parcel of the Empire, and the resolution was spoken of as a national pledge to move towards Imperial federation. If there were a movement to which French Canadians might be pardoned for hesitating to commit themselves with enthusiasm it would be a movement prompted in the British interest by a sentiment so sincerely British. Nevertheless, among the supporters of the resolution none were more cordial than the French Canadian members of the House, and we have good ground to believe that Mr. Laurier expressed something more than a

personal sentiment when after a warm eulogy of British institutions, he declared his conviction that should England be called upon to repel her foes she would have the ready services of her subjects all over the world, "not only British subjects of her own blood, but British subjects who are not of her blood, but who have received from her the inestimable blessing of freedom." This is the same spirit as that which caused the leader of the Dutch party at the Cape to offer on the day after the surrender of Dr. Jameson to use his influence to obtain from President Kruger redress of the legitimate grievances of British subjects living in the Transvaal and leniency of treatment for the prisoners. It is a spirit justly born of the liberality of British rule in those colonies to which self-government has been granted. It finds an echo in Mr. Chamberlain's recent declaration that he intends to base a strong British policy in South Africa upon the support of the Dutch majority at the Cape and in Natal. It is a spirit which renders it possible to look with hope for the ultimately peaceful solution of all the internal difficulties inseparable from the maintenance of the Empire. The existence of such a spirit is, in one word, the highest testimony that an Imperial people can receive of their fitness to occupy the position in which contemporary history has found them.

Much has been said at various times of the disruptive influence likely to be exercised by the discontented Irish element throughout the Empire. If we may trust our late experience, an Irishman has only to leave Ireland in order to become a loyal defender of the British flag in any other portion of the earth in which he finds it float above him. There is no British colony in which the Irish element has not a Parliamentary representation. There is no Colonial Government

which does not depend on Irish support. Yet from every Government of the Empire loyal resolutions have come unopposed.

We have heard also a great deal of the Separatist tendencies of the native-born Australian. Yet it is not only through the Australian Governments which his vote is supposed to govern that the expression of the feelings of Australia reaches us. The popular demonstrations which have been already noticed are indication enough that there is no magic in Australian air to tempt the native-born to forgo his birthright. Australia has lived her short century of life in practical immunity from external danger. The same developments of modern science which have given her the benefit of European resources and brought the markets of the old world to her shores have included her within the European system and laid her open to the dangers long sustained by other peoples. For her, as for the other portions of the Empire, strength goes hand in hand with unity. It is not the least of the advantages which may be reaped from late events that this appears to have been generally realized.

Again, in South Africa and in Canada it has been asserted that the Dutch and French elements of the population were elements of discord certain to develop sooner or later into elements of disruption. That in such an experience as that through which we have lately passed we should be able to base our policy with confidence on Dutch loyalty in the South African colonies goes far to disprove this theory, while from Canada we are happy in the assurance that our French subjects are no less keen than those of Scotch and Irish and English race to defend the freedom of the flag.

In return for their devoted loyalty our colonies trust to us for the naval protection of their shores. We have

done our part in the movement of the last few weeks by showing that we are both able and determined to accord it. The troubles which for a moment seemed to threaten the peace of the Empire have served a valuable pur-

pose in drawing closer this mutual compact of allegiance and of strength. They leave us the richer for the new conception which they have enabled us to gain of a possible splendour in Imperial isolation.—*Times*.

## THE SPIRIT AND THE LETTER: ANOTHER VIEW.

GEORGE M. WHICHER.

THE recent paper by Mr. Lawton on this theme is but the latest word in a logomachy whose echoes have been heard in the *Review* before, notably in Professor O. F. Emerson's article on *Relation of Literature to Philology*, February, 1893. It would not be difficult, indeed, to point to traces of this same conflict in almost any record of human thought, for the spirit and the letter have been at war since the soul of man created literature. The constructive imagination and the scientific reason are not easily reconciled. When the silver-footed goddess is compelled to wed a prosaic mortal, Discord is certain to make her appearance, an unbidden guest at the feast. From the days when heterodox poets were to be banished from a philosophic commonwealth, to the time when John Keats drank confusion to the memory of Newton, "because he had destroyed the poetry of the rainbow," we may observe these wraths in celestial minds.

It is quite three hundred years ago that a great classical scholar\* of the day delivered himself of an opinion, which when divested of its sonorous Latin has a curiously modern sound: "Others are misled by a different kind of mistake, who carefully read the wisdom of the ancients not that they

may improve their spirit, but their mind; not that they may learn how to live but how to talk; not that they may go away better men, but only more learned; who, finally, read with the eyes of mere grammarians the writings of those who discoursed on virtue."

It can hardly be doubted that every generation of classical scholars since has listened to similar strains. The critical and the constructive faculties, the literary and the scientific tendencies, have made few truces, and those have not been very carefully kept. Let us find our consolation in the thought that a conflict so persistent must arise from the nature of things and is, therefore, beneficial. It is probably the essential condition of progress, like the continual falling and recovery by which we walk, or the daily dying and renewal which constitute our life. Not the struggle then, but the unchallenged victory of either side is most to be dreaded. It is a pity that it does not seem more natural to refer to this subject in other than military metaphors. The two methods of treating literature and language should be recognized as equally necessary and important. They are the centripetal and the centrifugal forces which produce the perfect orbit. When we shall acknowledge with the seer that "spirit does not help the flesh more than

Isaac Casaubon\*

flesh the spirit," it will be easier to adjust the claims of their respective advocates.

Mr. Lawton, however, did not depreciate the importance of a scientific study of the classics, but warns us that it is cultivated in America too much to the exclusion of the literary or humanistic method. That he calls the latter the "higher" aspect of the subject may be disregarded in the interests of peace. Professor Emerson has already pointed out that such warnings are more often heard from its advocates than from the believers in "purely linguistic" methods; but he concludes that they are not justified, at least in the present state of instruction in English language and literature. There is some reason to think that his conclusion may be extended to include the classics. It cannot of course be denied that the amount of work done by our classical scholars which can be regarded as literature, is very small indeed. We must all regret that the man best fitted to do such work should have yielded, as far as Mr. Lawton states, to the wiles of the spirit *der stets erklart*. But it is also possible to see in his career an heroic attempt to create right conditions of classical study rather than a yielding to unfavorable environments. When it is considered how short a time the classics have been studied scientifically in America, and how scanty as yet are the fruits of that study, it is not altogether clear that it is time to call a halt, however much we may believe in the ultimate importance of the cause for which Mr. Lawton pleads. How long is it since cultured Americans ceased to indulge in such divagations as are recorded in a recent volume on the study of Greek myths? Assuming that they originated in the *age of Plato*, one of the best known stories was thus interpreted:

"The indomitable Will had dethroned Time, and, acting with Pro-

ductive Energy, . . . had driven back the sensual passions to the bowels of the earth while it produced Perfect Wisdom, Genius, Beauty, and Love; results which were more excellent if not more powerful than their cause."

We may pity the man who scorns these delights and lives laborious days in counting the prepositions in Deinarchus; but, after all isn't it more profitable to live with him on the solid earth than to take flight for such a cuckoo-cloudland.

To restate afresh the relations of the masterpieces of antiquity to each generation of thoughtful men, is indeed the imperative duty of a real leader. But is it any less imperative that he should understand, to an extent which his generation would consider adequate, what those masterpieces are? And those who may not aspire to leadership, why should they not feel that they are as usefully employed in contributing to one of these great ends as to the other?

