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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

OCTOBER, 1899.

HIGHER COMMERCIAL EDUCATION AT ANTWERP, LEIPZIG, PARIS AND HAVRE.

MICHAEL E. SADLER, M.A.*

(Continued from last issue)

IV.

It may be asked from what ranks in Belgian society are the students of the Institute chiefly drawn? Do the great merchants favor the scheme and send their own sons to receive the advantages offered by its instruction? In a letter to the *Times* of March 14, 1898, Sir Bernhard Samuelson, who speaks with the highest authority on matters of commercial education, asked, "Who are the Belgian merchants of repute in the commerce of the world, and the manufacturers of Belgium who have received their education at the Institut Supérieur de Commerce of Antwerp, which has not been established for many years?" These pertinent questions raise issues which will be discussed at greater length in a later part of this memorandum, but it may be convenient here to mention some facts which bear upon the point.

The Institute was founded in 1852. It has, therefore, been in existence nearly forty-six years. Indirectly, it owed its origin to the Hyde Park Exhibition of 1851. Four years previously, the then Foreign Minister of Belgium, Monsieur Dechamps, had laid before the Municipality of Antwerp and the Provincial Council

a scheme for a Higher Institute of Commerce, and an Antwerp merchant had simultaneously published a pamphlet, entitled "Projet d'organisation d'une université belge de commerce et d'industrie."* But difficulties arose which frustrated the carrying out of these plans. In 1851, however, Monsieur Rogier, then Belgian Minister for the Interior, revived the scheme. He had been impressed by the commercial activity of England, as displayed in the Great Exhibition and by the new world of industrial effort which he saw presaged there. He felt that more could be done to promote Belgian trade, "if only Belgium had competent men to represent her in foreign markets."† M. Rogier's plan was quickly taken up, and the Institute founded. For a long time the number of students taking the full course was small. Beginning with 10 in 1853-4, it stood at 35 ten years later, while in 1873-4 it had only increased to 50. After another decade, it had risen to 78, and now stands at about 300. The number of students taking only special

* Cp. "Commercial Education in Belgium," by Prof. W. Layton, p. 6.

† Léauté, *L'enseignement commercial*, p. 581.

* Director of the Special Inquiries Branch, Education Department, London, England.

courses was for a time much larger than those entering for the full curriculum. Now, however, these "occasional" students form the minority. From the first there have been a considerable number of foreign students at the Institute. It is believed by many that this would also be the case in London if a similar institution were established here.

For a period, it is clear, the Antwerp Institute suffered the natural penalty of being a little before its time. It was, in a sense, a prophetic idea. The commercial world was hardly ready for it. The conditions which were to ensure its success had not been fully developed at the time of its establishment. As in other schemes of technical training, the pioneers had for a long time to be patient with apparently small results. I hardly think, therefore, that we can reasonably expect the Institute to have had a large part in the training of the generation of merchants now enjoying the highest places in the trade of Antwerp. Another twenty years must pass before any definite judgment can be passed on the influence of the Institute upon Antwerp or Belgian foreign trade. It is possible that, if the organization of the Institute embraced one or more Halls of Residence, where students might enjoy the disciplinary and other advantages of collegiate life, some parents might be more willing to avail themselves of its opportunities in the education of their sons. But a certain number of the best commercial families do, I am told, send their sons to the Institute. Two members of the present Belgian Ministry have thus shown their confidence in its work. At the same time, it is freely admitted that some leading Belgian merchants do not believe that such a training as the Institute affords is the best preparation for

business. There, as here, expert opinion is divided. Perhaps it will be fair to say that, while there is no general agreement on the subject, an increasing number of Belgian merchants are becoming convinced both of the value and necessity of special preparation of this kind for the higher branches of foreign trade; and the fact that the Antwerp Institute enjoys the full confidence of the Municipality and of the Belgian Government is proved by the large subsidies which both are making in furtherance of its work.

