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No. 11. October, 1867.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

FOR THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

THE attention of Teachers is specially directed to the advertisement respecting the Annual Convention of Teachers to be held in Halifax during the Christmas Holidays. We hope there will be a large gathering of Teachers—men and women.

EXAMINATIONS.

THAT a system for the examination of teachers, in order to be perfectly satisfactory, must combine the qualities of thoroughness, and uniformity, is a proposition in support of which it is not necessary to advance any argument. It is only on the hypothesis that these two points are attainable that any system of examination becomes desirable. In addition to these qualities, though not of equal importance, rapidity in reaching results is to be sought after. Delay under any circumstances, is unpleasant, perhaps never more so than when we are waiting to hear the result of an examination. The old system in vogue here had this one redeeming quality—it was rapid. But it was rapidity gained at a tremendous sacrifice of what is much more important,—uniformity. That system has been superseded by another, in which thoroughness and uniformity are kept in view as the primary and essential qualities to be sought after, and, so far as consistent with these, every possible effort is made to secure expeditious working. To explain the mode in which this system proposes to attain these qualities is the design of the present article.

For the information of those unacquainted with the details of our school law, we may here explain that, in accordance with an act passed in the last session of the Legislature, the machinery for the examination of teachers in this Province consists of four examiners, and twenty-one deputies. The business of the deputy at each station is to place before the candidates the printed questions sent out from the Education Department, and to forward to the department their written answers. The depnty also examines in reading. The written answers of the candidates are submitted to the examiners, each taking the papers referring to pecific subjects. The branches are divided between the examiners thus:—

LANGUAGE.

English Grammar,
" Analysis,
History of English Language,
Prosody,
Composition,
Criticism,
Latin,
Greek.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

Geography, General,
" Nova Scotia,
" Ancient,
History, Grecian,
" Roman,
" British,
" Nova Scotian,
" Universal.

MATHEMATICS.

Arithmetic,
Algebra,
Geometry, Plane,
" Solid and Spherical,
Practical Mathematics,
Navigation.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT, TEACHING, &C.

School Management,
Questions on Teaching,
Natural Philosophy,
Book-Keeping,
Chemistry.

After placing his estimate on each set of papers, the examiner returns them to the Education Office, where the several reports referring to each candidate are compared, and the decision made in the manner explained further on.

1. *Thoroughness*:—To ensure thoroughness, two things are indispensable: the questions put to the candidates, must be such as cannot be answered without a fair knowledge of the subject; the candidate must be required to depend solely on his own resources in giving answers to the questions. The questions used at the recent examination were drawn up with very great care and consideration—while it was sought to ask nothing unreasonable, it was also sought to avoid asking any question which could be fully and satisfactorily answered without a respectable knowledge of the branch to which it referred. In a few branches the number of questions asked was perhaps out of proportion to the time allowed for answering them, but the disproportion was more apparent than real, as the questions were such as to admit of very short answers.—often only one word, seldom more than two or three. In assigning the time allowed for some branches, as English Grammar for example, sufficient allowance was not made for the time necessarily consumed in ruling paper in the form required; due consideration was however given to this fact in making the awards. Five per cent. was added to the general average of each candidate, to make up for any injustice which may have been suffered owing to the circumstance under consideration.

In order that all teachers of common schools might be enabled to complete their work in two days, it was necessary to give less time on many branches than was desirable. As the candidates have so generally murmured as to the shortness of the time allowed on each branch, it is probable that hereafter the examination of male candidates for license of the 1st Class will extend over three days. It will then be possible to do more ample justice to all the branches.

In reference to the other requisite to thoroughness it need only be said that the deputy examiner is required to testify that his instructions have been faithfully adhered to and that the papers forwarded have all been wrought by the candidates without improper assistance of any kind.

2. *Uniformity*:—The examination is now perfectly uniform in all parts of the country. The same questions are put to a candidate for a license of a given class wherever he presents himself for examination; *the same examiners pronounce on the work of all*; and the same rules and tests are applied in all cases. There is therefore nothing left to be desired in this behalf. The law grants the same allowance to teachers of the same class wherever employed. It now by a uniform system of examination, insists that teachers of the same class shall possess like qualifications.

We have said nothing of impartiality. It is of course necessary that the whole process of the examination be as far as possible above the taint of a suspicion of partiality. Unless equal justice is shown to all comers, the system fails of that uniformity which all admit to be a prime requisite. We shall see hereafter that even, apart from the character of the examiners, an almost absolute safe-guard is provided against favouritism of any kind.

The mode of *conducting the exercises at each station* is at once beautifully simple and effective. In order to prevent the dishonestly disposed from copying the exercises of others, the candidates in each grade are made to sit in single alternate rows, from front to rear. It is thus made impossible for two of the same grade to sit at the same desk. All are then numbered in the order of grades from front to rear and rear to front alternately, in the alternate rows. The following diagram will illustrate our meaning. A stands for candidates for Head-Master's diploma; B for candidates for license of the 1st Class; C for female candidates of the 1st and

male ditto of the 2nd; D for female candidates of the 2nd, and male ditto of the 3rd; and E for female candidates of the 3rd.

PLATFORM.

a.	A		11 C		12 C	24 D	
b.	A		10 C	E 34	13 C	23 D	
1 B	D 25		9 C	E 33	14 C	22 D	
2 B	D 26		8 C	E 32	15 C		
3 B	D 27			E 31	16 C	21 C	
4 B	D 28		7 B		17 C	20 C	
5 B	D 29		6 B	D 30	18 C	19 C	

Where room permits a vacant seat is left between the last of each grade and the first of the next as a convenient mark for the guidance of the deputy in distributing papers. The papers containing the questions are sent out in labelled parcels. The deputy is also furnished with a printed programme of the order of exercises. At five minutes before the hour indicated on the programme for commencing work on a given branch, the deputy passes round with the questions, laying each candidate's paper before him on his desk, so that no time may be lost. Suppose it to be English Grammar. In this branch there are five grades of question papers. They are all rolled up in one parcel—the several grades being separated by slips of paper. Taking this parcel the deputy in passing round distributing them, follows the order of the numbers in the above diagram. The papers in A are on the top of the parcel: when he has supplied all the candidates in this grade, he slips the balance of the A papers under the rest and proceeds to hand out the B papers; and so on till all the candidates are supplied with their proper papers. As soon as the candidates have passed on to another subject the deputy passes round again in the same way collecting the question papers on Grammar. Taking in his hand the balance left after supplying all the candidates, he lays on it successively the questions of the several grades, slipping under the parcel as before, when all in each grade have been collected. When he has completed the round, the parcel of question-papers stands just as it did when he opened it for distribution. This saves the room from becoming littered with papers, and if it should ever be thought expedient to make use of the same papers again, they will be ready arranged.

But what is done with the written answers? How are they gathered and kept in order for the examiners? Here it is that we think the system as nearly perfect as any human device can be. Let us consider for a moment the several points to be compassed.

Suppose that 400 candidates in all present themselves for examination at the various stations throughout the Province. The papers belonging to all these are to pass from the hands of the deputies, through the mails, to the Education Office; hence they are to be sent to the four examiners, sending to each the papers referring to the branches assigned to him and those only; from the examiners, they come back again to the Education Office; and now the papers belonging to each candidate, having been separated in order to go to the proper examiner, are to be brought together, in order to come at the result. By a very simple contrivance, this is done without labour (which, with the present inadequate departmental staff, is of the first importance) and so done that *neither the examiner in placing his estimate upon a paper, nor the departmental officer, in applying the rules for arriving at the decision in reference to the candidate's success or failure, is aware of the name of the candidate.*

Each deputy is furnished with four bundles of large envelopes, each bundle being numbered from one upwards. That is, for each candidate there are four envelopes, each stamped with his number. One of these is to receive his papers on Language, and has the names of the several branches embraced under this head printed on the face of it; another the papers on Mathematics, &c. During the time when the candidates are working at the questions on any one of these branches, English Grammar for example, the deputy passes round with the language set of envelopes, placing before each candidate the one having his number printed on it. The operation is purely mechanical, and can be performed without trouble or loss of time, as the envelopes are arranged in packages in the order in which they are required, following in the distribution of them the order of numbers indicated above. When the time is up each candidate folds his paper and places it in the envelope before him, without writing on it any name or mark of any kind to indicate its authorship. When a branch belonging to another examiner comes up, the deputy distributes the set of envelopes designed for that department, having first collected the others. When the candidate is required to fold his paper, the envelope prepared to receive it is thus found before him.

But then as there are 21 places of examination, and consequently 21 sets of envelopes numbered precisely alike, how are these to be kept from getting mixed up and confounded one with another, as neither the envelopes nor the papers they contain are to bear any name? How for instance is each envelope of the set numbered "1" at Sydney to be distinguished from those of the set bearing the same number at Yarmouth? By means of what we shall call the "examination number." Each candidate's envelopes are marked with an Examination Number different from that of any other candidate. The deputy examiner at each station is directed to add a certain number to the envelope number of each candidate to find the Examination No. Thus for example at Yarmouth the number added was 310, and at Sydney 2010; so that the person having No. 1 at Yarmouth received 311 as his Examination Number, and the one having the same number at Sydney 2011. Confusion is thus rendered impossible. The four envelopes belonging to any candidate can be infallibly selected from among any number of others. The deputy forwards a report giving the names corresponding to the various numbers. This report remains unopened till after the final award has been decided and registered.

The mode of determining the success or failure of a candidate is as follows: the examiners, taking 100 as the highest possible mark on any branch, use the numbers between 100 and 0 to express the various degrees of excellence.

If the average of the marks obtained by a candidate falls below 50, he fails to pass the examination for the class of license sought—in which case, if his average exceeds 40, he receives a license one grade lower than that applied for; if between 40 and 30, two grades lower; if below 30, no license is issued.* Those obtaining the grade applied for, have the average of their marks written on the margin of their license.

A modification of the above rule is made in favour of a good speller. No one who mis-spells more than six ordinary English words is admitted to the rank of first class. And for every word less than six mis-spelled 0.5 is added to the general average. Thus suppose a candidate makes an average of only 47 on his marks, but mis-spells no word in the whole examination, his general average becomes, (by the addition of 6×0.5) 50, which entitles him, so far as this test is concerned, to his license. There were several instances in the late examination, in which persons received license under this provision.

In addition to this requirement if the mark received on any branch falls below 25 the candidate fails to pass, unless his general average exceeds 50 by as much as such mark is less than 25. [In the recent examination it was found necessary to make an exception to this rule in the case of two branches which seem to be less commonly mastered than any other. As soon as circumstances warrant, this rule will be made of universal application.]

LICENSES ISSUED.

The following table will shew the results of the recent examination. It will be seen that the whole number examined was 382 of which number 105 obtained the license applied for; 106 license one grade lower and 24 two grades lower than the one applied for, while 147 failed to obtain a license of any grade.—Whole number of licenses issued 235.

The Faculty of the Normal School report at the close of the term, their estimate of the teaching ability and skill of each student in attendance during the session. Those who stand in either of the three classes, "superior" "good," or "fair" receive, if successful in the examination, a Normal School License, of the grade to which their examination entitles them. In addition to the verdict of the examiners regarding the holder's scholarship, the opinion of the faculty regarding his teaching ability is stated. A distinction is thus drawn and properly so, between scholarship and capacity for teaching. A person receiving a first class license may rank only as of "fair" teaching ability, while another receiving only a third class license may possess superior natural and acquired skill for the work of teaching.

* If the Inspector recommends the granting of third class permissive licenses, such licenses may be issued for 1 year to the best of those rejected as above.

RESULTS OF EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS, OCTOBER, 1867.

PLACE.	Applied for Head Master's License, A.	Obtained Head Master's License.	Obtained License First Class, (B.)	Obtained License Second Class, (C.)	Applied for License Grade B.	Obtained do.	Obtained C.	Obtained D.	Received no License.	Applied for Grade C.	Obtained do.	Obtained Grade D.	Obtained Grade E.	Received no License.	Applied for License Grade D.	Obtained do.	Obtained License Grade E.	Received no License.	Applied for License Grade E.	Obtained do.	Received no License.
Sydney										8		4		4	22			22	3		3
Baddeck	1	1			1		1			18	8	4	1	5	1		1		1	1	
Mar. Forks..																					
Port Hood...					1			1		1				1	1		1				
Arichat					3		3								1			1			
Guysboro'...										2					9	8	1		4		4
Sherbrooke..					1	1				2		1			1	1			1		1
Antigonish...	2	2			7	1	1	4	1	7		1	2	4	8		1	7			
Pictou					3	2			1	15	2	3	2	8	19	1	4	14			
Amherst	1	1			4		1		3	17	3	10		4	5	1	2	2			
Truro					1	1				7	1	2	2	2	12		6	6	3	1	2
Halifax	1	1			5	1	2	1	1	8	3			5	9	1	1	7	3	1	4
Windsor.....					5		4	1		6		1	4	1	1			1	2		2
Kentville	4	2	1	1	4	2	2			15	2	8	3	2	4		1	3	1	1	
Bridgetown..					2	2				19	9	8	1	1	3			3			
Digby					1	1				1	1				1			1	1	1	
Yarmouth...					2	1	1			3		1		2	2		1	1	3		3
Shelburne...	1	1								1		1			2	2			2	1	1
Liverpool ...																					
Lunenburg..										4	3	1			5	2	3		6	2	4
Nor. School..					16	4	11	1		25	15	9		1	21	10	4	7			
	10	8	1	1	56	16	26	8	6	157	47	53	15	42	127	26	26	75	32	8	24

ORDER OF PARSING.

ON page 52 of the "Comments and Regulations" of the Council of Public Instruction, the following "remark" is made:—"The order pursued in parsing should be from the *general* to the *particular*." The model there given is—

1. Class (of words).
2. Sub-class.
3. Inflexions (if any).
4. Syntax.
5. Rule of Syntax.

Very many teachers practice this order, others regard disorder "good enough," while some never give the matter a thought. In these days of written examinations it becomes specially necessary that teachers should both teach and practice an exhaustive order of parsing. Every pupil able to parse should be required to do so according to some established order. And this should be done as a matter of course, instead of in reply to a series of questions by the teacher. The latter mode is a great waste of time, and is unworthy of any school-room in Nova Scotia. Not long since we heard a specimen of parsing that was after the fashion too much in vogue. Here it is:—*Teacher*—Parse conscience. *Pupil*—It's a noun. *Teacher*—What kind of a noun? *Pupil*—Common noun. *Teacher*—What case is it? *Pupil*—Nominative case. *Teacher*—What is it the nominative to? *Pupil*—To "will make." *Teacher*—What gender is it? *Pupil*—Neuter gender. *Teacher*—What number is it? *Pupil*—Singular number. *Teacher*—What person is it? *Pupil*—Third person. *Teacher*—Give the rule? *Pupil*—The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Both teacher and pupil seemed well satisfied with this wo.. y process. To us it appeared the last of all exercises to stimulate thought and secure its adequate expression. Let order obtain; let the teacher put upon the blackboard his form, and ever after require his pupils rigidly to adhere to it. Then there would be some hope that the pupil would use his own powers, and not be forever hopping from point to point upon crutches so inconsiderately afforded him by the teacher. There are plenty of schools where children have been parsing for a year, and yet if asked to parse a noun, they would be thrown into confusion if the teacher did not prop them up with questions. Let every pupil be required to parse his word—to parse it right through from beginning to end according to an established order, without requiring to be waited upon every instant with a question. In order to aid those who believe n doing the most work in the shortest time, and who would like to see an exemplification of the model recommended by the Council, we subjoin the following:

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

1. Class (of words).
2. Sub-class.
3. Number.
4. Person.
5. Gender.
6. Case.
7. Syntax.
8. Rule.

EXAMPLES.—*Victoria* wears a *crown*. I, *Sophocles*, received the prize. The King lost *his* spaniel. James sold the book *which he* bought.