Finally, it may be worth while to speak of a misconception which some of Mr. Lawton's readers may form, but which he, doubtless, would be the first to deprecate. There exists in many quarters a vague notion that teachers of language undertake, or ought to undertake, not only to foster but even to create the ability to produce literature. The number of prominent authors who have never come under classical influences, and the paucity of good writers in the great number of college graduates, are often referred to as though they constituted a reproach to our system of linguistic education. Just what part education plays in developing literary talent, it would not be altogether easy to decide; but those in intimate contact with Latin and Greek may observe that these subjects do not abhor a mental vacuum more than Nature herself. Unless a man's demon urge him to write, as Matthew Arnold says

he is at least as likely to be discouraged as inspired by an acquaintance with the masterpieces. They cannot supply for him what the fates have denied. Those who plead for the literary treatment of the classics should be careful not to aid in laying upon us a responsibility which we cannot meet. We are

sorry indeed that our pastures so seldom feed a Pegasus; but should we advertise a pair of wings to fit every Rosinante?—*Educational Review.*

'Tis easier for the generous to forgive,  
Than for offense to ask it.

—*Thompson.*

## NON-SOCIAL IDEALS OF CHARACTER.

CHARLES DE GARMO.

THE greatest need of our time I apprehend to be a reconstruction of our theory of character. Our prevailing ideals were formed when society in this country was, so far as environment is concerned, in its most primitive state. The people were all practically pioneers. Even at the beginning of the present century only some three per cent of our population were in cities, and even these so-called cities were little more than towns or groups of villages. This being the case it is natural that our conceptions of character should be based upon primitive conditions of society, which in our great municipalities no longer exist.

To-day an ideal city represents a system of reciprocal activities, duties, concessions and benefits, while the country in its original rural state, is still a place for independent, and, in the economic sense, non-social living. The essential idea of pioneer and rural life is isolation, independence, and in many important respects non-responsibility for others; that of the city is reciprocity, co-operation, mutual responsibility. Social co-operation in a city is a necessity for health, comfort and prosperity; in the country its chief end is companionship.

At the present time, nearly a third of our population is concentrated in cities, while it may safely be affirmed that practically all the unsolved problems of popular government have their seat in these places of congestive population. New York and its environments contain more people than there were in the thirteen colonies at the close of the Revolution. Yet even in these vast centres of population the ideals of a primitive community still prevail, for the dominant conception of character in this country is that of an essentially non-social individualism. This condition of the popular mind finds its explanation partly in the fact that the European ferment during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries drove the strong, independent character out of that continent into the wilderness of the new world. Here the essentially primitive conditions that prevailed for 250 years developed all the initial non-social instincts among the strongest members of a strong race. It is not denied that this spirit has been an important influence for good in our past history, though its evils, as seen in the states' rights doctrine, have been manifold, yet to-day we find no orator to praise, no poet to sing the glories of this spirit when

brought under the conditions of our urban life. The story of our city government is one of inefficiency, rapacity, and fraud. In the city individualism means mobs and riots in the slums; in higher classes, it often means the abandonment of the public interests to those who wish to direct them to private ends.

The effect of conceptions of character is seen in the attitude of the non-social man toward the public welfare. He demands all sorts of personal privileges for himself, and as readily grants them to others. It is all one to him if one man chooses to keep a cow and another a saloon. If the water supply be foul or inadequate he seeks to protect himself by buying a filter or by bringing water from a spring. It is only in such cases as that which recently arose in Duluth, where typhoid fever threatened to decimate the population, that the public spirit is ultimately aroused to action and the spirit of corrupt individualism checked. Primitive morality pities the beggar, but acknowledges no responsibility for removing the conditions that give rise

to beggary. It refuses to be taxed for public improvements, but allows private corporations to batten on public extortion. It resists compulsory education in the name of individualism; it annuls the efforts for reform by the few; it displaces civic patriotism in the form of co-operative labor for the general welfare by a national patriotism in the form of enthusiasm for war. What more striking example of this fact could we have than the recent manifestation of this spirit in congress?

So long as our present non-social ideals of character prevail first in the school, and later in the community, so long will our municipal reforms prove to be both ineffectual and transient. They are brought about through the infinite labor of the few, only at the next election to relapse into the former state. As in the cities there is the greatest need for these reconstructed ideals of character, so in the cities, with those powerful agencies, school, pulpit and press, there are to be found the best opportunities for realizing them.—*The Citizen.*

## CALL OUT THE RESERVES.

ONE of our Senators at Albany, in a recent conversation with Dr. Parkhurst, said that whenever a Senator is considering a bill, the first question that he asks himself is, How will my attitude toward this bill affect my political prospects? He said that this was his habit, and he believed it was the habit of his senatorial colleagues. The new thing about this is the audacious challenge which so open and shameless an avowal of a disgraceful fact, hitherto decorously concealed, gives to whatever moral

sense is yet alive in the community. A public servant is neither ashamed nor afraid to tell the people that his first concern in public business is not the public interest, but his own. The unblushing, hard effrontery of it brings to mind robber Tweed's impudent question, "What are you going to do about it?"

Both press and pulpit, so far as our observation goes, remain silent. One might well be struck dumb for a while by this portentous revelation of rottenness in the highest functions of

the State. Can it be that the dumbness is that of moral insensibility, the result of a century of dishonor under the spoils system in politics? The seriousness of the case is not that the Senator defies public sentiment, but that he assumes that there is no public sentiment to be defied by his naive confession of immorality. In 1780 a man of the Senator's way of thinking went up the North River to a post of great honor and trust at West Point—Albany then offering nothing so good. Being a patriot of the kind who considers, first, what he can make out of his country, he bargained away his fortress to the enemy for a sum of money and a generalship, though he was prevented from delivering the goods. The Senator may not yet be a traitor, but he is ruled by the very spirit that made Benedict Arnold a name of infamy—the subordination of a public trust to a private interest.

Bad as this is, a much worse thing is the moral apathy in the community which ignores or condones it. This is the real danger-signal, as heart-disease is more alarming than a boil. If religious men are disposed to tolerate such Senators, they need the revival preaching which Isaiah addressed to the religionists of Jerusalem:

"How is the faithful city become an harlot! Thy princes are rebellious, and companions of thieves: every one loveth gifts, and followeth after rewards."

Among the signs of the overthrow of republicanism by Cæsarism—of which bossism is the incipient form—the Roman poet mentioned as most ominous, *venalis curia patrum*—"venal is the venerable Senate." We have gone far that way when a Senator thinks it safe for himself and his confederates in the abuse of trust to avow the fact of venality, disdaining even by decorous hypocrisy to pay the formal homage of vice to vir-

tue. Between the venal fellow who sells his vote at the polls and the venal Senator whose attitude to a bill is determined by a view to his political prospects the only real difference is in their profits.

It now urgently concerns the churches, and whatever successors of the prophets or the Apostles are with us still, to call out all the slumbering moral reserves, to be instant for a revival of social righteousness, to rouse the public conscience to insist on that political morality without which no patriotism worth professing, and no religion worthy of the name, can long survive.

"Soft words, smooth prophecies, are doubtless well;  
But to rebuke the age's popular crime  
We need the hearts of fire, the souls of that  
old time."—*Exchange*.

JUDGE HUGHES.—The death of the author of "Tom Brown's School-days" will be regretted by several generations of schoolboys. This famous book became at once and has always remained *the* classic on the subject. Many rivals have since appeared; but it is a curious fact that very few are free from either a sentimentality bordering on mawkishness or a boisterous tone approaching vulgarity. Perhaps the "schoolboy" books most to be commended, after Judge Hughes', are those written by Mr. Talbot Baines Reed, whose early death a couple of years ago was a great loss to the youth of this country. In "Tom Brown" there is much earnest religious teaching that is never mawkish, and much glorious fun that is never vulgar. As an instance of the former we may refer to the famous scene where Tom—himself a heathenish young dog—flings his boot at the head of the bully who is mocking the little boy who ventures to say his evening prayer.—*The Educational Times*.

OH, LIKE A QUEEN'S HER HAPPY TREAD.

Oh, like a queen's her happy tread,  
And like a queen's her golden head!  
But oh, at last, when all is said,  
Her woman's heart for me!

We wandered where the river gleamed  
'Neath oaks that mused and pines  
that dreamed.

A wild thing of the woods she seemed,  
So proud, and pure, and free!