Perhaps the most striking illustration of the growing influence of the Institute in commercial circles in Belgium is the growth and success of the "Cercle des Anciens Étudiants de l'Institut Supérieur de Commerce." This association of former students was established in May, 1873. Its aims are to promote friendly relations between the men who have been trained at the Institute, to encourage commercial enterprise, to stimulate a taste for commercial life, to study commercial questions, to establish scholarships tenable at the Institute, and to maintain the privileges which have been or should be accorded to the holders of its diploma. In 1876 the Government granted the degree of "Licencié en Sciences Commerciales" as a title attached to the diploma, and its later decision (in 1893) to reorganize the consular service in the interests of Belgian trade was regarded as, in part, the outcome of persistent efforts of the Association.* The Cercle numbered 390 members in 1893-4. It has published a long series of reports on various commercial subjects, among which may be mentioned the following:

*Cercle des Anciens Étudiants de l'Institut Supérieur de Commerce d'Anvers. Sa fondation et son développement jusqu'en 1894. (Antwerp, Theunis, 1894.)

Le Commerce des États Unis.
Quelques Mots sur la Question
es Sucres.

Le Pétrole du Caucase.
Droits d'Entrée sur les Dentrées
Alimentaires.

De l'Instruction Commerciale.

La Politique Coloniale.

Le Partage de l'Afrique.

The most recent effort of the Association has been the organization of an International Congress on Commercial Education, which was held at Antwerp in Easter week, 1898*.

One other point ought to be alluded to in this connection. Belgium, as is well known, is unhappily divided by religious differences. And, though theological matters do not enter into the curriculum of the Institute, nevertheless there is a strong tendency among Catholic parents to prefer to send their sons to places of education which are under distinctly Catholic influence.

This leads me to say a few words on the subject of discipline. The regulations of the Institute follow the ordinary model of a foreign university. The students, when outside the premises of the Institute, are under no disciplinary supervision. There is no residential college, but one or two of the professors take boarders into their houses. Students are not admitted to the examinations unless they produce a certificate from the principal teacher of the "Bureau" to the effect that they have worked through at least four of the principal subjects of the curriculum. Breaches of internal discipline

*A report of the proceedings of the Antwerp Congress will be found in the *London Technical Education Gazette* (P. S. King, 9 Bridge Street, Westminster), for May, 1898, (p. 60-6). The full official report of the Congress has since been published (Theunis, 28 Rue du Lombard, Antwerp).

would be punished by the withdrawal of leave to attend lectures, or, in extreme cases, by expulsion from the Institute.

In this, as in every department of its work, the Institute gains much from being on a public basis. It can take its own line in difficulties, and is under no constraint to conciliate individual whims and fancies. The plan of studies is approved by the Government. In educational matters full freedom is given to the teaching staff. The professors can aim at what is educationally best, and are not hampered by any anxiety as to numbers, as would be the case if they were "paid by results." Government inspection and the *esprit de corps* of a great institution secure efficiency, and furnish the guarantees for which the public and the parents have the right to ask. I was assured by those on the spot that it would have been impossible for the Institute to have won its present position on any other terms.

The professors have not themselves actually been in business, but they have one and all strong business interests, and are practical men. They live in a commercial atmosphere, in a great commercial centre. This, the director urged upon me, is essential to the success of such an institution. It must be in the middle of things, otherwise it would become "academic," and detached from the facts of commercial life. It by no means follows that a man actually or recently engaged in business would give the best commercial instruction. In manual training (to quote a parallel case), it is by no means the case that a working carpenter best teaches a class of boys to do wood-work. What is essentially necessary in both cases is the *teaching gift*, to which (in the case of the com-

mercial teacher) must be super-added strong business interest, a wide range of knowledge, and a systematic study of commercial methods. In fact, one of the great services which a Higher School of Commerce might render to a community is the training of teachers of commercial subjects for day and evening classes in polytechnics and commercial schools.

V.

It is characteristic of Germany that this function of training teachers of commercial subjects has been put into the forefront in many of the memoranda which have recently appeared in that country in favor of the establishment of Higher Schools of Commerce. Strictly speaking, until the present year there has not existed in any part of Germany an institution with aims precisely analogous to those of the Institut Supérieur de Commerce at Antwerp. There is, indeed, an abundance of commercial evening continuation schools and commercial classes of excellent quality. Municipalities and commercial societies of various kinds have been forward in providing young clerks and others with opportunities for acquiring commercial knowledge and other aptitudes of value in business life. Such classes, for example, as those arranged in Hamburg by the "Verein für Handlungskommis von 1858," or in the Handelslehranstalt, at Leipzig, by the municipality of that city, are typical of a great number of similar efforts which have been made all over Germany, not always on a similar scale, but, nevertheless, on the same kind of basis and with similar objects in view. A good account of all these will be found in a work on commercial continuation schools by Dr. Stegemann, Syndic of