Victoria—

1. A Noun.
2. Proper.
3. Singular.
4. Third.
5. Feminine.
6. Nominative.
7. The subject of *wears*.
8. The subject of a finite verb is in the Nom. case.

Crown—

1. A Noun.
2. Common.
3. Singular.
4. Third.
5. Neuter.
6. Objective.
7. The object of *wears*.
8. The object of a verb is in the Objective case.

Sophocles—

1. A Noun.
2. Proper.
3. Singular.
4. First.
5. Masculine.
6. Nominative.
7. It identifies and emphasizes *I*.
8. A noun or pronoun used to identify and emphasize another noun or pronoun, agrees with it in Number, Person and Case.

His—

1. A Pronoun.
2. Personal.
3. Singular.
4. Third.
5. Masculine.
6. Possessive.
7. It refers to king; and expresses *possession*.
8. A Pronoun agrees with the word to which it refers, in Number, Person and Gender. A Noun or Pronoun expressing possession, source or kind, is in the Possessive case.

Which—

1. A Pronoun.
2. Relative.
3. Singular.
4. Third.
5. Neuter.
6. Objective.
7. It refers to *book*; and is the object of *bought*.
8. A Pronoun agrees with the word to which it refers, in Number, Person and Gender. The object of a verb *is* in the Objective case.

He—

1. A Pronoun.
2. Personal.
3. Singular.
4. Third.
5. Masculine.
6. Nominative.
7. It refers to *James*; and is the subject of *bought*.
8. A Pronoun agrees &c. The subject of a finite verb is in the Nom. case.

VERBS.

1. Class.
2. Sub-class.
3. Principal Parts.
4. Voice.
5. Mood.
6. Tense.
*7. Number.
*8. Person.
9. Syntax.
10. Rule.

* In the case of Infinitives and Participles 7 and 8 will be omitted.

EXAMPLES.—He *struck* them. They *ran* away. They *were cautioned* by him. Strive *to help* all. He saw the man *lying* there.

Struck—

1. A Verb.
2. Transitive—Strong Conjugation.
3. *Strike, struck, stricken* or *struck*.
4. Active.
5. Indicative.
6. Past.
7. Singular.
8. Third.
9. Agreeing with its subject, *He*.
10. The number and person of a Verb are the same as the number and person of its subject.

Ran—

1. A Verb.
2. Intransitive—Strong Conjugation.
3. *Run, ran, run*.
4. Active.
5. Indicative.
6. Past.
7. Plural.
8. Third.
9. Agreeing with its subject, *They*.
10. The number and person of a verb are the same as the number and person of its subject.

Were cautioned—

1. A Verb.
2. Transitive—Weak Conjugation.
3. *Caution, cautioned, cautioned*.
4. Passive.
5. Indicative.
6. Past.
7. Plural.
8. Third.
9. Agreeing with its subject, *They*.
10. The number and person of a verb are the same as the number and person of its subject.

To help—
1. A Verb.
2. Transitive—Weak Conjugation.
3. *Help, helped, helped.*
4. Active.
5. Infinitive.
6. Present.
9. Completing the finite verb *strive.*
10. A verb in the Infinitive Mood depends upon the finite verb of which it is the complement.

Lying—
1. A Verb.
2. Intransitive—Strong Conjugation.
3. *Lie, lay, lain.*
4. Active.
5. Participle.
6. Present
9. Depending on and qualifying *man*
10. Participles may be used as adjectives.

ADJECTIVES.

1. Class.
2. Sub-class.
3. (Degree). [Number].
4. (Comparison.)
5. Syntax.
6. Rule.

Adjectives of Quality are compared; *much, many, little,* and a few others of Quantity, are also inflected for comparison. The only Adjectives that are inflected for Number are *this* and *that.*

EXAMPLES.—*Red* stones. *Four* men. The *fourth* man. *Many* plants. *Each* word. *An* apple. *The* law. *This* pen. *Those* papers.

Red—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Quality.
3. Positive.
4. *Red, redder, reddest.*
5. It qualifies *stones.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

Four—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Quantity—Cardinal.
5. It qualifies *men.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

Fourth—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Quantity—Ordinal.
5. It qualifies *man.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

Many—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Quantity—Indefinite.
3. Positive.
4. *Many* (much), *more, most.*
5. It qualifies *plants.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

Each—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Quantity—Distributive.
5. It qualifies *word.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

An (or a.)—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Distinction.
5. It qualifies *apple.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

The—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Distinction.
5. It qualifies *law.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

This—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Distinction.
3. Singular—of *this, these.*
5. Agreeing in number with and qualifying *pen.*
6. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

Those—
1. An Adjective.
2. Of Distinction.
3. Plural—of *that, those.*
5. Agreeing in number with and qualifying *papers.*
6 Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns.

ADVERBS.

1. Class.
2. Sub-class.
3. (Degree).
4. (Comparison).
5. Syntax.
6. Rule.

EXAMPLES.—He *often* came. Study *diligently.* Look *there.* He spoke *well.*

Often—
1. An Adverb.
2. Of Time (how often).
3. Positive.
4. *Often, oftener, oftenest.*
5. It qualifies *came.*
6. Adverbs qualify verbs chiefly—more rarely, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.

Diligently—
1. An Adverb.
2. Of Manner.
3. Positive.
4. *Diligently, more diligently, most diligently.*
5. It qualifies *study.*
6. Adverbs qualify verbs, &c.

There—
1. An Adverb.
2. Of Place (where).
5. It qualifies *look.*
6. Adverbs qualify verbs, &c.

Well—
1. An Adverb.
2. Of Manner.
5. It qualifies *spoke.*
6. Adverbs, qualify verbs, &c.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. Class.
2. Syntax.
3. Rule of Syntax.

EXAMPLES.—A man *of* strength. A horse *of* the duke's. Half *of* the journey. He was born *in* 1800, and died *at* 35. He was born *in* London and died *at* Calcutta He was born *in* poverey and died *with* hope. He died *of* fever. He was born *to* trouble.

Of—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *man* and *strength*—the relation of QUALITY.
3. Prepositions express the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

Of—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *horse* and *duke*—the relation of POSSESSION.
3. Prepositions express the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

Of—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *half* and *journey*—a partitive relation.
3. Prepositions express the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

In—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *was born* and 1800—the relation of TIME.
3. Prepositions express the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

At—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *died* and 35—the relation of TIME.
3. Rule.

In—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *was born* and *London*—the relation of PLACE.
3. Rule.

At—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *died* and *Calcutta*—the relation of PLACE.
3. Rule.

In—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *was born* and *poverty*—the relation of MANNER.
3. Rule.

With—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *died* and *hope*—the relation of MANNER.
3. Rule.

Of—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *died* and *fever*—the relation of CAUSE.
3. Rule.

To—
1. A Preposition.
2. It relates *was born* and *trouble*—the relation of CAUSE (final).
3. Rule.

CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Class.
2. Sub-class.
3. Syntax.
4. Rule.

EXAMPLES.—The snow was deep *and* the wind was high. You may do it *or* not. I have cut my finger; *therefore* I cannot write. He speaks so low *that* he cannot be heard. I shall go *when* you come. I will take some, *if* you please.

And—
1. A Conjunction.
2. Co-ordinative—Copulative.
3. It connects the two assertions, and their meaning.
4. Co-ordinative Conjunctions connect clauses of equal value.

Or—
1. A Conjunction.
2. Co-ordinative—Alternative.
3. It connects the two assertions, while expressing separation as to their meaning.
4. Co-ordinative Conjunctions connect clauses of equal value.

Therefore—
1. A Conjunction.
2. Co-ordinative—Causative.
3. It connects the two statements in the relation of cause and effect.
4. Co-ordinative Conjunctions connect clauses of equal value.

That—
1. A Conjunction.
2. Subordinative.
3. It connects the two statements in the relation of MANNER, *(effect).*
4. Subordinative Conjunctions connect a subordinate with a superior clause.

When—
1. A Conjunction.
2. Subordinative.
3. It connects the two statements in the relation of TIME.
4. Subordinative Conjunctions connect a subordinate with a superior clause.

If—
1. A Conjunction.
2. Subordinative.
3. It connects the two assertions, and conditions the former.
4. Subordinative Conjunctions connect a subordinate with a superior clause.

INTERJECTIONS.

1. Class.
2. Sub-class.

EXAMPLES.—*Alas!* man was made in vain. *Oh!* what days are these. *Hush!* let not a breath escape you.

Alas! Oh!—
1. An Interjection.
2. Reflective,—expressing a feeling confined to the mind of the speaker.

Hush—
1. An Interjection.
2. Imperative,—expressing a command, or wish with reference to something apart from the speaker.

NUMBER.

A COURSE OF LESSONS PREPARATORY TO THE USE OF A TEXT-BOOK ON ARITHMETIC.

IV.

SECOND STEP.

NOTATION.

HITHERTO the several numbers have been represented to the eye solely by objects or strokes; the expression of the higher numbers by these means will already have become inconvenient. The pupil must now be introduced to the more simple and practical method afforded by the Arabic* numerals.

Object.—1. To make evident the need of some brief and ready method of expressing the value of numbers in writing; to teach the form and power of the ten numeric signs, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0.

2. To make the children familiar with the meaning of the words *more* and *less*,† with the algebraic signs + and —, as respectively expressive of the operations of addition and subtraction; and also with the sign = as expressive of equality or result.

Plan.—This, as it regards carrying out the first object, will be gathered from the following suggestions to the teacher:

1. In order to illustrate the need for the use of figures in expressing to the eye the value of numbers, let the children suppose a case in which it is required to state some high number in writing; as, for instance, the age of an old man. They will at once see that the doing this by means of strokes would occupy so much time and space as to be most inconvenient, and that to avoid this must be most desirous. Various illustrations will suggest themselves.

When the perception of the want has been awakened, the teacher may communicate the numeric value of the several numeral characters by means of groups of strokes, each group having written over it the figure which has been adopted as its unvarying symbol; thus:

1 2 3 4

| | | | | | | | | | |

This should be carried as far as the number *nine*.

When these groups of strokes and their representative figures have been thoroughly scrutinized, the children should be led on to apply them for themselves. The teacher may write any one of the figures on the slate, and require a child to place against it the number of strokes or units it represents, while the other children of the class determine whether this is correctly done. To vary the exercise, the teacher may make any definite number of strokes, not exceeding *nine*, upon the slate, and require the children to apply the right numeric sign; or, for variety, the teacher may present a definite number of objects, requiring the children to express the number, both by the utterance of the name of the number, and by the formation of the corresponding figure on the slate. They ought to acquire familiarity with the nine numerals in two lessons.‡

2. The children having acquired the knowledge of nine figures by which the nine lowest numbers are briefly expressed for convenience of calculation, may now be led to see that the word *two* and the sign 2, the word *three* and the sign 3, &c., have an unchangeable, or *absolute* value, which may be used to qualify any objects whatever; so that we may say, two elephants or three elephants, two flies or three flies, two ones or three ones; the number being always the same number, however different the objects to which it is applied.

3. The teacher may now introduce the words *more* and *less*, and the algebraic signs of addition, subtraction, and equality or result. First, let the teacher write a column of numbers to be added, on the school slate. This may be done in different modes:

1 and 1 are 2	1 more 1 are 2
2 and 1 are 3	2 more 1 are 3
3 and 1 are 4	3 more 1 are 4
&c.	&c.

Then let the teacher write on the slate the same numbers as before, connecting them by the signs of addition and equality, as in the margin; or the words may be erased, and the signs substituted. The sign + should not be made in a careless manner, and attention should be called to the fact that the one line is exactly vertical, the other exactly horizontal, in order that this sign may be the better distinguished when that which indicates multiplication is hereafter presented.

1 + 1 = 2
2 + 1 = 3
3 + 1 = 4
4 + 1 = 5

* They are, in fact, Indian in their origin, though we have received them through the Arabians.

† If the children are advanced, the Latin words *plus*, for more, and *minus*, for less, may also be taught.

‡ It would be a useful lesson for the children themselves to make the figures indicating opposite to each of them, by the proper number of strokes, the number of units it expresses.

The process is the same with the sign of subtraction, columns of some length being first constructed, with the use of words, afterward exhibiting the superior simplicity and utility of the signs:

2 less 1 is 1	2 — 1 = 1
3 less 1 are 2	3 — 1 = 2
4 less 1 are 3	4 — 1 = 3
5 less 1 are 4	5 — 1 = 4

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NUMBERS ELEVEN TO ONE HUNDRED, AND THE EXTENSION OF NOTATION.

Object.—This Step is but an extension to higher numbers of the principles already laid down, and the extension of the power of numeric notation to the expression of such numbers.

To explain the nature of the *local* value of figures, as distinguished from their *absolute* value.

Plan.—I. Develop the perception of the numbers eleven to one hundred, on the plan proposed in the development of the numbers one to nine, tangible or visible objects being still used with the lower numbers. The number ten should be much employed as a means of classification, and as a help both to the eye and to the mind in the comprehension of the higher numbers.

Teach the children to enumerate simply by combinations of tens and units before using the common contractions; for example, saying after 10, one ten and one, one ten and two, &c., up to one ten and nine; then two tens and one, two tens and two, &c., up to nine tens and nine; thus learning the meaning of the terms, *fourteen*, *twenty-one*, and being enabled to see more clearly the plan of numbering by ten, and that the highest number is merely a repetion of ten units.

II. Communicate the names of each of these numbers, and test the children's attainments as already recommended and illustrated, concluding with simple ascending and descending enumeration.

III. Illustrate the powers and names of these numbers when used as ordinals.

IV. When a clear perception of such numbers has been attained, the children may be introduced to the effort of expressing them in numerals. To do this, they must be led to see the necessity for changing the numerals in the second, or tens' place of figures from 1 and 2, as hitherto used in the numbers 11, 12, and in 21, 22, &c.; to 3, in 31, 32, 33, &c.; to 4, in 41, 42, 43, &c.; up to 99.

This subject is important, not at this stage of instruction only, but throughout the whole range of number. It introduces the mind to the perception of a new feature in numerical *notation*—that of the *local value* of the ten figures (inclusive of 0, which indicates the absence of number); for it is to these *figures* or signs alone, and not the *names* of numbers, that this property of local value belongs.

In the first place, lead the children to feel the need of some brief mode of expressing the value of numbers more than 9.

To do this, the teacher may once more form groups of strokes on the slate, from one to ten, requiring a child to place over each stroke or group of strokes its representative numeral. This will be easy as far as 9. When the child has reached the group containing ten strokes, and is at a loss for a numeral by which to express it, the teacher may communicate the fact that only nine numeral characters (exclusive of 0) have been invented for the written expression of all numbers, how large soever they may be.