All heaven drew nigh to hear her  
sing,

When from her lips her soul took  
wing;

The oaks forgot their pondering,  
The pines their reverie.

And oh, her happy, queenly tread,  
And oh, her queenly golden head!  
But oh, her heart, when all is said,  
Her woman's heart for me!

WILLIAM WATSON.

NOTES FOR TEACHERS

WOMEN FOR INSPECTORS.—Last month we briefly alluded to the appointment of two lady Sub-Inspectors by the Education Department. It is satisfactory to note that both these ladies, as far as salary is concerned, are on exactly the same footing as men, with the same annual increment, and have, indeed, filled vacancies previously occupied by men. Both ladies possess the equivalent of a degree—L.L.A. of St. Andrews—and were on this account excused an examination by which men are tested when they do not possess a B.A. degree. Miss Munday possesses in addition a teacher's certificate granted by the Education Department,

several certificates of the Science and Art Department, and has for some time been the headmistress of a voluntary school (St. Stephen's Townshend) at Westminster. When Baroness Burdett Coutts founded the Westminster Technical Institute she appointed Miss Munday lady superintendent, a choice fully justified by her success. For the present she is placed upon the staff of the Rev. C. D. DuPort, Lambeth. Miss Willis has been working under Miss Hughes at the Cambridge Teachers' College. She is on the staff of Mr. A. W. Newton, Deptford. Both ladies are expected to pay special regard to the working of mixed schools and infants'

departments, as well as the teaching of needlework, domestic economy, cookery, and laundrywork. A representative of the *Journal* inquired at the Education Department why these ladies had been appointed. "Dear me!" was the unofficial answer; "I expected you would ask why we had not made these appointments before." The new inspectors begin work after Easter.—*The Journal of Education.*

Following now the example of another pupil of a great master, Thomas Hughes, I prefer to leave Dr. March at our chapel door—I trust a fitting close to this imperfect sketch. This concluding picture shall be of his own drawing, because it unconsciously reveals so much of his own beautiful, noble soul, and his conception of the best college ideals. Speaking of chapel attendance, on one occasion he said: "Compulsory attendance on prayers and preaching is a special object of attack. But it is almost a misnomer to call the college discipline compulsion. It is nothing like so strong as the obligations of professional life or the tyranny of fashion, or social habits, or home influence. A college student is about the freest man there is. It is certainly a pleasant sight to see our college, bathed and breakfasted and ready for recitations, gathering at morning prayers. Our beautiful hill, bright in the early sun ;

the valley lying in rosy mist with the rivers glinting through; the great mountains looking on as though they liked the looks; the white smoke curling upward from hearths of homes that may be temples; the spired fingers of the churches pointing heavenward; the college campus with its hundred paths all leading to the college chapel; the hundreds of young men rejoicing in the morning and in nature around them which is in itself a liberal education, and gathering to offer a morning tribute of thanks and praise to the Giver of all good and ask him for stout hearts and clear heads for the labors of the day and for the scholar's blessing, the pure heart that shall see God—is a sight worth seeing. It is impossible to believe that it can be a burden to any. I have seen many generations of college students grow up and pass through life, and am fully satisfied that the habit of attendance on religious exercises in colleges has been a most powerful influence for good. I believe it still, I trust it still. After all, the proper work of college is to make Christian men of sound culture. It is not so much to develop genius; genius in the teens is either omnivorous or stupid, and either way considers professors a bore. It is to prepare our youth to discharge the duties of good citizens."—*Educational Review.*

#### PUBLIC OPINION.

CAMBRIDGE.—A proposal which at present attracts a good deal of attention is that of Dr. Besant, whose idea is that there should be a charter granted forthwith to Newnham and Girton as a women's University, with power to use the machinery of the existing University for examination purposes. For teaching purposes, it

is needless to add, these colleges have already obtained the pick of Cambridge men.—*The Educational Times.*

UNIVERSITY MEN.—In a recent issue of the *Spectator*, the question is raised whether a University education is not often a disadvantage to those who have received it. Many a suc-

cessful operator on the Stock Exchange, it is suggested, may have missed his vocation by being sent to Oxford or Cambridge. In remote curacies and country grammar schools unknown to Capel Court, many a financial genius may be living out penurious days, and dropping his little all in rash investments, who might have made a pile (and lost it). It is so also, the writer thinks, in literature. A few great poets, as Wordsworth and Milton, have managed to survive the ordeal, but these are of a mild, persistent character, that not even a University could crush. A fiery spirit like Shakespeare would have been ruined by academic training. We have heard this before. But nothing is more remarkable in Shakespeare than his power of utilizing and making the most of every scrap of knowledge and every kind of experience he had. As to practical life, we should like a census of University men now doing well in the City. Several names occur to us as we write of successful bankers and merchants, who not only spent three years at a University, but were so far neglectful of their higher interests as to take honours. Most Ministers of State are University men, and it is difficult to suppose that such a successful Minister would have failed in the City if he had had a capital to start with. Moreover, many of them do become directors, and their companies do not always fail. But then, as the Member for West Fife told the House lately, "Ministers are bold, bad men, or they would not be Ministers." So, perhaps, we ought not to count them. We cannot help thinking that the writer in the *Spectator* has drawn an induction from an insufficient number of cases.—*The Educational Times*

WHAT OUR DISAPPROVAL MAY MEAN.—The best compliment that

we can pay some things or persons is to say that we do not approve of them. That which we do not approve of may have the right to disapprove of us also. "Who can tell what just criticisms the cat may be passing on us beings of wider speculation?" asks George Eliot. A new method of work may be presented to us, or a new course of study, it may be, or a new person may be called to fill an official position under whom we are to serve. We have not been used to either that sort of method or that sort of person, so we disapprove of them; but this disapproval is no proof of their undesirableness. New ideas, new methods, new voices, new gestures, new doctrines, grate harshly on us. It is natural that they should, oftentimes they ought to, for it is just as true that we are grating harshly on them. An inverted aspect of things seems really preposterous to us, and so it should. But that may mean that we ourselves have been preposterous. We have so settled down, and warmed the bed of circumstances into a comfortable hollow just to fit ourselves, that we do not like to be disturbed. We are no wild prairie, or howling wilderness, it is true; we are a most respectable garden. Here comes someone or something, in the guise of a slashing pioneer. We cannot see ourselves and our work a subject for the pathfinder. Our ideas and methods were finished long ago. They are complete; all that we need is to have them carried out. This new comer is not in full dress, and is stumbling all over our lovely cultivation. Shall we tangle his way for him by criticism, or shall we strive with him to make his new path easy? Shall we obstruct him, or aid him? "All new movements are open to criticism," says Thring. "There must be mistakes; never be discouraged by that; pathfinders of necessity get

a little mud. It is very possible to be too clean. Shame on the pioneer whom his tailor would praise! Open to criticism? Yes, of course; but open to encouragement and ready handed help also. Not all new things, or new comers in official places, are the best. But one evi-

dence that they may be so is that we do not exactly like them.—*The Sunday School Times.*

Base envy withers at another's joy,  
And hates that excellence it cannot reach.