the Chamber of Commerce for the Duchy of Brunswick.*

Moreover, Germany has a system of non-classical secondary schools, which, in point of laying a suitable foundation of general knowledge for those intending to devote themselves to business life, is probably without a rival in the world. No other nation has so systematically built up its fabric of intermediate day schools. The process has been a long one; its directors have been satisfied with nothing short of a very high level of intellectual attainment, and the commercial results of this widely diffused liberal education are only just beginning to show themselves. Non-classical education in Germany has made great strides during the last ten or fifteen years. The young men who have had the advantage of such a training are only just beginning to come to the front in the business world.

Prussia alone is turning out youths thus trained at the rate of thousands a year.† The ultimate effects of this process will doubtless be considerable. His inquiries have convinced the present writer that the world has only begun to taste the effects of the *first rate* non-classical secondary education now

* Kaufmannisches Fortbildungsschulwesen. II., Der gegenwärtige Stand, von Dr. Stegemann. (Braunschweig, Albert Limbach, 1896.)

† Cp. articles on "The Realschulen of Berlin, and their bearing on modern Secondary and Commercial Education," and "The Oberrealschulen of Prussia," in the volume of "Special Reports on Educational Subjects, 1896-97"; and the articles on "Problems in Prussian Secondary Education," on "Modern Language Teaching in Germany," "Curricula and Programmes of Work for the Higher Schools of Prussia," "The Teaching of Foreign Languages," "The Teaching of Modern Languages in Frankfurt," "The Training of Modern Language Teachers in Germany," and "The Higher Schools of the Grand Duchy of Baden," in the present volume.

given all over industrial Germany. The commercial advance of the German empire, so striking to any visitor to that country, is due to a combination of causes. But one of these causes is the extreme intellectual efficiency of the secondary schools and of the Higher Technical Institutes. The Germans do not mix up these two grades of educational work. The secondary school is organized as the foundation, the Higher Technical Institute as the crown. It is to the non-technical secondary schools and to the highly specialized Technical Institutes, far more than to the elementary schools or evening continuation schools, that those should look who desire to trace the *educational* causes of the commercial progress of the German Empire.

German non classical secondary education prepares a boy to excel in commercial life, but it is not commercial education in any narrow sense. Indeed, the German secondary school authorities rigidly abstain on principle from any attempt at premature specialization in commercial subjects. Nor are the commercial evening continuation schools, admirably conducted though they be, aiming at the objects of an Institut Supérieur de Commerce. And consequently there has arisen during the last few years in business circles in Germany a strong movement in favor of establishing what is called a Handels-hochschule, or Higher School of Commerce.*

In this movement, as in our

* The growth of the movement has been recorded, month by month, in the *Hochschul-Nachrichten* (Akademischer Verlag, Maximilianstrasse, 20 B, Munich). There is now an excellent German magazine devoted to questions of commercial education. It is called the "Zeitschrift für das gesammte Kaufmännische Unterrichtswesen." (Brunswick, Albert Limbach.)

own country, the Chambers of Commerce have taken a leading part. Just as the London Chamber of Commerce has for many years shown a lively interest in the problem of increasing facilities for commercial education, so has the Brunswick Chamber of Commerce specially distinguished itself by the labor it has given to collecting the necessary information. In this the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce has not been behind, and it is in Leipzig that the first German Higher School of Commerce has been established in the present year.