Having reached this point, the mind of the children should be led to think out this fact of local value. With a view to this, the teacher may draw two columns on the school slate and write at the top of each of them the name of some familiar object, as in the margin; telling the children to call the column on the right the *first* column,* that on the left the *second*. Any numeral say 4, may then be written in the first column. What does it mean? It means *four* of boys. What would it mean if written in the *second* column? It would then mean four of *men*. Write 3 in the first column, 8 in the second. How will you read these figures? *Eight* of men and *three* of boys. Transpose them and how will you read them now? Three of *men* and eight of *boys*. Diversify both names and numbers for further exercise.

MEN.	BOYS.

Again, draw two columns on the slate, and at the top of the first column, write "ones," at the top of the second "tens," as in the margin. Place the numeral 1 in the first column. What does it mean? It means one *one*, or one unit. Remove it to the next column. What does it mean now? Now it means one ten. Write the same numeral in both columns. What does it mean now? Now it is one *ten* and one *one*. Have you learnt any name for one ten and one one, or for ten more one? Yes; ten more one is called "*Eleven*." The teacher may then successively change the figure in the *first* column to two. What is it now? One ten and *two*. Its name. *Twelve*. To three. What is it now? One ten and three. Its name. *Thirteen*. And so on to nine. What is it now. One ten and nine. Its name? *Nineteen*.

TENS.	ONES.

* This order is important as a right beginning, the "place of figures" being always enumerated from right to left.

The teacher may now rub out the vertical lines, leaving the words "tens and "ones" still standing as before, with the figures under them, and may ask if the value of the figures is altered at all by removing the lines?

TENS.	ONES.
1	9

Not at all. Why? The *words* still remain to tell the respective value of the figures to be one ten and nine ones, or nine and ten, or nineteen. The words may now be removed also, and the teacher may ask if the children can themselves remember the respective values of the figures? Yes; their relative position indicates this: that figure in the *first* place of figures means nine units or ones; that in the second place of figures means one ten, the whole sum being one ten and nine ones, or nineteen.

The children may now be told that whenever two figures stand side by side thus, that they always bear this relation to each other, and they may be led to see that the value of a figure is increased tenfold by being moved one place to the left.

The children should now be exercised in reading and putting down numbers to ninety-nine.

ROGER ASCHAM'S METHOD OF TEACHING THE CLASSICS.

IT seems to me that the method of teaching the classical languages, now in use, is radically defective, that it obtains absurdly insignificant results for the time and labour expended, that it wastes the advantages of excellent grammars, lexicons and critical editions in which, it has been said, the classical languages are distinguished above all others, and not only everything that is attained, but a great deal more, might be gained by the introduction of a different method of study. I do not propose here to say much about the study of the classics in college. My purpose is rather to speak of elementary instruction. It is proper that at college most of the time given to the classics should be devoted to a critical study of the authors who are read. But in the manner in which students are now prepared, when they ought to be giving their attention to a critical study of the classic authors, they are usually puzzling over elementary difficulties of language, which they ought to have mastered at school. It is absurd that a student who has for six years made an almost daily study of a language, should ever feel a temptation to consult a translation, except for an occasional word, or in some very perplexed passage. If a man in six years cannot attain a certain facility in the use of a language, he must either be mentally deficient, or have studied it on a bad system. Of course he cannot acquire it perfectly, but few people can be said to know perfectly even their vernacular tongue.

It is a matter of wonder how the present system of classical study could ever have come into use, for anything more contrary to the natural principle of learning a language could scarcely be conceived. There can be but one reasonable way of learning a strange language. About the details, men may differ, but the general principle is, that a foreign tongue should be learned in the same way in which we acquire our own. We learn our own language by imitation, so as to use it with fluency, before we know anything of its grammatical structure. Indeed, many college graduates have never read a line on the subject of English grammar; they know what they do about it, only by their acquaintance with the general principles of language acquired in classical study, and might be more easily puzzled by a difficult question in the grammar of their own language, than in that of Greek or Latin. And yet they use their own tongue with fluency and correctness, while in Greek and Latin they have acquired little or no facility. But if it is not easy to see how the present system of classical instruction could have come into use, it is evident that it would be a labour of Hercules to change it. Hume says that men, in general, are governed in their conduct far more by habit than by reason; and this fact, the foundation of all false conservatism, causes a groundless confidence in the value of the present system to be deeply rooted in the minds of many. But it seems to me that the future position of classical study as a part of general education in this country must depend in great measure on the introduction of a different method of teaching, by which people will feel that adequate results are obtained for the time and labour expended. Fortunately, there is enough of good authority for such a change. Milton (quoted in one of the works of which I shall speak below) says: "We do amiss to spend seven or eight years merely in scraping together so much miserable Greek and Latin as might be learned otherwise, easily and delightfully in one year." Nor does he stand alone in this opinion.

Mr. George Long (formerly fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge) holds, in reputation, a place among the foremost of living English scholars. His editions of the classics, translations, and his historical works display the highest qualities of scholarship. There is an additional reason why American students should feel an interest in him. He was in his youth the first professor of the classical languages at the University of Virginia. Jefferson, by whose efforts this institution was established, determined to have only men of the highest talent and attainments that could be got, for the new professors, and he sent abroad to find such. He said that he would have sent to New England, but that the colleges there would, of course, keep their best men for their own professors, and that he did not wish to have the second-rate scholars of New England for the first-rate scholars of Virginia. Mr. Long has given this attention to this subject of elementary classical instruction, and a few years ago published a volume of selections from Cicero to be used on the system which he recommends and describes fully in a preface of thirty-six pages.* He advises a return to the system used by Roger Ascham, the preceptor of Queen Elizabeth, as set forth in his work entitled "The Schoolmaster." A considerable part of Mr. Long's preface consists of quotations from Ascham. In giving an outline of that system, I shall let both, as far as space will allow, speak in their own words.

The first thing to be learned in the system, consists of the various forms of declension and conjugation, and next, "the right joining together of substantives with adjectives, the noun with the verb, the relative with the antecedent." After these are mastered, Ascham says, that the master should read to the scholar, "the Epistles of Cicero gathered together, and chosen out by Sturmius for the capacity of children," in the following way.

"First let him teach the child cheerfully and plainly the cause and matter of the letter; then let him construe it into English, so oft, as the child may easily carry away the understanding of it; lastly, parse it over perfectly. This done thus, let the child by and by, both construe and parse it over again; so that it may appear, that the child doubteth in nothing that his master taught him before. After this, the child must take a paper book, and sitting in some place, where no man shall prompt him, by himself, let him translate into English his former lesson. Then shewing it to his master, let the master take from him his Latin book, and pausing an hour at the least, then let the child translate his own English into Latin again in another paper book. When the child bringeth it turned into Latin, the master must compare it with Tully's book. . . . .

"In these few lines I have wrapped up the most tedious part of grammar, and also the ground of almost all the rules, that are so busily taught by the master, and so hardly learnt by the scholar in all common schools; which after this sort, the master shall teach without all error, and the scholar shall learn without great pain; the master being led by so sure a guide, and the scholar being brought into so plain and easy a way. And therefore we do not contemn rules, but we gladly teach rules, and teach them more plainly, sensibly and orderly, than they be commonly taught in common schools. For when the master shall compare Tully's book with the scholar's translation, let the master at the first lead and teach his scholar to join the rules of his grammar book with the examples of his present lesson, until the scholar by himself be able to fetch out of his grammar every rule for every example, so as the grammar book be ever in the scholar's hand, and also used of him as a dictionary for every present use."

Mr. Long has followed the guidance of Sturmius in selecting epistles of Cicero for the volume of which I speak. Ascham advises that the scholar should go on in this way through the first book of the collection of Sturmius, and a part of a comedy of Terence, and after the scholar has acquired "a ready perfectness in translating," he goes on to say: "Then take this order with him; read daily unto him some book of Tully, as the third book of epistles chosen out by Sturmius, De Amicitia, De Senectute, ... some comedy of Terence, ... Cæsar's commentaries, ... or some orations of T. Livius. . . . .

"These books I would have him now read a great deal at every lecture; for he shall not now use daily translation, but only construe again and parse, where ye suspect is any need; . . . . and for translating, use you yourself every second or third day to choose out some Epistle ad Atticum, some notable commonplace out of his orations, or some other part of Tully by your discretion, which your scholar may not know where to find; and translate it you yourself into plain natural English, and then give it him to translate into Latin again, allowing him good space and time to do it both with diligent heed and good advisement.

"Here his wit shall be new set on work; his judgment, for right choice, truly tried; his memory for sure retaining, better exercised, than by learning anything without the book; and here how much he hath profited shall plainly appear. When he bringeth it translated unto you, bring you forth the place of Tully; lay them together, compare the one with the other; commend his good choice and right placing of words; show his faults gently, but blame them not over sharply. . . . . For here shall all the hard points of grammar, both easily and surely be learned up . . . . —by this way prescribed in this book, being straight, plain and easy, the scholar is always labouring with pleasure, and ever going right on forward with profit, ... for, he hath construed, parsed, twice translated over by good advisement, marked out his six points"—respecting peculiar idioms, phrases, synonyms, and the like—"by skilful judgment, he shall have necessary occasion to read over every lecture a dozen times at the least. . . . . And this oft reading is the very right following of that good counsel which Pliny doth give to his friend Fuscus, saying, 'Multum non multa.' . . . .

"When by this diligent and speedy reading over those forenamed good books of Tully, Terence, Cæsar, and Livy, and by this second kind of translating out of your English, time shall breed skill, and use shall bring perfection; then ye may try, if ye will, your scholar with the third kind of translation: although the two first ways, by mine opinion, be not only sufficient of themselves, but

* M. Tullii Ciceronis Cato Major sive De Senectute, Lælius sive De Amicitia, et Epistolæ Selectæ, with notes and index, by George Long. London. 1857 (published in the series called "Grammar School Classics.")

also surer, both for the master's teaching and scholar's learning, than this third way is."

This third way is for the master to write an English letter or to give the scholar some simple passage from an *English* author, to turn into Latin, taking care to keep within the compass of the scholar's former learning in words and sentences. Ascham adds:

"And now take heed lest your scholar do not better in some point than you yourself, except ye have been diligently exercised in these kinds of translating before.

"I had once a proof hereof, tried by good experience, by a dear friend of mine, when I came first from Cambridge to serve the Queen's Majesty, then Lady Elizabeth, lying at worthy Sir Anthony Deny's, in Chester. John Whitney, a young gentleman, was my bedfellow: who willing by good-nature, and provoked by mine advice, began to learn the Latin tongue after the order declared in this book. We began after Christmas; I read unto him Tully de Amicitia, which he did every day twice translate, out of Latin into English, and out of English into Latin again. About St. Lawrence Tide after, to prove how he profited, I did chuse out Torquatus' talk de Amicitia, in the latter end of the first book De Finibus; because that place was the same in matter, like in words and phrases, nigh to the form and fashion of sentences, as he had learned before in De Amicitia. I did translate it myself into plain English, and gave it him to turn into Latin; which he did so choicely, so orderly, so without any great miss in the hardest points of grammar, that some in seven years in grammar schools, yea, and some in the University too, cannot do half so well."

Ascham afterwards brings forward, as another example:

"Our most noble Queen Elizabeth, who never took yet Greek nor Latin grammar in her hand, after the first declining of a noun and a verb, but only by this double translating of Demosthenes and Isocrates, daily, without missing, every forenoon, and likewise some part of Tully every afternoon; for the space of a year or two, hath attained to such a perfect understanding in both the tongues, *and to such a ready utterance of the Latin, and that with such a* judgment, as they be few in number in both the Universities, or elsewhere in England, that be in both tongues comparable with her Majesty."

Mr. Long says:

"It would be thought a great thing if a teacher could accomplish what Ascham promises; and what, according to his own account, he performed. At present, it cannot be said that children generally do learn either to understand or write the Latin tongue, much less to speak it. The writing and speaking of Latin are indeed not much used, but a great deal of time is spent in trying to understand the Latin tongue, and also to write it; and it is generally agreed that few out of many learn to read a Latin author with ease and profit, and fewer still, to write Latin well. . . . .

"If teachers of Latin knew that language as well as a good teacher of French or any other modern tongue knows his own language, *the teaching of Latin would be comparatively easy.* And yet the usual methods of teaching a modern language are bad, and the amount that is learned is often small for the time and labour; and this, mainly because teachers of foreign languages follow nearly the same methods that are followed in teaching Latin, many of which are bad. A man may wish to learn a foreign language, in order to be able to write it and speak it; but if he will follow no other method than reading, he will never accomplish his object. If he will first acquire the power of writing and speaking a language, he can easily learn to read it. The power of reading or translating a foreign language does not give the power of writing or speaking it, not even in the smallest degree, as all who have tried know by experience. A man may have even a very exact knowledge of a foreign tongue for the purpose of reading and understanding, and yet may be unable to construct a single sentence or to utter a single phrase in conversation, which proves, that to learn to express a foreign language in our own tongue is only learning it under one aspect, and that to express our own language or our own ideas in another tongue is quite a different thing. . . .

"It may be said that this system requires better teachers than the great majority of them who profess to teach. But if a teacher has not knowledge enough to teach on this plan, or some good plan, can he teach on a bad one? Can he teach by the aid of bad exercise books and indifferent helps of all descriptions, and in no other way? If he cannot teach on Ascham's plan, or on some good plan, he cannot teach at all. If it should be said that this method is more troublesome to the teacher, which I deny, the answer is, that he ought to do what he professes. Whether would a man of any sound knowledge, of any taste for learning, however small, rather work at this dull, eternal, unprofitable round of exercises, aids, and helps, or work at the authors themselves, the sole *sources of our knowledge?*

"The clear direct way to an improvement in our classical studies is to abandon the ordinary making of 'Latines'; to adopt Ascham's plan as soon as the boy is prepared for it, and to consider well how he should be so prepared; for that is really the only matter in dispute among good teachers. Further, to abandon all books of exercises which abound in multitudinous rules and fragmentary exercises; to choose as a book of rules to refer a boy to, (for I do not reject generalizations, but only the mode of using them), one which is plain and simple, with plenty of good examples, well translated, whether such book be a grammar, or some well-arranged system of rules with both examples and exercises; and as to the endless niceties and curiosities of a language, to trust to careful reading and a good teacher, for they cannot be learned by rules. If I recommend Ascham's plan, it is not that the boys may learn to write Latin, it is that they may learn to read and understand a *Latin author well.*"

I have now given a general outline of Ascham's plan, with a part of Mr. Long's comments upon it. Any one who takes an interest in the subject will do well to refer directly to Mr. Long's preface and to the "Schoolmaster." The best known edition of this latter work is that edited by James Upton, (London, 1711,) but it may also be found in the new edition of Ascham's complete works, lately published in England.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

THE GILCHRIST SCHOLARSHIP.

WE give below the correspondence announcing the foundation of a scholarship for the Dominion of Canada in connection with the University of London. Steps will be taken to obtain and lay before our readers the syllabus of the matriculation examination of this University.

Downing Street, 23rd August, 1867.

My Lord,—I have the honor to transmit to Your Lordship the enclosed copy of a letter from the Secretary to the Trustees for an Institution called The Gilchrist Educational Trust. I also enclose a printed paper of conditions since issued by the Trustees.

This paper enumerates the Towns at which Candidates approved by the local authorities for the proposed Scholarship may present themselves for examination.

But the name of the Town to be named in New Brunswick is omitted, from a doubt whether it should be Fredericton or Saint John.