—*Thompson.*

## GEOGRAPHY.

What a hold upon the boys has the teacher who knows something about birds, dogs and horses, yacht-races and football, as well as the subjunctive moods and the map of Asia.—*The School Journal.*

SCIENTIFIC INVENTIONS.—The opening of the new buildings at the Cavendish Laboratory was celebrated by a conversation, at which Professor and Mrs. Thompson entertained several hundred of the leading residents; all the leading scientific men of the University were pressed into the service, and explained to the inquiring crowds the meaning of the numerous scientific curiosities which were on view. Of course lectures on the Röntgen rays attracted crowded audiences, while Mr. Searle's photographs of drops of water splashing proved equally interesting. Mr. E. H. Griffiths, F.R.S., showed for the first time a new clinical thermometer, to take accurate and instantaneous readings of surface temperatures. This invention will doubtless be heard of again, and it is believed that the thermometer will prove of the highest utility in localizing internal tumours. The instrument is able when attached to the temples to show with unerring accuracy the changes in temperature caused by working out a hard problem, and doubtless some student in

psychology may be induced to make researches into the relation between heat and mental work, in the same way as Joule estimated the relation between heat and mechanical work.—*The Educational Times.*

TRI CENTENARY OF THE POTATO.—The tri-centenary of the introduction of the potato is to be celebrated in England this year, for it was in 1596, exactly three centuries ago, that Sir Walter Raleigh planted the first Irish potato in his estate at Youghal, near Cork. It is a singular fact that an insignificant plant, with no beauty of leaves or flowers, with a nauseous odor and a juice of a poisonous quality, growing wild among the crevices of the rocks which bound the shores of Peru and Chili, unknown to the world at large, and all but neglected by the rude natives, should have been transferred three centuries ago to Europe, eventually to become one of the most important articles of human diet and largely influence the population of half the globe.

The potato belongs to a family of plants botanically known as the Solanaceæ, which includes the deadly nightshade and other poisonous plants. The juice of its own leaves and stems, and even of the skins of its tubers, is slightly poisonous. In its native state the plant is small, and the tubers

rarely exceed the size of a walnut or common chestnut. They are also of a moist waxy consistence, and have a slightly bitterish taste. The color of the blossoms is generally white, instead of the red and purple hues of the cultivated sorts. By the careful cultivation of man, however, these small, waxy and bitter tubers have

been swelled out into large, farinaceous, palatable potatoes, one single stem producing many-pounds' weight. —*New York Herald.*

The sweetest cordial we receive at last  
Is conscience of our virtuous actions  
past.

—*Goffe.*

### EDITORIAL NOTES.

#### MAKE THE BEST OF ONE ANOTHER.

We may, if we choose, make the worst of one another. Everyone has his weak point; everyone has his faults; we may make the worst of these; we may fix our attention constantly upon these. It is a very easy task; and by so doing we shall make the burden of life unendurable, and turn friends into enemies, and provoke strife, hatred, heartburnings wherever we go, and cut off from ourselves one of the chief sources of happiness, and goodness, and usefulness. But we may also make the best of one another. We may forgive even as we hope to be forgiven. We may put ourselves in the place of others, and ask what we should wish to be done to us, and thought of us, were we in their place. By fixing our attention on their good qualities, we shall rise to their level as surely as by fixing our attention upon their bad qualities we shall sink below their level. By loving whatever is lovable in those around us, love will flow back from them to us, and life will become a pleasure instead of a pain, and earth will become like heaven; and we, if God so please, shall become not unworthy followers of Him whose name is Love.—*Dean Stanley.*

We print the above for the special use of fellow-workers. No class of men require the lesson of the extract from the writings of Dean Stanley more than teachers: they have so constantly to be helping other people (usually young people) by criticism. May we grow in kindness and so overlook all things.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, ONTARIO.

The meeting of the Educational Association of Ontario, which took place during Easter week of this year, was, in most respects, the best ever held. There were more of the teachers of the country present than ever before, and consequently the sessions of the different Departments of the Association were very largely attended. No doubt much helpful discussion was carried on at the various meetings of the convention:

We listened to an interesting talk in the Science Department one afternoon on how best to obtain or provide specimens for practical work in Botany during the winter months. There is a very general feeling among the members

of the Association that there is not enough time for the meetings of the Association as a body; that too much of the time is given up to the Departments. This change will come in good time. The President's address was highly commended and deservedly so. The Association ought to be a power for good in Ontario and also in Canada.

In this number we publish an interesting and valuable paper, read by Mr. Dow, Whitby, before the Department of Trustees, Public Schools teachers and inspectors.

Mr. Dow makes many good points, not only for the rural schools but for all our schools. The questions which he sent to inspectors and their answers will be printed in subsequent issues.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SERIES.

The School System of Ontario, by Hon. G. W. Ross, LL.D., Minister of Education for Ontario. "This is a work on the organization and supervision of schools, and a most instructive one . . . . . one is prepared for a study . . . of works on the organization and supervision of schools. *W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, Washington, in the Preface.*

"In 1839 district public schools were first called grammar schools." The first grammar school or more properly speaking public school—in the province of Ontario was opened in York (now Toronto) on the first of June, 1807: the second in Niagara in 1808—page 112.

### SCHOOL WORK.

#### EXAMINATION PAPERS IN WENTWORTH PUBLIC SCHOOLS, APRIL, 1895.

##### GEOGRAPHY.

##### ENTRANCE TO JUNIOR THIRD CLASS.

1. Name the school section, township, county and province in which you live. (6)
2. Draw a map of Wentworth county, and locate the following places: Hamilton, Dundas, Watford, Ancaster, Stoney Creek, Carlisle, Rockton, Freulton, Lynden and Winona. (30)
3. Name a railroad that runs through Wentworth, and give the two nearest stations. (4)
4. Name five kinds of grain and five kinds of fruit that are grown in

Wentworth. What Township is noted for its fruit. (10)

5. Tell what Townships in Wentworth touch upon the Township in which you live. Tell as well as you can what the following are: Island, lake, river, ocean, continent, city, town, village, and give two samples of each. (20)

6. Draw a circle and put diameters in it so as to show the following points of the compass:—North, East, West, South, North-East, South-East, North-West, South-West, mark each one. (10)

##### ENTRANCE TO SENIOR THIRD CLASS.

1. What is the shape of the earth? Give three proofs. What is its diameter in miles? What is meant by circumference? How many motions has it? Name and describe

them. Name the seasons, and tell when each one begins and when it ends. (20)

2. Define: River, lake, continent, island, canal, coast line; name two of each kind, and tell where they are situated. (18)

3. Write sentences in which each of the following terms is used, three terms, as grouped, to be used in each sentence:—Toronto, lake, city; Hamilton, railroad, Ancaster; Nova Scotia, Canada, ocean; river, lake, ocean. (12)

4. Write a short sketch of the Township in which you live, naming the adjoining Townships, and the principal villages in it. (10)

5. Draw a map of Wentworth, naming and giving the position on the map of any 5 villages, three of the principal roads leading to Hamilton, and any two railroads passing through the county. (10)

6. Name the five Continents, and tell what oceans touch each Continent. (10)

7. Name five mountain chains, and tell where they are situated. (10)  
80 marks a full paper.

#### ENTRANCE TO JUNIOR FOURTH CLASS.

1. (a) In the Township in which you live, name five articles raised on the farm of which the farmer grows more than he uses, and state how he disposes of the surplus. (10)

(b) Name five articles that he uses, but does not produce, and state where these are grown.

2. Draw an outline map of Lake Ontario, showing the cities and towns on its shore, and any rivers that empty into it. (10)

3. Name and locate four large rivers, ten cities, four islands, two bays and four lakes in North America. (12)

4. Name the Continents of the Old

World, and write a brief description of their inhabitants. (8)

5. Draw an outline map of Wentworth, locating Hamilton, Dundas, Carlisle, Albxerton, Mount Hope, Strabane, Rockton and Ancaster. Write a short descriptive account of it. (10)

6. Name and locate as many as you can of the different regions that form the British Empire. (10)

7. Name and state the use of the circles marked on a map of the world. (10)

8. Name and give the boundaries of the different zones. Tell what you can of the products of these zones. (10)

#### ENTRANCE TO SENIOR FOURTH CLASS.

1. Write a brief sketch of the Province of Ontario, describing its mountains, river systems, lakes, and the principal lines of railroad. (15)

2. Draw an outline map of Lake Ontario, showing the position of the most important towns and cities, and write a short descriptive account of each of them. (15)

3. Describe the means of communication by land or water between the following places:—Winnipeg and Halifax; London and Ottawa; Hamilton and Vancouver; Ottawa and St. Thomas. (15)

4. Draw an outline map of Wentworth, locating Stoney Creek, Lynden, Freulton, and the principal roads leading to Hamilton. Write a short descriptive account of it, its general appearance; the products of the farm; manufactures; and any historical events. (15)

5. What and where are the following:—St. Lawrence, Australia, Bermuda, British Guiana, Johannesburg, Melbourne, Corea, Abyssinia, Gibraltar, Malta, Cuba, Venezuela, Owen Sound, Chatham, Liverpool. (15)

6. Write brief but full notes of re-

cent events that have occurred in any five of the above places. (10)

7. When are the days and nights of equal length over the whole world? Where are they of equal length the whole year? Explain as fully as you can. (10)

80 marks a full paper.