The director of the Municipal School of Commerce at Leipzig, Professor Dr. Raydt, has taken a leading part in the new movement. In an article which has recently been published,* he draws a clear distinction between the three separate types of commercial education — (1) evening classes, (2) commercial schools of the second grade (*i.e.*, doing work of the same level as that done in the evening classes, but provided in the day time with courses more systematically grouped), and (3) the Higher Schools of Commerce. His long experience of work of the first two types has convinced him that there is need for an institution of the third type also. The danger is lest schools of the second grade should attempt to provide, or pretend to offer, the advantages of an Institut Supérieur de Commerce. Dr. Raydt evidently believes such a confusion of functions to be undesirable. If a Higher School of

* "Die erste deutsche Handels-hochschule zu Leipzig." Professor Dr. Raydt has since published a little Denkschrift, entitled "Die Handelshochschule zu Leipzig, die erste in Deutschland." (Leipzig, Max Hesse's Verlag.) Both of these can be seen at the Library of the Education Department. An interesting paper on this Leipzig Institute, by Mr. Laurie Magnus, was read by Sir P. Magnus at the Guildhall Conference in July, held since this report was written.

Commerce is worth having at all, it ought to be of academic rank, equipped like a sort of university college and staffed by men of high intellectual attainment and position. In order that this may be secured, a Higher School of Commerce ought, in Dr. Raydt's judgment, to be organized in the same kind of way as one of the famous Technical High Schools, which have done so much for German industry.* Whether or not such a Higher Commercial Institute should be made an *organic* part of a University is another and very difficult question. The Leipzig University authorities answered the question in the negative. But there is to be close correlation of effort between the Leipzig Handelshochschule and the University of Leipzig. Three of the University professors have seats on the Senate of the Handelshochschule.

Dr. Raydt defines the object of the Handelshochschule to be the raising of the position of the trading classes in social estimation, and their equipment with the higher level of expert knowledge which the conditions of modern industry require. In regard to the first point, it will be remembered that in Germany more social prestige attaches than is the case in this country to the status of highly-educated men. German society is more clearly divided than our own by lines of higher education. It is the second point, however, in Dr. Raydt's

* An import. D. factor is the scale of salaries to be paid to the professors. At Antwerp one of the professors enjoys an income of £800 a year. If the differences in the social claims made on professional men in the two countries are compared, I understand that a salary of £400 a year in Belgium equals a salary of £600 a year in England. The income, therefore, of the professor referred to above is equivalent to £1,200 a year. The professors at Antwerp, being civil servants, have also pension rights.

definition which is of the deeper and more general significance. As international competition becomes more tense; as old-established positions in foreign trade become less secure; as, at every point, economy combined with suitable quality in production becomes more necessary, so is it felt that there is a growing need for the combination of business enterprise, capital and *wide knowledge* in many forms of commercial undertaking, where in former days energy, wealth, and a more limited experience were found to suffice. International trade is becoming more complex; more factors have to be taken into account; the margin of profit becomes smaller; the need for accurate provision more urgent; in a word, the foreign merchant has to know more, to be alive to a wider range of issues, to be more familiar with the *intellectual* aspects of his calling. And it is to fit the foreign merchant of the future with these necessary qualifications that the Higher Schools of Commerce are being called into existence on the Continent.

The Leipzig scheme was discussed and criticised with the thoroughness which marks all educational undertakings in Germany. In June, 1897, a congress was held of the German Association for Promoting Commercial Education. Dr. Raydt undertook to prepare a scheme for a Higher School of Commerce. The Committee of the Leipzig Handels-Lehranstalt took his proposals into close consideration. The Rector of the University of Leipzig, and several of the University professors, were consulted. Finally, it was agreed that the new Higher School of Commerce should not be made an organic part of the University itself, but should be an independent institution, established by the Leipzig Chamber of Com-

merce, with the co-operation of the University and of the existing Handels-Lehranstalt. The German Association for Promoting Commercial Education examined and improved the scheme at two meetings held at Eisenach and Hanover. The President of the Publishers' Association of Leipzig, as representing the vast publishing interests of the city, was also consulted by the promoters of the plan, and finally the organization of the new Higher School of Commerce was satisfactorily settled.

It will provide a course extending over two years. The following classes of students will be admissible:

(a) Those who have passed the leaving examination held at the completion of the *nine years'* course of study in German classical, semi-classical, and non-classical secondary schools (Gymnasien, Realgymnasien, and Oberrealschulen).

(b) Persons engaged in trade who have completed with success a *six years'* course in a German classical, semi-classical or non-classical secondary school (Progymnasien, Realprogymnasien, and Realschulen), and have obtained the certificate for one year's military service as a volunteer.*

(c) Students from German training colleges for elementary school teachers, who have passed the second professional examination for teachers in elementary schools.