I request that you will have the goodness to let me know which of the two would be *most suitable for the public convenience.*

I have, &c.,

(Signed) Buckingham & Chandos.

Governor The Right Hon. Viscount Monck, &c., &c.

GILCHRIST EDUCATIONAL TRUST.

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Messrs. F. J. & G. J. Braikenridge.

University of London, W., 9th April, 1867.

Sir,—By direction of the Trustees of the Gilchrist Educational Trust, I have the honor to place before you the following statement, and to request that it may receive the consideration of the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

The above named Trust has been created under the Will of the late Dr. Gilchrist, "for the benefit, advancement and propagation "of education and learning in every part of the world, as far as "circumstances would permit;" and the Trustees having first made provision according to the accompanying scheme, for the establishment of Scholarships to promote the education of natives of India (with which country Dr. Gilchrist has been particularly associated) in this country, are now prepared to offer a like advantage to the Colonies of Australia and Canada.

With this view the Trustees propose to establish a Scholarship of the value of £100 per annum, the appointment to which should be made yearly in connection with each of the Colonies just named; the Scholarship to be tenable for three years. It is their intention that the Scholar shall follow a curriculum in one of the four Faculties of the University of London, viz., Arts, Science, Law, or Medicine. But they will probably leave him free to reside and study either in London or Edinburgh.

It is the desire of the Trustees that the appointment to these Scholarships shall be made by competitive examination, and that this examination be the matriculation examination of the University *of London, conducted according to the plan which has been* successfully carried out in the case of the Royal College, Mauritius, the papers being sent out through the Colonial Office to Sub-Examiners nominated by the local authorities; and the answers of the Candidates being returned through the same channel to be reviewed in this country.

And it is their hope, that for the promotion of an object which will prove (it may be anticipated) highly advantageous to the Colonies they design to benefit, Her Majesty's Government may be willing to co-operate with them, by moving the Senate of the University of London to extend their examination system to the capitals of the Australian and Canadian Colonies, and by guaranteeing the requisite facilities. I have reason to believe that others

besides candidates for these Scholarships will be glad to avail themselves of such an opportunity of matriculating in the University of London. I have, &c.,

(Signed) W. B. CARPENTER.

Sir F. Rogers, Bart., &c., &c.

Conditions for Scholarships instituted by the Gilchrist Educational Trust for the benefit of Youths residing in the Dominion of Canada.

A Scholarship of the value of £100 per annum, and tenable for three years, will be annually awarded to a candidate resident in the Dominion of Canada, who shall become eligible by competitive examination, and shall be desirous of prosecuting a further course of Academical study in Great Britain, under the following conditions:—

1. Every candidate shall either be a native of the Dominion of Canada, or shall have resided there for five years immediately preceding the examination.

2. Every candidate must furnish proof satisfactory to the local authorities, that he has completed his sixteenth year, and that his age does not exceed 22 years.

3. Every candidate must furnish proof satisfactory to the local authorities, that in regard to personal character he is qualified to be admittted to competition for a Scholarship.

4. Candidates, approved by the local authorities, shall present themselves at the Midsummer Matriculation Examination of the University of London, which will be held simultaneously in Quebec, Montreal, Kingston, Toronto, Ottawa, Halifax, and a Town to be hereafter named in New Brunswick, commencing on the last Monday in June, under the direction of Sub-Examiners appointed by the Governor of the Dominion of Canada.

5. The answers of the candidates, approved as aforesaid, will be forwarded, through the Colonial Office, to the Registrar of the University, who will cause them to be reviewed by the examiners, and who will draw up the report of the results of the examination; and the Scholarship shall be awarded to the candidate who shall come out highest at that examination, provided that he pass either in the honours or in the first division.

6. The award of the examiners shall be transmitted forthwith by the Secretary of the Gilchrist Trust, through the Colonial Office, to the local authorities in the Colonial capitals, to be by them announced to the candidates.

7. The successful candidate will be expected to arrive in London, and to present himself to the Secretary of the Gilchrist Trust, not later than the first week in the October following his appointment.

8. Each scholar shall be allowed an option as to place of study between the University of Edinburgh, and University College, London; but he shall be expected to pursue his studies with a view to graduation in one of the four faculties of the University of London.

9. Each Scholarship shall be considered as commencing from the 1st of July following the award of the examiners; and shall be paid in quarterly instalments on the first days of October, January, April, and July.

10. Each scholar shall attend in every session at least three courses of lectures at the institution in which he studies, and shall transmit to the Secretary of the Gilchrist Trust, at the conclusion of each session, a certificate from each of the Professors whose lectures he has attended, stating that his diligence and conduct have been satisfactory. Should he not be able to produce such a certificate, or should he be proved guilty of discreditable conduct elsewhere, he shall be considered to have forfeited all claim to the remaining instalments of his Scholarship.

11. Each scholar will be expected to present himself at the first examination in one of the four faculties of the University of London—Arts, Sciences, Law, or Medicine—before the termination of the second (Academical) year* from the commencement of his Scholarship, unless excused from doing so by the Trustees; and if he do not so present himself, (unless by permission of the Trustees), or if he fail to pass, he shall be considered as forfeiting his claim to the remaining instalments of his Scholarship. After having passed the first examination, he will be expected to pursue his studies with a view to presenting himself at the second examination within two (Academical) years.

12. The foregoing scheme shall be subject to revision from time to time; the Trustees reserving to themselves the power of altering the conditions of the Scholarships, or of altogether withdrawing them, if they deem it expedient to do either. But no change will be made in such a manner as to effect the interests of candidates already appointed to Scholarships, or in any case, without twelve months' notice.

THE RIGHT HON. R. LOWE, M.P., ON EDUCATION.

THE opening address of the session 1867-8 of the Philosophical Institution was delivered in the Music Hall, Edinburgh, by the Right Hon. Robert Lowe, M.P. The subject of the address was "Education: Primary and Classical," and the hall was crowded by a large and brilliant assemblage. The right hon. gentleman, on appearing on the platform, was greeted with loud and prolonged cheering. At the front of the platform were seated a select party of ladies, including Mrs. Lowe. The chair was occupied by Mr. Smith, president of the institution, and amongst the other gentlemen on the platform were—The Lord Provost, Sir William Stirling-Maxwell, the Lord Advocate, Lord Dunfermline, Lord Airlie, Lord Ardmillan, Lord Ormidale, Sir James Y. Simpson, Bart.; Sir James Lacaita, Dr. Hanna, Dr. W. F. Collier, Dr. Donaldson, Dr. John Muir, Dr. W. A. Browne, Dr. Aitken, Dr. Littlejohn, Professors Masson, Sellar, Blaikie, Lyon Playfair, Allman, and Balfour; Messrs. D. M'Laren, M.P.; Adam Black, Charles Cowan, William Smith, Maurice Lothian, Carruthers of the *Inverness Courier*, J. Richardson, G. Harrison, W. Brodie, R.S.A.; James Drummond, R.S.A.; Samuel Raleigh, Keith Johnston, J. Campbell Smith, R. Horn, T. Ivory, Mossman, Blackadder, Law, Auchie, Balfour, C.A. E. Baxter, J. Gardner, S.S.C.; Cotton, S.S.C.; Robert Cox, W. S.; J. T. Gibson-Craig, W. S.; L. Kennedy, W.S.; Thomson, C. E.; Dymock, J. T, Brown, J. A. Fullerton, J. M. Macandrew, J. F. Rodger, J. Gordon, &c.

The CHAIRMAN said—Ladies and gentlemen, I have great satisfaction in introducing to you the right hon. gentleman, who has kindly consented to open the present session. I know that this introduction is a mere matter of formality, because you are all acquainted with Mr. Lowe already as one of the most distinguished ornaments of the British House of Commons. (Applause.) You know him also as one who, both in his private capacity and as a Minister of the Crown, has bestowed great time and attention to the great subject of public education. (Applause.) That subject he has chosen for his theme to night, and I hope he will speak to us frankly and openly, both as to our merits and demerits in regard to it, and more especially the latter. Mr. Lowe's high talents, and the extensive knowledge which he has of the subject upon which he is to speak, well entitle him to that earnest and respectful attention which, I am sure, he will receive from this audience. And therefore, without further preface, I beg leave to introduce him. (Applause.)

Mr. LOWE, after the cheering with which he was received had subsided, said—Ladies and Gentlemen,—Your chairman has informed you that the subject I am to bring before you to-night is that of education—I may add of education considered in its relation to the State. It is a subject of infinite importance. It is the question of the day. It is a matter of great difficulty, and on which there is great diversity of opinion. I have not come here to seek popularity. I have not come here merely to say what may be agreeable to this audience. I have come here to tell you the result of some experience and much reflection on this subject, and if I say anything disagreeable I do so in discharge of my duty, and hope you will kindly excuse me, and not take offence at what I may say. (Cheers.) I have much to say, and I am anxious not to trespass on your patience, and therefore I will without further preface address myself to the subject of education. The question naturally divides itself into two branches—the education of the poor, or primary education, and the education of the middle and upper classes. I have a word to say on each, and I will first apply myself to that which to me appears of the greatest consequence, the education of the poor; and be it remembered I am speaking of the education of the poor so far as it is connected with the State. We have had for many years a system of State aided education, and without wearying you with the general outlines of that system, I think we can infer, from what has been already done, that certain principles are pretty well agreed upon and established amongst us all. I will not waste your time in demonstrating principles which are indisputable. It is agreed on all hands that the education of the poor is a matter not to be left wholly to private enterprise, but that it is the duty of the State—I do not say at this moment to what extent, but I think after the State for twenty years has been giving aid to education it would be too late to argue that the State had no duty, no care in the matter. (Hear, hear.) Then I think we are at liberty to infer also that the State represents in education not the religious but the secular element. The plan now pursued is to entrust the management of schools to people generally actuated by strong religious feelings in favour of some particular sect, and then the State assists it, stipulating in return for a certain amount of secular education. The inspectors who go out owe a sort of divided allegiance. They are servants of the State, ascertaining the amount of secular education, and they are the servants of the religious parties, so far as they examine into religious matters. The effect of the present system of education is, that it deals with the secular part of popular education. The third principle, which I think I may also say has been established, is, that the best way of carrying on education is not to have a centralized department through which the whole shall be managed, or leave it wholly to local energy; but that the best way is to combine these two—to call in local agency to carry on the process of education, reserving to the Government the duty of superintending and testing the education. That is a mixtnre of local and State influence. That is the third principle. The fourth principle is, that it is the duty of the State above all things to test and ascertain the nature of the education that is given—that it is not right to leave to the persons who give instruction the power of testing their own work. I think that a fifth principle I may take for granted is this—that when the State gives aid to schools it ought not to give it to schools merely

* Thus a candidate whose Scholarship commences on the 1st of July, 1868, would be considered as having fulfilled this condition, if he pass the first LL. B. Examination in January, 1870; or the first B.A., the first B Sc., or the Preliminary Scientific M.B Examination, in July, 1870.

for being in existence, or for having on their books a certain number of scholars, or a certain amount of attendance, but that it ought to be given for a certain amount of efficiency. The State's business is to ascertain results and pay in proportion to those results. (Hear, hear.) These are the five principles which I think may be taken as agreed upon with regard to education, and therefore I shall say no more on that point, but proceed to where the disputable matter begins, and that is, when we come to consider what is the precise duty of the State with regard to the communication of instructions. Now, of course, there are many different opinions on this subject. For instance, Plato thought so very highly of the duties of the State on this subject, that he would not trust any parent with the education of his own child, and in order that the parent might not interfere with the education of his own child, he took precautions which I need not now dilate upon that no parent should know his own child and no child his own father. (Laughter.) I think we need not go quite so far as that. I do not think it is necessary, in order to educate the people, to do as Plato wanted to do—to destroy the institution of the family, round which all the other institutions of this country group and cluster themselves. But I think that in the main—though he may have carried his principle a little too far—Plato was right. He regarded the education of the youth as the primary duty of the State. He did not put it as a duty to be taken up after other duties were discharged, but as assisting other duties. He said that persons who were well educated would be able to govern themselves—that every man putting a restraint on himself would require nothing to keep him in the path of duty. I do not go so far as that, because it was said of small communities, but I say that the education of the people is as much a part of the duty of the State as the making of laws, the administration of foreign affairs, of the army, and navy, and police; and the Government is no more excusable for neglecting that than they would be, for instance, in neglecting the protection of personal property, the maintenance of the national honour abroad, or making such laws as are demonstrably necessary for the welfare of the subject. (Cheers.) That is the principle from which I start; and now let us see how far we come up to it. I am sorry to say that the existing system falls very short of that principle, because the existing system in England that Government shall admit its duty, but not occupy the position enabling it to do its duty. The initiative is not with the Government. We have no minister of Education. The initative is given to private individuals. The Government cannot create a school where it is wanted; all they can do is to assist it. The consequence is that, as money is generally forthcoming in those places where education is most abundant, the Government gives assistance where it is least wanted, and withholds it where it is most wanted. That is the cardinal defect of the system, and inherent in its very nature, because a system being based on religious feeling necessarily implies a voluntary system, for it is manifest that you cannot create religious zeal and feeling by Act of Parliament, but can only act upon it where it exists and is willing to put itself in motion. So long as the system exists, the Government must follow the will of private persons, and the Government must therefore stand with folded arms while the masses of the population are growing up in vice and ignorance from want of that assistance which is being lavished on places where there is often quite enough money to support schools without Government assistance. That is a very serious defect, and, theoretically, nothing can be more objectionable. But I confess had it not been for recent occurrences I would have been disposed, defective as the system is, not to meddle with it; because it is impossible to supplement the system without destroying the voluntary principle on which we rely. Since it is manifest that if, by witholding contributions, people can get what they want, we are giving a premium upon those who do not contribute. Also, it is not to be concealed that this system, though partial, is one of great efficiency, and I think it may compare favourably with any system in the world. In America the State makes grants for the purposes of education to assist townships, but the grant is not given in the least with regard to any system of inspection. Examination, as practised under the Revised Code in England—and I sincerely hope soon in Scotland also—is totally unknown, so that money given in assistance to schools is granted without any test of their efficiency. I must also say that that system has another recommendation. It is homogeneous with the habits and feelings of the people, and especially in the country districts of these islands; and it enlists in its support the best local agency which can be found—the gentlemen and clergymen of the parish. For these reasons, among others, I should always have been unwilling to meddle with the system. It is an existing thing; and to alter it would imply, I have no doubt, a considerable sacrifice of efficiency, and a great dislocation of energy and effort. But we have now arrived at a time when we ought no longer to deliberate on this question. I will not go into political matters; but we are all of us aware that the Government of the country—the voice-potential in the Government—is now placed in the hands of persons in a lower position of life than has hitherto been the case. Now, it is not merely desirable, it is all-important and essential, for the preservation of the institutions of this country, that those persons should be able, properly and intelligently, to discharge the duties entrusted to them. (Cheers.) Even assuming that those persons who have been enfranchised possess that knowledge which is necessary, I say we require a much better guarantee than we at present possess that those persons who come after them shall possess that knowlego also—(hear, hear)—and if they do not possess it, as I fear will be the fact in very many cases, there is nothing we ought not to do; there is no effort we ought not to make; there is no sacrifice, either of money or of prejudice and feeling, which we ought not to submit to, rather than allow a generation in whose hands are placed the destinies of us all to grow up in ignorance. (Cheers.) Therefore, gentlemen, though I should have been very glad to have allowed this system to have gone on extending itself quietly and peacefully and unostentatiously, as it has hitherto been doing, I am firmly of opinion that the time has arrived when it is our duty to vindicate for the State its real function in this matter—that it is our duty to place the State, not as the handmaid or follower of private enterprise, but as the representative of the whole community, having a vital interest in the education of every one of its members. And I wish to submit to you what I consider would be the fitting outlines of a plan by which this should be carried out. I cannot do justice—indeed, I could not, without travelling into considerations that trench upon politics, do justice to the importance which I attach to this. It is a thing which must be done, and done immediately. We cannot suffer any large number of our citizens, now that they have obtained the right to influence the destinies of the country, to remain uneducated. It has been a great evil that they have so long remained in that condition—it was an evil, a reproach, and a moral stigma upon us, but now it is something more; it is a question of self-preservation—a question of existence or the non-existence of our Constitution. (Cheers.) And, if Parliament does not deal with the matter with a strong and a determined hand, so as to provide some measures whereby the means of education may be placed within the reach of all the citizens of the country, I say Parliament will be wanting in the performance of its duty; and upon those who delay or prevent the passing of such a measure will rest a responsibility the very vastest that mortal man can possibly bear. (Hear, hear.) Some time ago, my friend, Mr. Bruce, had a scheme which was a very good one, and which I should most willingly have supported. It permitted persons to tax themselves for the purposes of education, but in the emergency in which we are now placed, I consider that not nearly sufficient. We must go much farther, and do considerably more, in my opinion, than merely permitting. We must compel, and insist by some means that education shall become general in this country. We must carry out the great scheme of the Reformers of Scotland when they placed a school in every parish in the country. (Cheers.) I will now show you, as far I can, how that can best be obtained. I think the first sacrifice that the advocates and friends of the present system must be called upon to make is that we must give up denominational inspection. (Loud cheers.) I think the State will have to confine itself altogether to the secular part of education, and give up that joint partnership which has hitherto existed with the different religious bodies. (Cheers.) You will see in a moment why I am so anxious to put this in the front. The present schools must be made as efficient as possible for all classes of Her Majesty's subjects, and that the people should not be called upon by the State to give money unless what is called the "conscience clause" is introduced, so that persons of all denominations should not have to pay if anything is done which would trench upon or violate their religious opinions. (Hear, hear.) These things being premised, I would say this to the State—Commence an educational survey of these islands. Do not wait for the people to come to you and say they want some of the public money for educational purposes; but with the system of inspection which you have already organised, commence an educational survey in Great Britain, district by district, parish by parish. Get at the number of schools and the number of children in every parish, and then let a report be sent to the Privy Council of the educational wants of each parish, and of what is required to be done to place within the reach of the people a sufficient means of education. When that has been done, it should be the duty of the Privy Council to give notice to a parish that they should found a school, or whatever may be wanted, for their purposes. If the parish should found a school, I think it would be the duty of the Privy Council to assist it in the same way in which they assist many schools now. I ought also to say that we ought not to disturb schools which are already existing, except that we ought to provide that they must submit to an undenominational inspection, and the provision of having the conscience clauses. If the parish does not agree to what is done, then I think there ought to be a power vested in the Privy Council, or the Secretary of State, or some other responsible officer, to make compulsory upon them a rate for the support of the school, and the school should be entitled to the same inspection, examination, and assistance, as in the case of the schools now in existence. This simple machinery would, in a short time, alter the whole face of education, and place it within the reach of every one of the Queen's subjects, and then, and not until then, would it be right to talk of compulsory education. There is nothing more unjust or unfair than to punish a child for its not being educated—to say that a man shall not employ a child which has not been educated, when the State has not taken the pains of placing that child within the reach of education. (Cheers.) That is the outline of what I have to say on this subject, and it resembles in many respects the report of the Commissioners who have been sitting upon Scotch education. That report, so far as an Englishman may be permitted to give an opinion upon it, is founded on sound principles, and characterized by a great deal of good sense; but I hope that in Scotland there will be no delay in the introduction of the revised code. So far as I