GRAMMAR.

ENTRANCE TO JUNIOR FOURTH CLASS.

1. (a) "He, who from zone to zone,

Guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight,

In the long way that I must tread alone

Will lead my steps aright."

(b) "Bodies which radiate freely have the power in an equal degree of absorbing heat."

(c) "By Nebo's lonely mountain

On this side Jordan's wave,

In a vale in the land of Moab

There lies a lonely grave."

(1) Analyze the above sentences into clauses, give the grammatical relation of each subordinate clause, and state its functions. (18)

(2) Analyze the clauses fully in the sentences *a* and *b*. (12)

(3) Select the phrases in *a* and *c* and tell what they modify. (16)

(4) Select the nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs in *b* and *c*, give their grammatical relation, and state their functions. (20)

2. What is meant by the following terms: Sentence, clause, phrase, subject, predicate, object, transitive verb, pronoun, verb, complex sentence. Give an example of each from the above sentences. (20)

3. Correct where necessary: John has went through the Third Reader

He attends school very unregular. That is a small matter between you and I.

Lay down boys and set up when he has went by.

He rode to town and drove twelve cows on horseback.

John don't work and he ain't going to pass.

There ain't no use of trying, for I cannot do it. (14)

ENTRANCE TO SENIOR THIRD CLASS.

1. (a) On a cold snowy evening a poor little girl walked along the street with naked feet.

(b) This little girl looked wistfully at the bright lights in the windows.

(c) She was carrying in her hand a bundle of matches.

(d) In some cities boats receive their freight from the windows.

(1) Separate the above sentences into subject and predicate. (16)

(2) Select six phrases, and give the word or words to which they are joined. (18)

(3) Select the subject word of each verb, the object word of each preposition, the object word of each verb that has an object. (16)

(4) Tell the part of speech and give the grammatical relation of each word in sentences *c* and *d*. (20)

2. Write sentences using each of the following words as an adjective, then by changing its form, as an adverb:—Strange, wild, strong, rapid, true, careless, handy, scarce. (16)

3. What is an adjective?

Write a sentence containing an adjective, an adjective phrase.

Write a sentence containing an adjective in the predicate. (12)

4. Write sentences using the following words correctly:—Lay, lie; did, done; saw, seen; this, that; these, those. (10)

100 marks a full paper

#### ENTRANCE TO SENIOR FOURTH CLASS.

1. (a) In the genial warmth of the sea about the Bermudas on the one hand and *Africa* on the other, we find in great abundance those delicate shell-fish and coral formations which are altogether wanting in the same latitudes along the shores of South Carolina.

(b) Then, pointing to the bed he burst into tears for the first time, and they who stood by, knowing that the sight of this child had done him good, left them alone together.

(c) When we consider these wonders, the immense number of the stars, their infinite variety, the work they are doing as *suns*, the vastness of the space through which they are scattered, our own world seems a mere atom in space, and we who creep on it seem as *nothing*.

(1) Give the grammatical relation, and state clearly the kind and functions of each phrase in sentence a. (14)

(2) Analyze in full, sentence b, giving subject, predicate and object, with modifiers of each, and state clearly the function and grammatical relation of each of these modifiers. (12)

(3) Separate into clauses sentence c, stating clearly the grammatical relation and functions of each subordinate clause. (14)

(4) Give the part of speech, the grammatical relation, and state the functions of each of the words printed in italics. (30)

2. What is meant by each of the following terms: Sentence, phrase,

clause, part of speech, transitive verb, subject, object, complement of a verb. Give an example of each. (16)

3. Correct the following:

These two attend school regularly, but she don't.

Mary and John are good workers, but Jane ain't.

Either the teacher or the pupil have acted improperly.

They told me of him having failed at the examination.

A dervise was met by two merchants travelling alone in a desert.

Am I the scholar who am to be punished?

Such expressions sound harshly. (14)

#### SCIENCE.

Editor.—J. B. TURNER, B.A.

I.

REPORT OF THE MEETING OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

This Association held its meetings on Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday afternoons during the week of the meetings of the General Association. The programme as published was adhered to with the exception of the paper by Mr. Fessenden, of Peterborough, who was unavoidably absent.

The chairman in his address returned to a subject that has more than once engaged the attention of the Association, viz: the desirability of having a start made in the teaching of some Science subject in the public school in order to give an opportunity for the training of the mind in a direction that is now almost entirely neglected.

Mr. MacMurchy dealt with a cognate subject, "Nature-Studies in the Public Schools," and as a result a committee was appointed to secure information on this subject and try, if possible, to

bring about a joint meeting of the Public School and the Science Sections of the Association at its meeting next Easter. Mr. Lennox, of Woodstock, in his paper gave a timely criticism of the High School text books in Science. Mr. Jenkins, of Owen Sound, and Mr. Copland, of Brockville, each gave a valuable paper on "Methods in Science Teaching." Mr. Hamilton, of Brantford, and Mr. Stevens, of Lindsay, also gave interesting addresses, the former on "Primary Botany During Winter Months;" the latter on "Simple Apparatus in Chemistry and Physics."

Mr. Jeffrey, of Toronto University, gave the Association a most instructive lecture, illustrated by photomicrographs on "The Anatomy of Plant Stems."

A most encouraging feature of these meetings is the constantly increasing attendance and the discussions which follow each paper. The discussions were participated in more generally this year than at any former Session of the Association.

## II.

### NATURE STUDY.

At this season, when the flowers are beginning to bloom, the leaves to make their appearance on the trees, and the animals that have been asleep during the long winter months are awakening, is the time for the teachers, of the little folks especially, to take advantage of the profusion of material at hand to interest his pupils in the objects of nature and also give variety and pleasure to the work of the school.

It will not be a difficult matter to make a selection of material from among the numerous plants that bloom between this time and the close of the school session that will afford pleasure and profit to even the youngest pupil attending our public schools. Animals, too, which are perfectly

harmless, with whose habits it will be useful to familiarize the children, can easily be secured.

It may be objected that this will be a torture to the animals and have a tendency to induce habits of cruelty in the child. Speaking from an experience of a number of years I may say that this practice, instead of inducing habits of cruelty, has an entirely opposite effect. It will be an easy matter for a teacher to impress upon the children that animals have feelings like ourselves and that nothing should ever be done to them to give them unnecessary pain; thus a useful lesson in morals could be given.

The plant kingdom, however, is the best for study with small children. I might here indicate some suitable specimen that can be obtained at this season. Begin with the hepatica, which is now in bloom, then in order the dog's tooth violet, trillium, marsh-marigold. By the time these are exhausted the members of the order Rosacæ are in bloom, also the Cruciferae, Leguminosæ and other members of the Ranunculacæ and Liliacæ, other specimens will present themselves to the teacher as the work proceeds. The manner of conducting this work has already been indicated in the Science column of the MONTHLY. The age of the pupil and the advancement of the class must largely determine the manner of conducting the work.

### CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT.

#### QUESTIONS AND SENTENCES FOR PRIMARY AND JUNIOR LEAVING LATIN.

H. I. STRANG, B.A., COLLEGIATE  
INSTITUTE, GODERICH.

1. Give all the participles of *egredior*, *transeo*, *absum*.
2. Give all the infinitive forms of *audeo*, *defer*, *volo*.