(d) Foreigners who show evidence of possessing the required standard of previous education and are over twenty years of age.

Persons will also be admitted to attend occasional courses of lectures, and this privilege will be specially extended to undergraduates of the

* For the educational significance of these technical terms the reader is referred to an article on "Problems of Prussian Secondary Education for Boys" in the present volume.

University of Leipzig and to men already engaged in business life.

The proposed course of study is, in many respects, similar to that of the Antwerp Institut Supérieur de Commerce.* It naturally includes a number of subjects specially interesting to German students—*e.g.*, the Law and Practice of the Insurance of Workmen. In accordance with German academic custom, there will be a Seminar, in which students will have an opportunity of doing more advanced work under the direct supervision of the professors in charge. The Seminar will confer a special diploma.

The Leipzig Handelshochschule is under the direction of a council of twelve members. One of those represents the Saxon Government, one the city of Leipzig, three the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce, three are professors of the University of Leipzig, three are chosen from the staff of the existing Handels-Lehranstalt, and the twelfth member is a Director of Studies co-opted by the other members of the Council. The Council will elect a President of the Handelshochschule for a term of three years, the ratification of the Government being required for their choice. The financial responsibility for the Higher School has been undertaken by the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce. The Director of Studies will act in close co-operation with the professors of the University, in order that there may be no overlapping of educational effort.

On January 14 of the present year (1898), the Home Office of the Kingdom of Saxony signified its approval of the scheme.† The docu-

* For the regulations of the new Handelshochschule at Leipzig, see Appendix VI.

† "Verordnung des Königlichen Ministeriums des Innern zu Dresden, die Begründung einer Handelshochschule betreffend, vom. 14. Januar, 1898."

ment announcing this decision is of some importance, as being the first official memorandum in which one of the German Governments has approved a plan for the establishment of a Higher School of Commerce. It provides an annual subsidy of £250 in aid of the work of the new institution. It promises to establish at a later date a Government examination in commercial subjects, when the first six months' experience has shown how best such an examination should be framed. Thus the educational work of the Handelshochschule will be under the highest guarantees of efficiency. The institution will be on a public basis and under the continuous supervision of the State.

The Saxon Government draws the attention of the promoters of the new undertaking to three other points. First, the vacations must be curtailed within reasonable limits; secondly, the discipline of the students must be carefully watched; and, thirdly, efforts must be made to prevent the establishment at the present time of a number of competing Higher Schools of Commerce in other parts of the German Empire. So widespread is the zeal of business men in Germany to secure the educational advantages of these institutions that plans are on foot for the establishment of Handelshochschulen in Aachen, Hanover, Dresden, and Frankfurt-am-Main. The Aachen project is already certain to be realised. But the Saxon Government expresses the hope that the other schemes may be deferred for the present at all events, and relies on the influence of the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce being directed to secure this end.

Commercial opinion in Germany, however, is not unanimous in favor of the establishment of schools of commerce. There are some rather

bitter sentences on the subject in the annual report of the Hamburg Chamber of Commerce for 1897 (*Jahresbericht der Handelskammer zu Hamburg über das Jahr 1897. Hamburg. Ackerman und Wulff*). "The science of business is a science which must be learned by practical experience. It cannot be picked up on the benches of a classroom. It must be acquired in practical life. A young man trained in a School of Commerce will enter on practical life with his head full of all manner of preconceptions. But, in spite of all his theoretical knowledge, he will have to begin again from the beginning when he enters practical life. The precious time spent by him at the School of Commerce will be largely wasted, and often there will be nothing but his academic tricks of style to remind himself and his associates that he once studied the science of commercial life." There is a good-tempered reply to this in the *Zeitschrift für das gesammte Kaufmannssche Unterrichtswesen* for June, 1898.

VI.

Of the French Higher Schools of Commerce it is unnecessary to say much in the present paper, as a full account of the *École des Hautes Études Commerciales* at Paris has been already published in the volume entitled "Commercial Instruction organized by the Paris Chamber of Commerce," which was prepared by that Chamber for the Chicago World's Fair of 1893.* Moreover, at the International Congress on Technical Education, held in London in the summer of 1897, an admirable report on Higher Commercial Education in France was read.