am able to judge, and I have had considerable experience on the subject, the Revised Code will have beneficial effects in Scotland, which it has not had in England. It has always appeared to me that the fault of the Scotch schools was that they were rather deficient in school appliances and equipment, and that though the masters were of a very high class, there was a want more or less of assistance in teaching. The masters receive a high salary, but the rest of the school has appeared to me to be less adequately furnished than in England, and I believe the money given to the heritors or managers of the school would be more beneficially expended in providing more assistant teaching, than in augmenting the already liberal salaries of the masters. I cannot, however, agree with the view taken by the Commissioners with regard to the children of persons in easier circumstances than are the parents of most of the children sent to these schools. No one, of course, would object that they should send their children to the parish schools in Scotland, and it is a happy symptom of the state of things in a country when such things occur—(hear, hear)—but if those people are able to pay for the schooling of their children, they ought to pay for it, and not take it from the public funds. (Cheers.) I do not think we should do right in taxing the heritors of a parish indiscriminately to educate the children of the rich people who are able to pay for that education themselves. (Cheers.) On this point, I must record my dissent from the Commissioners. I believe this, further, that though I have indicated what I think ought to be done, I am not sanguine in the belief that it will be done. Those who are concerned with the present system will be most urgent in resisting a change, which would trench on their prejudices and feelings, and they may think more of the disturbance of that which has cost them so much care and trouble to establish, than of the larger public views which I have explained. But while these people will be warm and earnest in their resistance to such a change, the friends of education will be comparatively luke-warm. A man acts with very different energy when he strives for that which affects himself, than when he fights the battle of the public at large. (Hear, hear.) I will give you an instance of this. In the colony of Victoria, in Australia, recently, the Attorney-General brought forward a bill to introduce a really national system of education like that I have described. You know that there the Legislature is elected by universal suffrage, and you would suppose that he would have had the strongest element of support from the working people, because the very people for whom he worked were invested with the greatest power in the election of the Legislature. But as soon as he had broached his scheme of education, it was opposed on all hands. The Roman Catholic Bishop entered a formal protest against it; the Bishop of the Church of England entered his protest; all the religious bodies of the colony protested against it. The people for whose benefit it was brought forward were silent and apathetic, the Attorney-General was obliged to withdraw his bill, and the hopes of passing a really efficient educational measure in that colony are indefinitely postponed. I hope I may be wrong in my anticipations, but whether it be carried or not, it is the duty of those who have at heart the good of the country to strain every nerve to get it done, and to free themselves from the responsibilty which is at present imposed upon them. Now, gentlemen, if you will allow me, I will pass from this part of the subject and go on to the second member of it, which was, as I told you, the education of the upper and middle classes. And, first, I will endeavour to explain to you what I conceive to be the object to be aimed at. It seems to me that the form—the abstract idea of education—ought to be to teach a person everything it is important he should know, and at the same time to discipline his mind. And as the period during which it can be communicated is very short, I must qualify that view by saying that the business of education is to teach a person as much of that which it is important he should know as can be done within the limit and with reference to the ordinary faculties of mankind; and also that in doing so care should be taken to discipline the mind of the pupil as far as possible. That is what I conceive to be the object of education. Well, that being so, you see a question arises of very great difficulty. What is it most important that a person should know? Until we can answer the question, we cannot satisfactorily solve the question I am now proposing—What is the education that ought to be given to the upper and middle classes of this country? We must invent for ourselves a sort of new science—a science of weights and measures, and we shall have to put in the scales the different measures of human knowledge, and decide upon the relative importance of each. All knowledge is valuable, there is nothing that is not worth while knowing. But it is a question of relative importance, it is not a question of decrying one kind of knowledge and praising another, but of taking as far as we can the whole cycle of human knowledge, and considering which part ought to be taught first, and to which attention should be most urgently directed. That is a problem of most enormous difficulty. I can suggest only one or two considerations to assist us in solving it. I think it will be admitted by all here present, that as we live in a universe of things, and not of words, a knowledge of things is more important to us than a knowledge of words. (Applause.) The first few months or years of a child's existence are employed in learning both, and a great deal more in making an acquaintance with the union between the two. That is the order which Nature takes in her teaching. She begins with a knowledge of words, and teaches a knowledge of things afterwards. To give an illustration: I think it is more important that a man should know where his liver is situated, than to know what is called *jecur* in Latin and *ἧπαρ* in Greek. I would go a little farther, I think that, where it is a question between true and false, it is more important that we should know what is true than what is false. It is more important to know the history of England than the mythology of Greece and Rome. (Applause.) I think it is more important to know those transactions out of which the present state of political and social problems has arisen, than that we should know the lives of all the gods and goddesses contained in Lempriere's Dictionary. (Laughter and cheers.) Yet, according to my experience—though I hope these things are better managed now—we learned a great deal more of Pagan than of Christian religion at school. While the latter was put off till Sunday, and done in very short time, the former was the work of every day, and attended with enormous trouble, for the slightest slip in the genealogy of the children of Jupiter was followed by personal castigation, which I never remember having been bestowed on any one for a slip in divinity. (Laughter and applause.) Then, gentlemen, I venture to think that, as we cannot teach people everything, it is more important to teach them practical things than speculative things. There must be speculation, and there must be practice, but if we cannot have both we should rather lean to the practical side. It is more important that a man should be able to work out a sum in arithmetic than that he should be acquainted with the abstract form of an argument, as detailed in Aristotle's logic. To be able to work out a syllogism is not so important as the Rule of Three or Practice. (Cheers.) Therefore, if we must choose, I confess I should lean to the practical side. One more rule I venture to submit to you: if we must choose in these matters, the present is more important than the past. The institutions, communities, kingdoms, and countries with which we are daily brought into contact are more important to us than institutions, kingdoms, and communities that have ceased to exist for upwards of 2000 years. (Applause.) I will dwell on the topic no farther, but, having made this general observation as my contribution towards the new science of ponderation or measurement, I am anxious to show that in grappling with this question we must compare one species of knowledge with another, and decide which is most valuable and important. I shall proceed to consider how far the education of the upper and middle classes corresponds with this idea. Without going into detail, I think that the principal education in the Universities—I do not say the Scotch Universities, for you are more liberal here—but at Oxford and Cambridge the subjects of education are just two—analytical mathematics and what are called learned languages, Latin and Greek. Well, no doubt mathematics are a most admirable study, calculated to train the mind to strict habits of reasoning, and to keep up a habit of close and severe attention, but analytical mathematics encourage a man to this kind of proceeding—he takes his conclusion for granted, and then investigates the conditions upon which it rests. Well, that is not a good way of reasoning. (Laughter.) The best way is to take your principles and facts, and then see what conclusion they give you—not to begin at your conclusion and then see what principles and facts you can pick up anywhere in order to support it. Any one who has had the good fortune to go through this study knows that though one understands each step as he goes along, yet the whole eludes his grasp. We find ourselves landed in a conclusion, and though we see each step we have taken, still we do not understand how we have arrived at it. In one respect it is too easy, in another it is too difficult, and involves an immense strain upon the mind

Then you are aware of this also, that perhaps the most useful lesson a man can learn is the estimating of probabilities and the sifting of evidence. But this is excluded wholly from mathematics, which deal purely with necessary truth, and therefore it has been often observed, and by no one more forcibly than Sir William Hamilton, that a mind formed upon this kind of study is very apt to oscillate between the extreme of credulity and the extreme of scepticism, and is seldom trained to take the practical, common sense, reasonable view of probabilities and contingencies of life, far more than any abstract powers of reasoning, success and prosperity in the undertakings of mankind depend. (Cheer.) But this subject is abstract, and I fear must be distasteful to you. I will therefore not follow that part of it farther. These very abstract mathematical studies always seem to me to fall under one of two heads—they either remain foreign to the mind, or they overload and enslave a man's mind so, that he is unable to enter into the ordinary matters of life, and is unfit for anything but the most abstruse speculation. A man is not mainly required for the purpose of calculating very high astronomical problems, and I do not think such a study is the one that best fits a man for the duties of life. To illustrate again: Napoleon employed on one occasion as his minister the greatest mathematician perhaps that ever lived—Laplace, a geometer of the first rank, but his idea of transacting the duties of his office was with reference to the differential and integral calculus. (Laughter.) But to pass on to the other study—that which is the principal occupation of youth—learning the Latin and Greek languages, and the history and geography and mythology connected with them—the chief study being the languages, the rest merely accessories to that. It strikes me, in the first instance, that it is very absurd that education should be devoted mainly to the acquisition of any language whatever. Language is the vehicle of thought, but it is not a substitute or an equivalent for it, it presupposes knowledge of things, and it is only useful, when the knowledge is attained, for the purpose of communicating it. With reference to this point, I shall read a few lines from Pope, much better than anything I can say. It is 140 or 150 years old, but it shows how abuses and mistakes

may be pointed out in the most vigorous language, and with the most conclusive reasoning, and yet remain utterly uncared for;—

> Since man from beastly words is known
> Words are man's province, words we teach alone,
> When reason doubtful, like the Samian letter,
> Points him two ways, the narrower is the better,
> Placed at the door of learning, youth to guide,
> We never suffer it to stand too wide.
> To ask, to guess, to know, as they commence,
> As fancy opens the quick springs of sense,
> We ply the memory, we load the brain,
> Bind rebel wit, and double chain on chain,
> Confine the thought, to exercise the breath
> And keep them in the pale of words till death.

(Applause.) Well then, gentlemen, I think it is quite evident that it is a poor and imperfect conception of education that should limit it to the learning of any language whatsoever. But, surely, if we are to make the acquisition of languages a part of education, it should be the language we are most concerned with, and I must be permitted to say that under my science of ponderation which I propose to establish, I think English has a prior claim to Latin. I do not disparage Latin and Greek; but I speak of what is most important and what ought to be taken first, and I think it is most melancholy the ignorance of their own literature and language in which our best educated of young men are brought up. Latin, of course, is of very great use. It is the only means of obtaining a considerable amount of information which is to be found in that language, and is not to be found elsewere. It has also a noble literature of its own, and is a key to the knowledge of many of the modern languages. Therefore, it is undoubtedly a study of very high importance. and we must always remember that those persons who have been the models of all ages for knowledge of language, and for force, and vigour, and felicity of expression—the Greeks, I meau—knew no language but their own. (Applause) The Romans learned two languages—Latin and Greek—and they learned just enough Greek to make them neglect their Latin; and the consequence was, that their literature is inexpressibly inferior to that of the race that came before them who knew but one language. Well, but, gentlemen, allow that we are to teach Latin and Greek, only see how we set about it! It is no joke to learn Latin and Greek; but it is a joke compared to learning Greek and Latin grammar, as it is called. The grammar is one thing. the language is another; and it is so infinitely more difficult to learn the grammar han the language, than I quite agree with Heine, the German witt —"How fortunate the Romans were that they did not learn the Latin grammar, because if they had done so, they never could have had time to conquer the world." (Laughter and applause) Montaigne, three hundred years ago, saw this, and exposed it most forcibly, pointing out how easy it was to learn Latin colloquially, with very little grammar, and how he, without the lash, and by merely being taught and answering in it, became able in a few years to speak as good and pure Latin as any schoolmaster. But, then, that would not answer the purpose, because it is said you must discipline the mind; and therefore the boy is put through the torture of the grammar, which he is supposed to learn by heart, and every word and syllable of which he forgets before he is twenty years of age. There is a sort of worship inutility in this matter. It seems as if it was thought something very fine to learn something that cannot by any possibility do a man any good—(laughter)

> "The languages, especially the dead—
> All sciences, especially the abstruse—
> The arts, at least all such as could be said
> To be the most remote from common use."