3. Give the present infinitive passive of *facio*, *reficio*, *significo*, *do*, *abdo*, *transeo*, *jubeo*, *praesto*.

4. Compare the adverbs corresponding to *celer*, *ferox*, *facilis*, *magnus*, *brevis*.

5. Dative singular and genitive plural of 'haec tota manus,' 'quisque acer eques,' 'nullum majus flumen.'

6. Latin for, 'let us go,' 'they will be able,' 'he may wish,' 'we are unwilling,' 'he might bear,' 'by doing.'

7. Distinguish "Dixit se (eum) hoc facturum esse."

8. Distinguish "Venerunt in eos (eorum) (suos) fines."

9. Distinguish "Misit milites qui faciunt (facient) hoc."

10. Distinguish "Dum naves conveniunt (convenient) hoc facit."

11. "His rebus cognitis Caesar profectus est." Substitute a Latin clause for the phrase, using (1) the active, (2) the passive."

12. "Nostris eruptione facta eos in fugam cellriter dederunt. Translate giving two good English renderings for the participial phrase.

13. "Saying this he left the camp." Translate into Latin, using (1) *dico* (2) *loquor* for *say*.

14. "He ordered the soldiers to set out with him." Translate into Latin, using (1) *jubeo*, (2) *impero*.

15. "Their chiefs had been ordered to come to the camp." Translate into Latin, using (1) *jubeo*, (2) *impero*.

16. "They sent ambassadors to beg peace." Translate into Latin, rendering the infinitive phrases in as many ways as you can.

17. Show different ways of rendering "to be done" in Latin, using the following sentences: "He wishes this to be done." "He advised this to be done." "These things are to be done by all." "This is difficult to be done."

18. Latin for "enough vessels," "the rest of the legions," "200 horsemen," "300 Gauls," "two ships of war."

19. Latin for "at daylight," "by the same route," "it looks to the east," "in our absence," "without Caesar's knowledge."

20. Latin for "We shall put him in charge of the legion." "He was afraid they would attack the camp." "They have promised to return to the part with us."

21. Latin for "He informed us that you had set out for Britain." "We could not ascertain what sort of vessels they used." "Our men being unaccustomed to this mode of warfare did not show their usual valor."

## SENIOR LEAVING TRIGONOMETRY, 1895.

BY MISS ETTA A. REID, B.A., KINGSTON.

1. (a) Book work.

(b) The sum of the measure of a certain angle in degrees and twice its measure in radians is  $23\frac{2}{7}$ ; find its measure in degrees ( $\pi = \frac{22}{7}$ ).

Let  $x$  denote the measure of the angle in degrees.

Then since  $\frac{\pi}{180}$  is the measure in radians of one degree  $\frac{\pi x}{180}$  is the measure in radians of the given angle.

$$\therefore x + \frac{2\pi x}{180} = 23\frac{1}{2}. \text{ Whence } x = 22\frac{1}{2}$$

2. (a) Book Work.

(b) Given  $2 \sin^2 45^\circ = 1$  and  $\sin 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2}$ ; find  $\tan 15^\circ$ .

By the formula  $\cos \theta = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta}$  we obtain  $\cos 45^\circ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $\cos 30^\circ =$

$$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}. \text{ Hence } \tan 45^\circ = 1 \text{ and } \tan 30^\circ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\tan 15^\circ = \tan (45^\circ - 30^\circ) = \frac{\tan 45^\circ - \tan 30^\circ}{1 + \tan 45^\circ \tan 30^\circ} = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}}{1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}} = 2 - \sqrt{3}$$

3. (a) Book work.

(b) If  $\cos(A - C) \cos B = \cos(A - B + C)$  show that  $\tan A$ ,  $\tan B$ , and  $\tan C$  are in harmonical progression.

$(\cos A \cos C + \sin A \sin C) \cos B = \cos(A + C) \cos B + \sin(A + C) \sin B$ ;  
i.e.,  $\cos A \cos C \cos B + \sin A \sin C \cos B = \cos A \cos C \cos B - \sin A \sin C \cos B + \sin A \sin C \sin B + \cos A \sin C \sin B$ . Cancel, collect like terms and divide throughout by  $\sin A \sin B \sin C$ ;

and  $\frac{2}{\tan B} = \frac{1}{\tan A} + \frac{1}{\tan C}$ .  $\therefore \frac{1}{\tan A}, \frac{1}{\tan B}$  and  $\frac{1}{\tan C}$  are in A. P.

Hence  $\tan A$ ,  $\tan B$  and  $\tan C$  are in H. P.

4. Prove the following identities:

$$(a) \tan \frac{x}{2} = \frac{1 - \cos x}{\sin x}$$

$$\tan \frac{x}{2} = \frac{\sin^2 \frac{x}{2}}{\cos^2 \frac{x}{2}} = \frac{2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}}{2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2} \cos^2 \frac{x}{2}} = \frac{1 - \cos x}{\sin x}$$

$$(b) \cos A + \cos 3A + \cos 5A + \cos 7A = 4 \cos A \cos 2A \cos 4A.$$

Combine the 1st and 4th; and the 2nd and 3rd terms of the left hand member, and it becomes  $2 \cos 4A \cos 3A + 2 \cos 4A \cos A = 2 \cos 4A (\cos 3A + \cos A) = 4 \cos A \cos 2A \cos 4A$ .

$$(c) \cos(A + B) - \sin(A - B) = 2 \sin(\pi/4 - A) \cos(\pi/4 - B).$$

Since the cosine of an angle is equal to the sine of its complement, the left-hand member of the equation may be written  $\sin(\pi/2 - A - B) - \sin(A - B)$ . This expression is equal to twice the product of the cosine of the half sum and the sine of the half difference.

$$\therefore = 2 \cos(\pi/4 - B) \sin(\pi/4 - A).$$

5. Define the logarithm of a number and prove

$$(a) \log_a \sqrt[n]{m} = \frac{1}{2}(\log_a n - \log_a m).$$

If  $a^x = y$  then the definition of a logarithm is that  $x$  is the logarithm of  $y$  the base  $a$ ; and this relation is otherwise indicated by writing  $x = \log_a y$ .

$$\text{Let } a^x = m, \text{ and } a^y = n.$$

Then from the definition of a logarithm  $x = \log_a m$ , and  $y = \log_a n$ .

$$\text{And } \sqrt[n]{m} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a^x}{a^y}} = \frac{a^{x/2}}{a^{y/2}} = a^{x/2 - y/2}$$

$$\therefore \log_a \sqrt[n]{m} = \frac{1}{2}(y - x) = \frac{1}{2}(\log_a n - \log_a m).$$

$$(b) \text{ Prove } 6 \log_a \frac{2}{3} + 4 \log_a \frac{9}{10} + 2 \log_a \frac{25}{8} = 0$$

Two methods of solution are given.

(1) The expression =  $\log_a\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)^6 \left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^4 \left(\frac{25}{8}\right)^2 = \log_a 1 = 0$

(2) The expression =  $6(\log_a 2 - \log_a 3) + 4(\log_a 3^2 - \log_a 2 \times 5) + 2(\log_a 5^2 - \log_a 3 \times 2) = 6 \log_a 2 - 6 \log_a 3 + 8 \log_a 3 - 4 \log_a 2 - 4 \log_a 5 + 4 \log_a 5 - 2 \log_a 3 - 2 \log_a 2 = 0$ .

6. (a) In the triangle ABC show that  $\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B) = \frac{a - b}{a + b} \cot \frac{C}{2}$

In any triangle the sides are proportional to the sines of the opposite angles. Hence  $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{\sin A}{\sin B}$ , whence  $\frac{a - b}{a + b} = \frac{\sin A - \sin B}{\sin A + \sin B}$

$$= \frac{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B)}{2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B)} = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A + B)}$$

Since  $A + B + C = 180^\circ$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}(A + B) = 90^\circ - \frac{C}{2}$

and  $\tan \frac{1}{2}(A + B) = \cot \frac{C}{2}$

hence  $\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B) = \frac{a - b}{a + b} = \cot \frac{C}{2}$

(b) Show that  $p = \frac{c \sin A \sin B}{\sin C}$ , if  $p$  denote the perpendicular from C upon  $c$ .

$p = b \sin A$ , and from the formula  $\frac{b}{c} = \frac{\sin B}{\sin C}$ , we have  $b = \frac{c \sin B}{\sin C}$

Hence  $p = \frac{c \sin A \sin B}{\sin C}$

7. From the point A on a plane the angular elevation of a tower on the same plane is  $\beta$ . From the point D which is  $c$  feet nearer the base of the tower, the angular elevation is  $\gamma$ . Show that the height of the tower is

$$\frac{c}{\cot \beta - \cot \gamma}$$

Denote the height of the tower by  $h$ , and the distance from the base of the tower to D by  $m$ .

Then  $h = m \tan \gamma = (m + c) \tan \beta$ .

Whence  $m = \frac{c \tan \beta}{\tan \gamma - \tan \beta} \therefore h = \frac{c \tan \beta \tan \gamma}{\tan \gamma - \tan \beta} = \frac{c}{\cot \beta - \cot \gamma}$

8. (a) In any triangle, ABC, prove that  $R = \frac{abc}{4\Delta} = \frac{c}{2 \sin C}$ , where  $R$  is the radius of the circum-circle, and  $\Delta$  is the area of the triangle.

Through the vertex B draw BD, a diameter of the circle. Then the  $\angle BAD$  is a right angle, and the  $\angle ADB =$  or supplementary to the  $\angle C$ .

$\therefore \sin C = \frac{c}{2R}$ ; whence  $R = \frac{c}{2 \sin C}$

$$R = \frac{c}{2 \sin C} = \frac{abc}{2 ab \sin C} = \frac{abc}{4\Delta}$$

(b) In any triangle, ABC, prove that  $\Delta = 2R^2 \sin A \sin B \sin C$ .

$\Delta = \frac{abc}{4R}$ ; and  $a = 2R \sin A$ ,  $b = 2R \sin B$ , and  $c = 2R \sin C$ .

Supply these values for  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ , and  $\Delta = 2R^2 \sin A \sin B \sin C$ .

9. At the foot of a mountain the elevation of its summit is  $45^\circ$ . Ascend-

ing the face of the mountain a mile on a slope of  $15^\circ$ , the elevation is found to be  $60^\circ$ . Find the height in miles; given  $\sin 15^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}-1}{2\sqrt{2}}$ ,  $\sin 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Denote the foot of the mountain by C, its summit by A, the foot of the perpendicular let fall from the summit by B, and the station to which the person ascends by D.

$\angle BAC = \angle BCA = 45^\circ$ ;  $\angle DCA = 30^\circ$ . Since DA is inclined to the horizon at  $60^\circ$ , evidently  $\angle BAD = 30^\circ$ . Hence  $\angle DAC = 15^\circ$ ; and  $\angle ADC = 180^\circ - (30^\circ + 15^\circ) = 135^\circ$ . Then  $CA : CD = \sin 135^\circ : \sin 15^\circ$ .

$\therefore AC = \frac{\sin 45^\circ}{\sin 15^\circ}$  miles since CD is one mile. And the height of the mountain is  $CA \sin 45^\circ = \frac{\sin^2 45^\circ}{\sin 15^\circ} = \frac{\sqrt{2}(\sqrt{3}-1)}{2}$

### AN ANGLE.

By PROF. N. F. DUPUIS, QUEEN'S COLLEGE, KINGSTON.

Angle is generated or produced by the rotation of a line about a point, the line being confined to one and the same plane. Now, this rotation of the line means simply that it is continually changing its direction while passing constantly through the same point. If then we fix our attention upon the line before it begins to rotate, and again after it has rotated through a not very large extent, these two directions of the line include an angle between them. So that while we say that an angle is generated by a rotating line, that is, by a line changing its direction while passing through a fixed point, we may define an angle in the simplest possible manner by saying that it is a difference in direction; and the angle between two given lines is the difference between their directions; or if we wish to attach to the angle the idea of something which has grown or is capable of being increased or decreased we may say that it is the rotation which will suffice to bring one of the lines into the direction of the other.

Some people will tell you that

*direction* is an evasive idea that cannot be defined, and that therefore you should not introduce it into Geometry. It is quite true that the idea of direction cannot be defined except by itself, but this fact is common to all primitive ideas of the human mind. Neither can we define length except by itself. Absolute direction has no meaning, nor has absolute length; these must be considered relatively, and a difference in direction is just as perceptible and as intelligible as a difference in length. Draw three lines O A, O B, O C radiating from the point O. Any person, above childhood, will indicate at once whether the difference in direction between O A and O B is greater or less than the difference in direction between O A and O C; unless under certain circumstances when O A lies between O B and O C. Similar remarks may be made in regard to differences in lengths when O, A, B, C are points taken in a common straight line.

In some way, presumably by early experience, we acquire the

primitive and undefinable ideas of length and direction, and in these we have our whole idea of space; for space admits of all distances in all directions.

There is, however, one prominent difference between rotation, and length or transference; namely, that a rotating line, after making one complete revolution, returns to its first direction, and thereafter repeats all its directions in succession. But a point which, by translation, describes a straight line, will never return to its first position, at least as far as we can reason about it. Hence the rotation of a line has a period or cycle in which it goes through all its possible directions; but a linearly moving point has no cycle. On this account we have a natural unit of angle with which we can compare all other angles, while we have no natural unit of length, so that any unit of length must be arbitrary.

Now the simplest unit of angle that we can take is the angle contained in this cycle, or the angle described by a complete rotation of the describing line. This has been called a perigon, a round angle (rather a singular name), and a circumangle. I prefer the last.

Then we may define a straight angle as being one-half a circumangle, and a right angle as being one-fourth of a circumangle; and thus all straight angles are equal to each other and so also all right angles are equal to one another.

It is convenient and profitable, in proving geometrical relations to make use of motion, at least in imagination, in order to establish our results. Thus by the simple rotation of a line about the three vertices of a triangle, we can most easily show that the sum of the three interior angles is a straight angle.

Some people may object to this method. If they do, they must, to

be logical, also object to the proof of Euc. I. 4, for that is effected by superposition, *i.e.*, by motion. And if any one objects, the burden is upon him to establish, if he can, a system of Geometry from which motion or superposition is excluded.

In Euclidian Geometry at any rate, that is, in the Geometry in which superposition is admissible, this latter process is the final court of appeal. We prove that two finite lines are equal when we show that their end points can, by superposition, be made to coincide; and we prove that two angles are equal when we show that we can so superimpose one of them upon the other that their arms may exactly coincide. And all our after work has reference to, and ultimately depends upon these two proofs of equality.

Any further consideration on this matter I must leave for some future time.

Let  $ABC$  be a triangle, in which the order of the vertices  $A, B, C$  is that of positive rotation, that is, in the contrary way to that in which the hands of a clock move.

Let the line  $P, Q$  lie along the side  $C, A$ , so that  $Q$  is beyond  $A$ , and let the end  $Q$  be marked with an arrow head. Rotate the line negatively about the point  $A$  until it comes to coincide with the side  $B, A$ . In this rotation the line describes the angle  $A$ . Next rotate the line  $P, Q$  about the point  $B$ , negatively, until it comes to coincide with the side  $B, C$ . In this second rotation the line describes the angle  $B$ .

Finally rotate  $P, Q$  negatively about  $C$  until it comes to coincide with  $A, B$ . The line has now described successively the three angles  $A, B$  and  $C$ , and it has exactly reversed its direction in doing so. Therefore the sum of the three angles is one-half a circumangle, or a straight-angle.