(Laughter.) It is, I think, the idea of the pedantic mind that a thing cannot be good for education, cannot be a good discipline of the mind, unless it is something that will be utterly useless in future life. Now, I do not think so. I take a familiar instance. There is no doubt that Greek is a language of wonderful felicity of expression. But what can be more beautiful, what more refined, what would more exercise the tastes or the faculties of a person than the study of French prose, carried to the perfection to which it is carried by Prevost Paradol, Sainte Beauve, and the great masters of the language? We have nothing that can approach to it in England; we have nothing of the exquisite finish and polish; and if a man wants to exercise his mind in such things, he cannot find a better thing to exercise it in than French prose, only he would have this disadvantage, that when he goes to Paris he would be able to order his dinner at the *café* without squabbling over his bill, and without making himself the laughing-stock of everybody who is there; and therefore he must be put through some discipline in the Greek language, every character of which he is sure to forget before he is thirty years of age. Now, gentlemen, it depends upon what you want to make. If you think the great object of the education of mankind is to make them sophists and poetasters and schoolmasters, no doubt we are going the right way to work: but if you think it is to train them for the business of life, I submit to you, in the words of Sydney Smith, whether we have not had a little too much Latin and Greek If we are to have them, they ought to be taught on a very different system There is nothing more absurd than the attempt to untie knots that have never been tied. If language had been constructed on general rules—if it had been made in this way, that a number of wise men met and laid down a quantity of rules, such as, for instance, that the nominative case should always agree with the verb, and the verb govern the accusative—and if language had been made and modelled on the principles of Euclid—then what had been tied we could have untied, and language having been put together in that way, we should have analysed it into the rules which had been laid down. But language was not made in that way. Language grew, we know not how, like a tree or a plant; and, therefore, when you are trying to resolve that into general rules which never was framed on general rules, you are sowing the sand, you can never hope to do it, and the result is that after one's years have been made miserable by being crammed with these enormous rules of grammer, the exceptions are always as numerous as the rule, and you never know whether the rule applies or not. Well, gentlemen, there is another thing I enter my protest against—and that is, Latin verses. I do not think the history of poets is so prosperous that the end and object of mankind are to be the making of as many young people as possible poets and poetasters. (Laughter.) Probably the worst of all the little follies of society a man can have is that of scribbling verses. And yet, years of our lives are taken up in the attempt to teach us to write Latin verses, which after all, are generally a cento of expressions stolen out of different authors—the very meaning of which one does not understand. I am quite sure I have been highly commended for verses I could not construe myself (Laughter) And this, of course, gives a most unfair predominance to boys who have been taught that, because it is an act so absurd and so repulsive that I believe no one was ever known to acquire it late in life. It is an accomplishment that must be obtained early, if it is to be obtained at all, and I know young men who have been prevented gaining honour for great classical ability because they had never possessed the knack of stringing words together which are called Latin verses. I hope there is a movement going on against it; I do hope, at any rate, that we shall get rid of it. There is another thing almost equally absurd, and that is in learning the language. I consider a man understands a language when he can read with fluency and with ease a good, plain, straightforward author who writes grammatically and sensibly. Well, that is comparatively soon done in Latin and Greek, if that is all that is wanted; but that is not half enough. There is not enough torture in that. It is very simple. But what you must do is this—you must take a passage which is hopelessly corrupt, where the amanuensis has gone to sleep or been tipsy, or dropped a line, or something or other; and you must read two or three pages of notes of all the wisest men that have read this passage, written in bad Latin, with their idea of how it ought to be reformed, and then you must give your opinion on it. I feel certain that if Æschylus should come to life again he would be easily plucked at any Oxford examination in one of his own tragedies; and as for Homer, I am not quite sure if he new the difference between the nominative and accusative case, or had ever heard of a verb. Indeed, the past years of our life are spent in a profitless analysis of those works that were produced by men utterly unconscious of the rules we are endeavouring to elicit from them. Well, gentlemen, I have nothing more to say on that point, and I proceed to another thing which has always struck me very forcibly, and that is the immense period of time given to ancient history. Do not misunderstand me. Ancient history is a very important matter and a very beautiful study, but it is not so important as modern history, and it does not bear so much on our transactions. Consider what it is. Ancient history has two phases—the one is a monarchy, the other is a municipality. The notion of a large community existing by virtue of a popular Government extending beyond the bonds of a single town never entered into the mind of the ancients, so that the best years of our lives are spent in studying history in which that which makes the difference between modern and ancient society—the leading characteristic of our society—that principle of representation which has made it possible in some degree to unite the existence of a large country with the existence of a certain amount of freedom—that principle is utterly unknown in the history that we study. The Roman empire was established from the necessity of the case; because, when Rome became too great to be a municipality, the ancients knew of no other means than to place the Cæsar, a tyrant, over the whole body. The idea of doing as we do, of sending representatives from different provinces to meet in Rome, and consult for the general welfare, never occurred to them. It was a discovery of later times, and yet it is to these histories, which want the very essential of modern history, that one thing which is its leading characteristic, that the best years of our life are devoted. I do not say time is thrown away, but it is melancholy to reflect that this history is not taught as an adjunct to, but a substitute for the knowledge of modern history. If a man has obtained a knowledge of modern and mediæval history, it is most valuable, no doubt, that he should have a knowledge of those communities with which to compare it, but if he has not a knowledge of modern history, what avails all this? He has not the means of comparison, and the study becomes profitless and useless. Even that state has utterly passed away. It perished, never to return, with the fall of the Roman empire, and on its ruins sprang up a new state of things —the feudal system, and the politics of the middle ages, which have ripened in the present state of things. as we have it now. Of all that our youth know nothing. They are taught nothing whatever of it. The subject is never brought before them, and their attention is confined to the squabbles, and wars, and intrigues of petty, republics, the whole number of which would hardly amount to as many people as this great city. There is a well-known passage in a letter from one of his friends to Cicero, in which he endeavours to console him for the death of his daughter Tullia—"Behind me

lay Egina, before me Megara, on my right Pireus, on my left Corinth. These cities, once so flourishing, now lie prostrate and demolished before my eyes. I thought—Are we little mortals afflicted when one of us perishes, whose life must be brief, when in one place lie the corpses of so many towns." That is one way of looking at the question. I have been in the same place, and thought—How many irretrievable years of my life have I spent in reading the wars, and intrigues, and revolutions of those little towns, the whole of which may be taken in a single glance from the Acropolis of Athens, and which would not make a decently-sized English county. I think that reflection must force itself on the mind of any one who has gone to Greece and seen the wonderfully small scale on which these republics were laid out to which the best years of our life are almost exclusively devoted. Then, gentlemen, there is another great fault in the excessive portion of our youth which is devoted to the study of antiquity—and that is, that the very conception of knowledge wants entirely that which is our leading conception in the present day. I do not think you will find anywhere, in the study of antiquity, that which is now in everybody's mind—the idea of progress. The notion of the ancients was that knowledge was a sort of permanent fixed quantity, that it could not well be increased, that it was to be sought for; and if a man wanted to seek for knowledge, he did not sit down to interrogate nature, and study her phenomena, and analyse and inquire; but he put on his seven league boots and travelled off to Egypt or Persia, or some place at far as he possibly could, in the expectation of finding some wise man there to tell him all about it. That was the case with Thales, Plato himself, all the great men of antiquity. Now, it is no small fault in a system of education that it withholds from youth the conception which is the key of all modern society: that we are not to look at things as stationary, but to look at the human race as having flowed like a glacier perpetually in motion, always going on from good to better, or better to worse, as the case may be. This conception of progress, of change and development that never cease, although we may not be able to mark it day by day, is entirely wanting, as far as I am aware, in the antique world; and I think it is not too much to ask that the idea should, among others, be imparted to youth before they give so very much time to the study of a state of society in which it is wholly wanting. I won't detain you with any criticisms on the morals and metaphysics of the ancients. I suspect they know about as much about mental science as we do—neither much more nor much less; and, without speaking disrespectfully of them, all I would say is that among them—I won't say what it is among us—no two of them were of the same opinion. (Laughter.) We are dosed with antiquties. We are expected to know how many archons there were at Athens though we probably do not know how many Lords of the Treasury there are in London. The pupil must now all about their courts, though he hardly knows the names of his own. He must be dosed with the laws and institutions of the ancients, things exceedingly repulsive to the youthful minds, and things only valuable for comparison with our own institutions, of which institution he is kept in profound ignorance. Another thing not a little irritating is ancient geography. A large portion of time is spent in studying the divisions of countries that have long since ceased to exist, or to have a practical bearing on the affairs of the world. Of course, if you are to study ancient history minutely, these things must be learned; but it is malancholy to think how much modern geography is sacrificed to this. There is nothing which is more neglected than geography. I have been, as you are aware, in Australia; but it is very rarely, indeed, that I have found any one able to tell me what and where the colonies of Australia are, unless they have been there, or have some relations there. The island of Java is said to have been given up by Lord Castlereagh, at the Congress of Vienna to the Dutch, because he could not find it on the map, and he was ashamed to confess his ignorance. (Great laughter.) I remember hearing a very eminent member of the House of Commons indeed —I will not venture to mention his name—who made a speech in which it was quite manifest to me that he thought Upper Canada was the province nearest the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and that Lower Canada was a province higher up the river. (A laugh.) And if I were to tell you the name of that gentlemen you would be indeed astonished. Well, we are going to make an expedition to Abyssinia. The whole thing turns upon the nature of the country. What do we know about it? There is a great deal to be known about it. Many persons have visited it, and written upon it, but what are we taught about it? It is as much as a man can do to find where Abyssinia is on the map, let alone the finding of a single town in it. I have amused myself with trying to ascertain what people know on the subject, and I have hardly found any one who could point out Gondor, the capital of the country, on the map. Yet it is surely as important to know the place where our operations will soon be directed, as it is to know that Halicarnassus was the capital of Icaria, or that there were twenty-three cities of the Volscians in the Campagna of Rome. I will give you one more instance, and it is from the Bible, and in regard to which you might have supposed better things. (A laugh.) You are all aware that, in last session of Parliament, Mr. Bright very facetiously denominated certain gentlemen by a name derived from a cave. (Laughter and cheers.) Well, I assure you, gentlemen, there was not one person I met in twenty—and I speak of people of education—who knew anything about the cave of Adullam—(loud laughter)—and I was under the melancholy and degrading necessity of explaining to them what it meant, and thus pointing the arrow that was aimed at my own breast. (Great laughter and cheers.) After all, gentlemen, education is a preparation for actual life, and there is no doubt the memory is exercised and the faculties sharpened by these studies to some degree. But, as I have said, there is nothing so valuable for a man as to avoid credulity in the transactions of the world. If he discounts a bill, he should make inquiry before he does so. But the danger of this kind of study is, that our attention being fixed so much on the words in those books, we are apt to take everything that is in these books for granted. We never were taught in my time to weigh two statements. We found one statement in Thucydides, a contemporary with the event, and a statement in Cornelius Nepos, who wrote 500 years after, but I never remember our being instructed or having it suggested to us that the statement of Cornelius Nepos was not quite as good as the statement of Thucydides. And so with other things. Taking the dead languages as a subject of study in this way precludes very much that habit of mind which consists in weighing probabilities, which is one of the most useful habits to which we can attain. Well, then, I will not urge this any further. I'll just take the liberty of giving you a short catalogue of the things which a very highly educated man—a man who has received the best education an Englishman can get—may be in total ignorance of. He probably will know nothing whatever of the anatomy of his own body; he will not have the slightest idea of the difference between his veins and his arteries, or whether the spleen is on the right side or the left. In the next place, he will have no such thing as education in the simplest truths of physics; he will not be able to explain the barometer or the thermometer; nothing of the simplest law of animal or vegatable life; he may know nothing whatever of arithmetic; and that defect sticks to him all through life. He knows nothing whatever of accounts, he knows not the meaning of book-keeping or double entry, or of a common debtor and creditor account—all that is absolutely unintelligible to him, and all through the want of early teaching that remains to him all through life. He writes an execrable hand; for perhaps the most important accomplishment a man can have is totally neglected. He may be very deficient in spelling. I know a most eminent man who took a first-class honour at Oxford, and one of the things by which he got it was an English essay, in which there were forty-six words misspelt. He need know nothing whatever at modern geography or that of his own country. He need not know anything whatever of the history of England. I knew an instance not long ago of a gentleman who obtained high honours of a university, and became a contributor to a periodical, and who, when it was suggested to him by the gentlemen who managed it that he should illustrate some fact by reference to Lord Melbourne's Ministry, said he had never heard of Lord Melbourne's Ministry. (Loud laughter and applause.) He need know nothing whatever of modern history or how the present polity of Europe came into effect; he need know nothing of mediæval history, and that has become a matter of most serious importance, because, as we all know the great schisms that have arisen in the Church of England have come from people forming most exaggerated and absurd ideas of the delightful perfection of everything in that dreadful period, the middle ages; and they have done so from sheer ignorance of that which they ought to know, and they have actually become persuaded that the best thing modern society, with all its appliances and improvements, could do, would be to return as far as possible to the state of things that existed when the first Crusade was undertaken. (Great laughter.) There is another most melancholy thing, and that is the utter ignorance of the antiquities and laws of England. He may know the antiquities and laws of Greece and Rome, but of the English antiquities and laws, which are bound up with our freedom and our everyday business, he know nothing whatever. We have, I may say boldly, a literature unparalled in the world. (Applause.) Which of our great clasical authors is a young man required to read in order to obtain to the highest honours which our educational institutions can give him. He studies, in the most minute manner, the literature of Greece and Rome, but as for Chaucer, Spencer, or any of our earlier classics, or the great dramatists and writers of the reigns of Elizabeth and Charles I.; it never occurs to him to read; and the consequence is that the language is impoverished. The noble English of our forefathers drops out of use, and the minds of our young men are employed in stringing a few words out of the Latin poets into execrable hexameters. Then, as to modern languages, there is some feeble attempt being made to teach them now, but nothing effectual; and surely if the English language is to have a preference over modern languages, modern languages ought also to have a preference over the ancient. I have been abroad with a party of half a dozen first-class Oxford men, none of whom could speak a word of French or German to order anything we wanted; and if the waiter had not been better educated than we were—(loud laughter)—and known some other language than his own, we might all have starved. (Laughter.) I think, then, you will agree with me, that, as Dr. Johnson said of the provisions in the Highland inn, "The negative catalogue is very copious"—(Laughter)—I therefore sum up what I have to say on this point by this remark, that our education does not communicate knowledge; that it does not communicate to us the means of obtaining knowledge, and that it does not communicate to us the means of communicating knowledge. These three capital deficiencies are, I think, undoubted; and what makes this so painful to one is, when one thinks of the enormous quantity of things worth