Apply the foregoing process to the following propositions:—

1. A, B, C, D, E, F are points approximately in a circle and taken in order. They are connected thus:—AD, DG, GC, CF, FB, BE, and EA. Prove that the sum of the angles A, B, C, D, E, F, G is a straight angle.
2. The points of  $\Gamma$  are connected

AC, CE, EG, GB, BD, DF, FA. Prove that the sum of the angles at the points A, B, C, etc., is three straight angles.

3. The points of  $\Gamma$  are connected AD, DF, FG, GC, CE, EB, BA. Show that the sum of the angles at C, D, E, F, and G is greater than the sum of A and B by a straight angle.

### CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

Most of the more important monthlies have made arrangements betimes to bring before their readers the Olympic Games. In the April *Century* will be found an excellent article on this subject by Allan Marquand, which is illustrated by Castaigne in his usual admirable manner. Charles G. D. Roberts contributes "The Ballad of the Laughing Sally," more dashing than his ordinary and an agreeable variation from the gentle and melancholy song of the day. "Sir George Tressady" is certainly extremely successful this month; there is a movement and a fullness in the life depicted that is rarely found in modern stories. It is hard to find space to comment on all that should be mentioned so we only put in the names of the following: "The Little Bell of Honor," by Gilbert Parker; "Four Lincoln Conspiracies," by V. L. Mason; "The Mutiny on the *Jinny Aitken*," by H. P. Whitmarsh; and "Who are our Brethren?" by William Dean Howells.

"Ah! Me, 'Tis Winter Yet," by Oliver Grey, and "The Heirs of Kellie" from Blackwoods will be found in *Littell's Living Age* for April 11th.

A most audacious dame graces the

outside of the April *Cosmopolitan*, but inside the cover what we find is reasonable and attractive. A new story of California by Beatrice Harraden, is entitled "Hilda Strafford," it opens well but with such ample provision for sadness that a sensitive mind for whom art is not itself sufficient might take fright. Nothing of the kind can be said however of "Mrs. Cliff's Yacht" in which Frank Stockton makes good his word and gives us the story about the widow made rich by Captain Horn and what she did with her wealth. The story is charmingly illustrated by E. W. Kemble. "Terra Incognita" is one of Agnes Repplier's pleasing essays.

A valuable article on "Nursery Emergencies," by H. H. Hawxhurst, M.D., appears in *Table Talk* for April. In the Housekeepers' Enquiries will be found receipts for such timely things as jessies, simnel cakes, and Brown Betty. If they taste half as well as they sound any housekeeper ought to be satisfied.

The *Eclectic Magazine* for April contains two articles by Maxwell Gray, one from the "Nineteenth Century" entitled "The Advantage of Fiction," and the other treating of "Prigs" from the "New Review."

Besides this there is a short story from Chambers' and other interesting articles.

The May number of *St Nicholas* contains a charming short story, "The Green Satin Gown," by Laura E. Richards, also a most satisfactory conclusion to Trowbridge's Serial, "The Prize Cup." Lieut. Ellicot contributes a most interesting article called "A Stroll in the Garden of England." "The Song of the Skipping Rope" is one of the many pretty rhymes.

From D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, we have received "Fritz auf Ferien," edited with an introduction and notes by A. W. Spanhoofd, President of the New England College of Languages. This interesting little story, which is humorous in character, has been selected for study in the school room because it will accustom the student to the use of colloquial German. The book is issued in Heath's well known and excellent form.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have recently issued three volumes in their classics for children. The first of these is the second part of *Grimm's Fairy Tales*, edited by Sara E. Wiltse, and contains such stories as "The Three Languages," "The Boots made of Buffalo Leather" and "The Goose-Girl at the Well." Care has been taken to eliminate from these any objectionable features. The second is "Selections from Epictetus" from George Long's translation, abridged by Edwin Ginn. This is a selection made with admirable care from those sayings of Epictetus which would be useful to younger students. The third of the series is the "Adventures of Hatim Tai" revised and edited by W. R. Alger. This is indeed a valuable contribution to the list of books that boys and girls may count as their heritage. It is of the same

style as the Arabian Nights, and consists of seven connected tales which as a whole serve to embody the Mohammedan idea of human excellence.

We have also received from Ginn & Co., a more than usually good edition of three of Du Bois-Reymond's lectures entitled "Vortrage," which is intended to be of assistance to students in acquiring technical or scientific German.

"Coleridge's Rime of the Ancient Mariner," edited by Herbert Bates, "The Merchant of Venice," edited by Prof. Gummere, "As You Like It" with an Introduction by Barrett Wendell and notes by W. L. Phelps, and "A Midsummer Night's Dream" edited by G. P. Baker, Longmans, Green & Co., New York and London. These works are all excellent continuations of the same series issued by Longmans which we have had pleasure in noticing before. They are marked by the same care in preparation and contain an abundance of information for anyone desirous of studying English Classics.

"School Interests and Duties" by Robert M. King, the American Book Company, New York. The present volume has been prepared with a view to bringing down to the present day the doctrine of co-operation in school interests. Information in regard to this subject has been freely drawn from many sources, principally from Page's Mutual Duties of Parents and Teachers. The author has divided the book into sections corresponding with the divisions of the year of the Teachers' Reading Circles for which organization it has been specially written. Such vital and interesting parts of school work as the library, school morals, etiquette, hygiene and architecture have chapters devoted to them in which may be found valuable conclusions in re-

gard to them. The book is extremely practical and while intended more particularly for the United States, yet contains information which would be of assistance to teachers in every country.

From the American Book Company we have also received four volumes in their *Eclectic English Classics*, including "The Ancient Mariner," "DeQuincey's Revolt of the Tartars," "Burke's Conciliation with the American Colonies," and "Lord Macaulay's Life of Samuel Johnson." This series is convenient and well adapted for use in the class room where too many notes are undesirable and frequently prevent the pupil's progress in the true love for literature

"Le Chien De Brisquet," edited for school use by L. C. Syms, a collection of short stories by Nodier, Dumas, Daudet and others. The American Book Company.

"La Tache De Petit Pierre," arranged for reading classes by Edith Healy; a book for children written by Madame Jeanne Mairat for which the author has received a crown from the French Academy. The American Book Company.

We have received from Moffatt & Paige their new Arithmetic Test Cards for standards 6 and 7. These contain review or examination questions in fractions, interest, proportion, etc., with a separate key giving their solutions.

"Elementary Physical Geography" by Prof. Tarr of Cornell, MacMillan & Co., New York. This is a new and valuable text book which to some extent follows the demand for change in the teaching of geography that has recently become apparent. The book is divided into three parts, devoted to the air, the ocean and the land. A special feature has been

made of the illustrations which are numerous and would be of great assistance in teaching. The circulation of the atmosphere and the distribution of temperature are dealt with in an admirable way, while every thing that is given concerning the ocean, especially the coast line, will be found a great advance on the material to be had in the ordinary textbook.

In the Athenæum Press series we have received from Ginn & Co., Boston, "Poems by John Keats," edited with introduction and notes by Arlo Bates. An effort has been made in the present volume to select only that part of the poet's work which he would himself have included in his verse. It has in the main been successful and is marked by a feeling and reverence which only one who loved the poet could exercise. At the beginning of the volume the great odes have been grouped together, these have been followed by the shorter fragments, and these again by the sonnets, while at the end will be found all Keats' longer poems, such as "Endymion," "Hyperion," "Lamia." "The Eve of St. Mark," and others. It would be hard to confer a greater benefit on the young student of poetry than to awaken in him an affection for the poetry of Keats, for having once loved him it has become impossible to pass anywhere indifferently the blossom of song.

"High School Physical Science," Part 2, by F. W. Merchant, M.A., the Copp, Clark Co., Toronto. Among the divisions which will be found in this recent text book may be mentioned, velocity, friction, fluid pressure at a point, and the various properties of sound, light and electricity. The problems which will be found placed conveniently in the book are unusually good. Teachers of science will find the volume an assistance in their classes.