knowing in the world, eminently worth knowing. (Applause.) I have spoken just now only of modern history and modern languages; but what are these compared with the boundless field that nature opens before us, the new world that chemistry is expanding before us, that old world that geology has called into existence, the wonderful generalizations in regard to plants and animals, and to all those noble studies and speculations which are the glory, and the distinction, and the life blood, of the time in which we live, and of which our youth remain almost without exception in total ignorance. It is not too much to say that a man who is really well educated has generally begun his education after all that had been done for him, that the present miserably contracted and poor system could do. Then he had to begin to educate himself over again, with the feeling that he had wasted the best and most precious years of his life on things neither useless, nor unprofitable, nor unlovely in themselves, but which were the mere bye-paths, the fringes, and the appanages of the solid acquirements that constitute the stock of a man of erudition. (Cheers.) Well, now, I have stated my case as to the present state of the education of the upper and middle classes. But how does this come about? How are we to account for the phenomena? How is it, with such a physical science, such a history, and such a literature as that which modern Europe presents to us, we content ourselves by gnawing at the dry and mouldy crust of civilization which was given to us 2000 years ago? (Cheers.) This is all very easily accounted for. It is mainly the fault of educational endowments. When educational endowments for our great schools were first made there really existed in England no literature. Modern history had not begun; mediæval history was only to be found in the meagre annals of monkish chronicles; physical science had no existence, and there was nothing to attract the mind of youth except Latin and Greek, rhetoric and Aristotelian logic. (Cheers.) Nor does any blame attach to our universities, because our universities do give examinations in any subject in connection with which pupils may be found. The blame lies with the Government of the country, because the endowments which are now exclusively given to Latin and Greek are public property for which the State, representing the public, was responsible. So long as they answer the purposes for which they were constituted, these endowments should be left alone, but when they do not, it is our duty to reform them. And what end do they answer? They afford great advantages for the study of the dead languages and mathematics, and perhaps they may have collateral advantages, but if unfortunately the young man finds himself short, or in want of money, as a young man is very apt to be—supposing that he devotes himself to physical science in the University of Oxford, he might gain a first class, but there is hardly an endowment open to him, whereas if he gave the same trouble to Latin and Greek, he might be able to take up half a dozen fellowships. The fault lies with the Government which has not reformed these endowments, and the remedy is, that the endowments should be emancipated from this narrow application, so that the emoluments should be impartially distributed among all branches of human knowledge. The same thing applies to our public schools. Our public schools are really adventure schools, kept by private masters, for their own benefit, as a nucleus for the learning of Latin and Greek. These schools get a good name from this fact—a young man has been at school, and however little he knows, and however much he may have been flogged, he goes away with an affection for the establishment. The result is, that as the disagreeable portion of the education has to be undertaken not by himself, but by his son, he always sends him there. (Laughter and cheers.) If we could only get fair play, an equal stage and no favour, for all branches of instruction, I have no doubt that this would remedy itself. I think that the State should stand neutral and impartial, and not by endowments allow education to extend into certain channels alone, leaving others dry. (Cheers.) I think that our endowments should be so remodelled and recast as to give all subjects—modern history, ancient literature, ancient law, ancient history and philosophy—an equal start. I do not presume to say what is the best way of doing it, but there is one way which I have attempted myself. I was secretary of the India Board at the time the writerships in connection with that office were first thrown open to public competition. We had then a problem to solve, that if we had restricted them to Latin and Greek we should have thrown over a great number of very meritorious candidates, including gentlemen from the Scotch Universities, for instance, accomplished metaphysicians, but not equal to compete in the Latin and Greek classics with boys trained in the English public schools. We had therefore to attempt to do something of the kind I have pointed out to you, and with the assistance of Lord Macauley and other eminent men we prepared the scale on which these offices have since been distributed. We took everything we could think of that a well-educated man might learn —Latin, Greek, English, French, all the modern languages of Europe, all the principal branches of physical science—history, literature, the philosophy of the mind as taught in Scotland—and we gave marks to each according to their relative importance, as nearly as we could arrive at them, and under that system all persons were admitted equally and freely to the benefit of those offices whatever might have been their branch of study. Instead of loading the dice in favour of the dead languages we gave them all a fair start, and, so far as I know, I think it worked with perfect success. Something of the kind ought to be done, and let the best man win. I have no desire to influence the decision of parents, but I would leave it to them entirely to say what it was they wanted, and my own impression is that the public appetite for Latin and for the hard phrases of Greek choruses would materially abate, and that the people in the end would think it better after all to know something of the world in which they lived, something about their own laws and their own institutions, something about their own bodies and souls, rather than to devote themselves to the history and the literature of the Republics of Greece and Rome. One more observation I wish to make to you. I have said I am anxious so educate the poorer classes, to qualify men for the power that has passed, and perhaps will pass in a still greater degree, into their hands. I am also anxious to educate in a better degree than at present, the higher classes of the country, and that also for political reasons. The time has gone past when the higher classes could hope by any indirect influence, either of property or of coercion of any kind, to direct the course of public affairs. Power has passed out of their hands, and what they do must be done by the influence of superior education and cultivation, by the power of mind over mind, by that sign and signet of the Almighty which never fails to be recognized where it is truly attested. How is that likely to be done? Is it by confining the attention of the children of the wealthiest classes to those old languages and bygone republics, of which working men have never heard, and with which they have never been brought into contact in their daily affairs, and of which, from the necessity of the case, they can know nothing. Is it not better that they should know the things which working men know, but know them infinitely better, and in their principles and details, so that in intercourse with them they should be able to assert that superiority which greater leisure has assured to them, and conquer back by means of wider and more enlightened cultivation some of the influence they have lost by political change. I confess that, for my own part, whenever I talk with an intelligent workman, so far from being able to assert my superiority, I am tormented with the reflection, "What a fool this man must think me to be, when he finds me, on whose education thousands of pounds have been spent, utterly ignorant of the things that he is familiar with every day." I think the lower classes ought to be educated to discharge the duties cast upon them, and also that they may appreciate, acknowledge, and defer to higher intelligence and culture, when they meet with that higher cultivation to which I think if they recognize it they would always be ready to bow down.

The right hon. gentleman resumed his seat amid loud cheers, having spoke for a minute or two beyond an hour and a half.

On motion of the Lord Provost, a hearty vote of thanks was given to the right hon. gentleman for his interesting and valuable address.

Mr. Lowe, in acknowledging the compliment, said—I thank you most sincerely for the kind manner in which you have been pleased to receive the motion of the chairman, and I beg to move, in my turn, thanks to him for presiding. In doing so, allow me to repeat that, if any one is at all annoyed by anything I have said—(cries of "No. no")—I think it must be obvious to him that I came here simply to tell you what I think is urgently wanted, both by the lower and the upper classes, in the hope that I may make some impression on your minds, and that what I have said will go forth from this room to provoke discussion, in which I will, no doubt, be heartily abused, but from which, I have no doubt, will come results highly beneficial. (Cheers,)

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

Extract from the Minutes of the Council of Public Instruction, July 7th, 1866.—"Provision being made by the School Law for the publication of a *Journal of Education*, the Council of Public Instruction directs that the said *Journal* be made the medium of official notices in connexion with the Educational Department."

T. H. RAND,
Sec'y to C. P. I.

I.

The Council of Public Instruction has been pleased, upon the recommendation of the Superintendent of Education, to make the following appointment:—

To be Inspector of Schools for the County of Cumberland, F. W. George M.A., in place of Rev. James Christie.

October 25, 1867.

II. *Holidays and Vacations.*

Notice is hereby given to Trustees of Schools and others, that Chapter XI. of the Comments and Regulations of the Council of Public

INSTRUCTION. "Of Time in Session, Holidays, and Vacations" has been revised as follows:

HOLIDAYS.

The following Regulations have been added to SECTION 3, of the Chapter above named.

a. When for any cause the Trustees of a school shall deem it desirable that any prescribed Teaching Day should be given as a Holiday, the school or schools may be kept in session on the Saturday of the week in which such Holiday has been given, and such Saturday shall be held to be in all respects a legal Teaching Day.

b. When, owing to illness, or for any other just cause, a teacher loses any number of prescribed teaching days, such teacher shall have the privilege of making up for such lost days, to the extent of SIX during any Term, by teaching on Saturdays; But

c. No school shall be kept in session more than five days per week for any two consecutive weeks;

d. Nor shall any Teacher teach more than FIVE DAYS PER WEEK on the average (vacations not being counted) during the period of his engagement in any term.

The Anniversary of the QUEEN'S BIRTHDAY shall be a Holiday in all the Public Schools, as heretofore.

VACATIONS.

The following Regulations have been made in lieu of SECTION 4, of the Chapter above named:—

1. The CHRISTMAS VACATION shall remain as heretofore, the "eight days" being held to mean week-days other than Saturdays.

2. Instead of two vacations during the summer term (a week at seed time and a fortnight at harvest) as heretofore, THREE WEEKS (15 week-days other than Saturdays,) shall hereafter be given as vacation during the summer term, at such time or times as the Trustees shall decide: Nevertheless

3. In order that the due Inspection of Schools as required by law, may not be interfered with, each Inspector shall have power, notwithstanding anything in the foregoing Regulations, to give notice of the day or days on which he proposes to visit any school or schools in his county for the purposes of Inspection, and to require that on the day or days so named such school or schools shall be kept in session.

July, 1867.

III. Teachers' Agreements.

The attention of Teachers and Trustees is again called to the necessity of complying with the provision of the Law in relation to the disposal of the County Fund. It appears from the School Returns of the past Term that some teachers have in their agreements with Trustees in respect to salary, *assumed all risk as to the amount to be received from the County Fund.* Such proceeding is contrary to the provisions of the law and directly subversive of a most important principle of the school system, since the pecuniary penalty imposed upon the inhabitants of the section by the absence and irregular attendance of pupils is thereby inflicted upon the teacher, while the pecuniary rewards consequent upon a large and regular attendance of pupils at school is diverted from the people to the teacher. These results clearly tend to prevent the growth and development of a sentiment of responsibility and interest among all the inhabitants of each section, and thus measurably defeat the object of the whole system—the education of every child in the province.

The Superintendent of Education, therefore, calls the attention of Teachers and Trustees to the following

NOTICE.

1. The COUNTY FUND is paid to the TRUSTEES of the section. The amount depends upon the number of pupils, the regularity of their attendance, and the number of prescribed teaching days on which school is open in any section during the term.

2. Teachers must engage with Trustees at a *definite sum or rate.* The Provincial grant is paid to teachers *in addition* to such specified sum.

3. The following form of agreement is in accordance with the law:

[Form of Agreement.]

Memorandum of Agreement made and entered into the —— day of ——— A.D. 186 , between *(name of teacher)* a duly licensed teacher of the ——— class of the one part, and *(names of trustees)* Trustees of School Section No. —— in the District of ——— of the second part.

The said *(name of teacher)* on his (or her) part, in consideration of the below mentioned agreements by the parties of the second part, hereby covenants and agrees with the said *(names of Trustees)* Trustees as aforesaid and their successors in office, diligently and faithfully to teach a public school in the said section, under the authority of the said Trustees and their successors in office, during the School Year (or Term) ending on the thirty-first day of October next, (or the thirtieth day of April, as the case may be).

And the said Trustees and their successors in office on their part covenant and agree with the said *(name of teacher)* Teacher as aforesaid, to pay the said *(name of teacher)* out of the School Funds under their control, at the rate of ——— dollars for the School Year (or Term.)

And it is hereby further mutually agreed that both parties to this agreement shall be in all respects subject to the provisions of the School Law and the Regulations made under its authority by the Council of Public Instruction.

In Witness whereof the parties to these presents have hereto subscribed their names on the day and year first above written.

Witness, *(Name of Witness.)* *(Name of Teacher.)* *(Names of Trustees.)*

4. Each Inspector is instructed to report every case of illegal stipulation on the part of teachers, in reference to the County Fund.

May, 1867.

IV. The procuring of Books and Apparatus.

1. WHEREAS, by the 20th Section of the Amended School Law, the ratepayers of each school section are empowered to assess themselves for the purchase of prescribed School Books, Maps, and Apparatus; and WHEREAS, by the 15th subdivision of the 6th section of the said law, an annual Provincial Grant is provided to enable the Superintendent of Education to furnish the above articles at half their cost, to School Trustees,—

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN,

That the Superintendent of Education will furnish, as below, School Books Maps, and Apparatus, to the extent of the Provincial Grant in aid of the same.

2. Trustees must carefully comply with the following Regulations:—

Reg. 1.—Applications must be made in the following form, and addressed to MESSRS. A. & W. MACKINLAY, HALIFAX, who have been duly authorized to attend to all orders.

[Form of Application.]

(Date)

Messrs. A. & W. Mackinlay,
Halifax.

SIRS,—We enclose *(or forward by ——)* the sum of $———, for which you will please send us the following articles provided by the Superintendent of Education for use in the public schools. The parcel is to be addressed——— *(here give the address in full)* and forwarded by——— *(here state the name of the person, express company, or vessel; and, if by vessel, direct the parcel to be insured, if so desired.)*

LIST OF ARTICLES.

(Here specify distinctly the Books, Maps, &c., required, and the quantity of each sort.)

We certify that each and all of the articles named in the above list are required for use in the Public School (or Schools) under our control, and for no other purpose whatsoever; and we engage strictly to carry out the Regulations of the Council of Public Instruction for the management and preservation of school books and apparatus.

(Signed) ———, ———, ——— } *Trustees of———School Section in the County of———*

Reg. 2.—Any application not accompanied with the money will not be attended to.

Reg. 3.—All costs and risk of transportation of parcels must be borne by Trustees, (*i. e.* by the Sections on behalf of which they act, and not by the Educational Department.)

☞ If Trustees so direct in their application, goods (except Globes,) transported by *water* will be insured for the amount paid for the same by them, at the following rates:—

Parcels shipped during the First Term of the School year, 2½ per ct.
" " Second Term " " 1½ per ct.

Trustees must forward with their application the amount required to effect the insurance, otherwise parcels will not be insured. No charge will be made for policies.

Reg. 4.—Applications will, as far as the articles in stock and the annual grant permit, receive attention in the order of their receipt.

Regulations.

3. The following are the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction with reference to all Books, Maps, and Apparatus furnished to Trustees, under the operation of Sec. 6 (15) of the law concerning Public Schools:—

Reg. 1.—They shall be the property of the School Section, and not of private individuals (except as specified in Reg. 5.)

Reg 2.—Any pupil shall be entitled, free of charge, to the use of such school books as the teacher may deem necessary.

Reg. 3.—Any pupil shall have the privilege of taking home with him any books, &c., which, in the opinion of the teacher, may be required for study or use out of school.

Reg. 4.—Pupils, or their parents or guardians, shall be responsible for any damage done to books beyond reasonable wear and tear.

Reg. 5.—Any pupil desiring it, may be allowed to purchase from the trustees the books required by him, provided the same be done without prejudice to the claims of other pupils; the price to be, in all cases, the same as advertised in the official notice published from time to time in the *Journal of Education.* No pupil who has been allowed to purchase a book shall have any claim on the trustees for the free use of another of the same kind.

Reg. 6.—Any section neglecting to provide a sufficient supply of books, maps, and apparatus, may be deprived of the public grants.

Reg. 7.—Trustees shall make such further regulations, agreeably to law, as may be necessary to ensure the careful use and preservation of books, maps, and apparatus belonging to the section.

Any section infringing in any way upon the above regulations will forfeit the privilege of purchasing books, &c., at half cost.

4. List of Text-Books, Maps and Apparatus.

☞ The following list of Books will be extended, and other articles of apparatus included as the fund at the disposal of the Superintendent permits. The Wall-Maps (including one of the United States) now in course of preparation, under the supervision of the Educational Department, will be added to the list as soon as published.

PUPILS' WEEKLY RECORDS.

Weekly Record for one Term (on printing paper) 1 cent each.
do. do. (on writing paper) 2 cents each.

THE NOVA SCOTIA SERIES OF READING BOOKS.

Book No. 1.....	$0.22½ doz.	Book No. 6.....	$0.17 ea.
" 2.....	0.50 "	" 7.....	0.23 "
" 3.....	0.06 each.	The art of Teaching Reading.....	0.07½" *Or,*
" 4.....	0.10 "	Bailey's Brief Treatise on Elocution	0.05 "
" 5.....	0.11 "		

SPELLING BOOK.

The Spelling Book Superseded, (Rev. Ed.) 8½ cents each.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

English Grammar.*
Morell's Analysis, 5 cents each.
Reid's Rudiments of Composition, 20 cents each.
Bain's Rhetoric, 40 cents each.

MATHEMATICS.

Arithmetic.—Nova Scotia Elementary Arithmetic,.....10 cents each
Nova Scotia (advanced) Arithmetic.....15 " "
Nova Scotia Arithmetical Table Book.....19 " doz.
Algebra.—Chambers' Algebra, (as far as Quadratics).....20 " each
Do. Do. (complete).....30 " "
Plane Geometry.—Chambers' Euclid, (including Plane Trigonometry).....15 " "
Practical Mathematics.—Chambers', (including Land-surveying, a brief treatise on Navigation, &c.).....45 " "

Solid and Spherical Geometry.—Chambers', (including Spherical Trigonometry, Conic Sections, &c.).....15 " "
Mathematical Tables.—Chambers'.....30 " "
Navigation.—Norie's, (an extended treatise).....$1.60 " "
Ball Frames.....70 " each.
Slate Wipers, (to be used *without* water).....18 " doz.
Slates.—Common Slates, (beveled frames) 6½ in. by 8½ in... 37 " "
" " 8 in. by 10 in....40 " "
" " 9 in. by 13 in....60 " "
Prepared Slates, 5 in. by 7 in.....1 " each.
" 8 in. by 12 in.....3 " "
Blackboard Chalks, 20 cents per box, (1 gross); Slate Pencils, 7 cents per box, (100).

☞ The Prepared Slates are ruled for writing, and for separate columns of figures, units, tens, hundreds, &c. They are folded once (like a sheet of writing paper), are very light, and will not break by falling. These slates are suitable for *beginners* only.

WRITING.

STAPLES' PROGRESSIVE SERIES OF COPY BOOKS:

For both girls and boys. Book No. 1, 2½ cts. each. | No. 2, " " | No. 3, " " | No. 4, " " | No. 5, " "
For girls only. Book No. 6, 2½ cts. ea. | No. 8, "
For boys only. Book No. 7, " | No. 9, "

Ruled Card to accompany copy books, 6 cts. per doz.
Penholders, 20 cents per gross.
Staples' Circular Pointed School Pens, 24 cents a box (1 gross).
Inkpowders, 38 cents per doz.
Rulers, 12 in. (for pupils' use,) 20 for 12½ cents.
Lead Pencils, 8 cents per doz.
India Rubber Erasers, 12 cents per doz.
Pink Blotting Paper, 15 cents per quire.

DRAWING.

BARTHOLOMEW'S SCHOOL SERIES OF PROGRESSIVE DRAWING LESSONS.

For beginners. Set of 72 Model Cards, Nos. 1 to 6.....42 cents per set.
For advanced lessons. Sketch Book (models only), Nos. 1 to 5....$1.00 per set.

Packages (12 slips) of blank drawing paper, for model cards, 3 cts. per pack.
Blank drawing books, for model cards, 8½ cts. each.
Blank drawing paper, for Sketch Books, or model cards, 28 cts. per quire.
Drawing Pencils, F, 23 cts. per doz.
" B, " "
" BB, " "
" HB, " "
" H, " "
India Rubber Erasers, 12 cts. per doz.

DIAGRAMS.

For purposes of illustration, and "Oral Lessons."

Forest Trees (12).....$0.30 per set.
Natural Phenomena (30).....0.60 "
Botanical Prints (roots, stalks, leaves, &c., 26)..1.00 "
Notes of Lessons on do. do. do. .....0.06 "
Poison Plants (44).....0.60 "
Wild Flowers (96).....2.00 "
Geometrical Figures (2 sheets).....0.06 "
Mechanical Forces (6, on cloth) with exp. sheets. 1.00 "
Patterson's Plates of Animals (set of 10, mounted and varnished).....11.00 "

GEOGRAPHY.

Calkin's Geography and History of Nova Scotia, 8½ cts. each.
" School Geography of the World.*

Series of Wall Maps.—
Nova Scotia.....$0.55 each.
North America.....1.35 "
Western Hemisphere..1.35 "
Eastern Hemisphere...1.35 "
England.....1.35 "
Scotland.....$1.35 each.
Ireland.....1.35 "
British Isles (in relation to the Cont. of Europe)..1.35 "
Europe.....1.35 "
Palestine.....1.35 "
Gen'l Map of Bible Lands 1.35 "

Globes.—The Terrestrial Globe (12 in. diameter, bronze meridian and Quadrant).....$4.50
The Celestial Globe.....4.50

Classical Wall Maps.—
Orbis Veteribus Notus..$1.20 each.
Italia Antiqua.....1.20 "
Græcia Antiqua.....$1.20 each.
Asia Minor Antiqua.....1.20 "
Orbis Romanus.....1.20 "

HISTORY.

Hodgins' School History of British America..25 cts. each.
Curtis' Chronological Outlines of Eng. History 6 "

For use in Adv. Com. Schools.
Collier's School History of the British Empire (Revised Edition).....20 "
Collier's History of Rome.....15 "
Collier's History of Greece.....15 "

For use in Co. Academies.
Smith's Smaller History of Rome.....35 "
Smith's Smaller History of Greece.....35 "
Chambers' Ancient History.....25 "

NATURAL SCIENCE.

Chambers' Chemistry, (with new notation).....35 cents each.

ECONOMIC SCIENCE.

The Chemistry of Common Things....15 cents each.

CLASSICS.

Latin,—Bryce's First Latin Book,.....20 cts. each.
Bryce's Second Latin Book.....35 "
Edinburgh Academy Latin Grammar..20 "
or, Bullion's Latin Grammar.....50 "
Arnold's Latin Prose Composition.....60 "

AUTHORS—OXFORD EDITIONS.

CÆSAR, de Bello Gallico, *paper*, 20 cts.: *bound*, 25 cts.: Lib. I.—III. (with short notes), 1 vol., *paper*, 10 cts.
VIRGIL, (complete), *paper*, 20 cts.: *bound* 25 cts.: the Georgics (with short notes), 1 vol., *paper*, 20 cts.: the Æneid, Lib. I.—III. (with short notes), *paper*, 10 cts.
CICERO, de Off., de Sen., de Amicit., 1 vol., *paper*, 15 cts.: *bound*, 20 cts.: de Sen., and de Amicit., 1 vol., (with short notes,) *paper*, 10 cts.: Oration for the Poet Archias, (with short notes,) *paper*, 10 cts.
HORACE, (complete), *paper*, 15 cts.: *bound*, 20 cts.: the Odes, (with short notes), *paper*, 20 cts.

DICTIONARY.

White's Junior Scholar's Latin-English Dictionary....93 cts. each.

Greek,—Bryce's First Greek Book,.....25 cts. each.
Bryce's Second Greek Book.....35 "
Bullion's Greek Grammar.....55 "
or, Edinburgh Academy Greek Grammar, 35 "
Arnold's Greek Prose Composition.....55 "

AUTHORS—OXFORD EDITIONS.

XENOPHON, Anabasis, *paper*, 15 cents: *bound*, 20 cts.
EURIPIDES, Alcestis, (with short notes), *paper* 10 cts.
XENOPHON, Memorabilia, *paper*, 10 cts.: *bound* 14 cts.
HOMER, Iliad, (complete), *paper*, 30 cts.: *bound*, 35 cts.: Lib. I.—III. (with short notes), 1 vol., *paper*, 20 cts.

LEXICONS.

Liddell & Scott's Greek-English Lexicon (abrgd.).....$0.93 each.
Yonge's English-Greek Lexicon.....1.06 "

FRENCH.

DICTIONARY.

Contanseau's French-English and English-French Dictionary..$0.43 ea.

* The Council of Public Instruction has authorized the preparation of a General Geography, and an English Grammar for use in the Public Schools, and until these works are published the Superintendent of Education *will not procure any text-books on these subjects.* In the mean time, Trustees are authorized by the Council to use whatever Geography or Grammar they prefer. Campbell's or Lovell's Geography will be found to be about the best; and Lennie's Grammar, if followed by Morell's Analysis, will, perhaps, give as good results as any.

V. The Provincial Normal School.

FIRST TERM begins on the second Wednesday in November, and closes on the last Thursday in March.
SECOND TERM begins on the second Wednesday in May, and closes on the last Thursday in September.
*** Students cannot be admitted after the first week in each term, except by the consent of the Principal.

FACULTY OF INSTRUCTORS.

NORMAL COLLEGE.

Method, and the Natural Sciences:—REV. ALEXANDER FORRESTER, D.D. Principal of the Normal College and Model School.
English and Classics:—J. B. CALKIN, ESQ.
Mathematics:—W. R. MULHOLLAND, ESQ.
Music:—MR. CHESLEY.
Drawing:—MISS L. CROWE.

MODEL SCHOOL.

High School Department, MR. EDWARD BLANCHARD.
Preparatory " MR. JAMES LITTLE.
Senior Elementary " MISS LOGAN.
Junior do. " MISS A. LEAKE.
Janitor:—MR. DODSON.

None but holders of valid licenses will be admitted to the Normal School as pupil-teachers. The licenses must be presented to the Principal at the opening of the Term.

Extracts from the Regulations of Council of Public Instruction.—"Before being enrolled a Student at the Normal School, every pupil-teacher shall make the following declaration, and subscribe his or her name thereto: '*I hereby declare that my object in attending the Provincial Normal School, is to qualify myself for the business of teaching; and that my intention is to teach, for a period not less than three years, in the Province of Nova Scotia, —if adjudged a Certificate by the Examiners.*' In consideration of this declaration, instruction, stationery, and the use of text books (except Classical) shall be furnished pupil-teachers, free of charge."

Persons wishing to enrol as Candidates for High School or Academy certificates must, in addition to a good knowledge of English, be thoroughly familiar with the Latin and Greek Grammars, and be able to parse with ease any passage in some elementary work in each language. In mathematics, they must be competent to solve any example in the advanced Nova Scotia Arithmetic, to work quadratic equations in Algebra, and to demonstrate any proposition in the first four books of Euclid."

VI. Bond of Secretary to Trustees.

"The Secretary of the Trustees shall give a bond to Her Majesty, with two sureties, in a sum at least equal to that to be raised by the section during the year, for the faithful performance of the duties of his office; and the same shall be lodged by the Trustees with the Clerk of the Peace for the county or district."—*School Law of 1866, Sect.* 42.

This bond is to be given annually, or whenever a Secretary is appointed, and Trustees should not fail to forward it by mail or otherwise, to the Clerk of the Peace, immediately after they have appointed their Secretary. The following is a proper form of bond:—

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS, THAT WE, *(name of Secretary)* as principal, and *(names of sureties)* as sureties, are held and firmly bound unto our Sovereign Lady VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, &c., in the sum of of lawful money of Nova Scotia, to be paid to our said Lady the Queen, her heirs and successors, for the true payment whereof, we bind ourselves, and each of us by himself, for the whole and every part thereof, and the heirs, executors and administrators of us and each of us, firmly by these presents, sealed with our Seals, and dated this day of in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and and in the year of Her Majesty's reign.

WHEREAS the said ———— has this day been duly appointed to be Secretary to the Board of Trustees of —— School Section, No. —— in the District of ————

NOW THE CONDITION OF THIS OBLIGATION IS SUCH, That if the said *(name of Secretary)* do and shall from time to time, and at all times hereafter, during his continuance in the said Office, well and faithfully perform all such acts and duties as do or may hereafter appertain to the said Office, by virtue of any Law of this Province, *in relation to* the said Office of Secretary to Trustees, and shall in all respects conform to and observe all such rules, orders and regulations as now are or may be from time to time established for or in respect of the said Office, and shall well and faithfully keep all such accounts, books, and papers, as are or may be required to be kept by him in his said Office, and shall in all respects well and faithfully perform and execute the duties of the said Office; and if on ceasing to hold the said Office, he shall forthwith, on demand, hand over to the Trustees of the said School Section, or to his successor in office, all books, papers, moneys, accounts, and other property in his possession by virtue of his said Office of Secretary—then the said obligation to be void—otherwise to be and continue in full force and virtue.

Signed, sealed, and delivered in the presence of } [*Name of Secretary.*] (Seal) [*Names of Sureties.*] (Seals)

[*Name of Witness.*]

WE, THE SUBSCRIBERS, two of Her Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of ———— do certify our approbation of ———— *(names of Sureties,)* within named, as Sureties for the within named———— *(name of Secretary,)* and that they are to the best of our knowledge and belief persons of estate and property within the said County of ——— and of good character and credit, and sufficiently able to pay, if required, the penalty of the within bond. Given under our hands this day of A. D. 186

[*Names of Magistrates.*]

VII. List of Inspectors.

J. R. Miller	Halifax.
Rev. D. M. Welton, M A	Windsor.
William Eaton	Kentville.
Rev. G. Armstrong, M. A.	Bridgetown.
Rev. P. J Filleul, B. A	Weymouth.
G. J. Farish, M. D	Yarmouth.
Rev. G. M. Clark	Shelburne.
Rev. D. O. Parker	Liverpool.
W. M. B. Lawson	Lunenburg.
H. C. Upham	Great Village.
F. W. George, M. A	Amherst.
M. T. Smith	Pictou.
Rodk. McDonald	Antigonish.
S. R. Russell	Guysboro'.
James Macdonell	Port Hood.
C. R. Macdonald	Baddeck.
Edmund Outram, M. A	Sydney.
W. R. Cutler	Arichat.

The Journal of Education,

Published monthly, under authority of Act of Parliament, and furnished gratuitously to Trustee-Corporations, and to Teachers as specified in Sect. 6 (15) of the law concerning public schools.

Any person not entitled to a copy free of charge, will have the *Journal* sent to his address on payment of $1.00 *per annum*, in advance. The Inspectors in the several Counties are authorized to receive subscriptions.

The number of copies required for distribution to Trustee-Corporations and to Teachers entitled to receive them, will be forwarded to the Inspectors. Subscribers will receive their copies direct from Halifax.

Trustees will file and preserve this *Journal* as the property of the section they represent, to be handed over to their successors in office. Each number should be properly stitched and cut open before being read.

Teachers wishing situations will have the privilege of inserting a brief advertisement (class of license, experience, references, salary, and address,) for one month, free of charge. Trustees in want of teachers will be allowed a similar privilege.

A limited number of advertisements in connection with education and kindred subjects, will be inserted at 20 cents a line for the first and 10 cents a line for each subsequent insertion.

Communications to be addressed EDUCATION OFFICE, HALIFAX, N. S.

Printed by JAMES BARNES, Corner of Sackville and Granville-sts., Halifax.