*This book can be seen at the Education Department Library. It contains translations of all the regulations and of the courses of study.

by Monsieur Jacques Siegfried, to whom this branch of French education is under a heavy debt.*

There are in France at the present time eleven Higher Schools of Commerce recognized by the State. The Director of Technical Instruction in the French Ministry for Commerce and Industry has kindly favored me with the following statistics showing the number of students, in the first and second years respectively, in nine of these schools in 1896-7.

ÉCOLES SUPÉRIEURES DE COMMERCE.

Number of Students at the end of the School Year 1896-7

Name of Institution.	Students of the 1st Year.	Students of the 2nd Year.	Total.
École des Hautes Études Commerciales, Paris	118	128	246
École Supérieure de Commerce, Paris	63	43	106
Institut Commercial de Paris	48	31	79
École Supérieure de Commerce, Bordeaux	60	55	115
École Supérieure de Commerce, Le Havre	41	43	83
École Supérieure de Commerce, Lille	45	51	93
École Supérieure de Commerce, Lyon	78	82	160
École Supérieure de Commerce, Marseille	67	57	124
École Supérieure de Commerce, Rouen	33	—	33
Total	—	—	1042

The Higher School of Commerce at Rouen has now got students in the second year. In 1897 two new Higher Schools of Commerce were opened—viz., at Montpellier and Nancy—making eleven in all, recognized by the State.

The direct Government subsidy towards the maintenance of these schools amounted in 1896 only to £400 (10,000 francs). In former years the grant was larger. In the present year (1897-8) the Government grant for maintenance will

* Printed in the *Journal of the Society of Arts*, July 30, 1897.

cease altogether. The remission of two years' military service, granted to those who obtain the diploma at recognized Higher Schools of Commerce, is regarded as a privilege sufficient to secure the attendance of the necessary number of students. And it is also the aim of the Government to stimulate the initiative of local Chambers of Commerce in a matter which is pre-eminently one of commercial interest.

But, on the other hand, the French Government makes an annual grant of £1,640 for traveling scholarships tenable for periods of two or three years by young men who have obtained the diploma at a recognized Higher School of Commerce. The regulations for the award of these (and other) commercial travelling scholarships are printed in the Appendix to this paper. All the Higher Schools of Commerce have a share in these travelling scholarships, except the schools at Montpellier, Nancy and Rouen, in regard to which no decision had been reached by the Government in October, 1897. Doubtless, however, these schools will in due course share in the privilege.

The movement for higher commercial education is making rapid strides in France. It has the favor of the Government and the support of a large number of eminent merchants.*

* Cp. the following passage in an address delivered at Nancy on October 20, 1897, by M. Boucher, Minister of Commerce: Le ministre s'est ensuite félicité de l'augmentation des candidats aux écoles commerciales: "C'est là, déclarer-il, de la part des familles, une perception bien nette du présent, et de l'avenir. Que ceux qui peuvent croire qu'on vivra de la vie de rentier dans l'avenir renoncent à élever leurs enfants! Que ceux qui pensent que des appointements de fonctionnaire suffiront pour assurer une vie large voient mal l'avenir, eux aussi! Il faut habituer les enfants aux œuvres actives, aux luttes, car ce sont eux qui devront lutter et sauver l'avenir de leurs propres enfants." *Le Temps*, Octobre 21, 1897.

In October, 1897, I had an opportunity, by permission of the French Government, of visiting the *Écoles Supérieures de Commerce* at Paris and at Havre. Unfortunately, at the time of my visit the courses of instruction had not yet begun, but I was allowed to see the buildings, which, in case of the *École des Hautes Études Commerciales*, at Paris, are on a spacious scale. This institution comprises a residential section as well as provision for day students, and also a junior or preparatory department, which is entirely separated from the higher school itself. There is a fine museum of commercial products, an ample and beautiful library, a laboratory, two large lecture theatres, a number of lecture rooms, dining rooms, several recreation rooms, as well as the dormitories, sanatorium, etc., which belong to the Hall of Residence, as we should, perhaps, call it in England. All this admirable provision is due to the liberality of the Paris Chamber of Commerce, which has distinguished itself by its devotion to the cause of commercial education.

Two features in the French system of higher commercial education are peculiar, and seem to call for further inquiry. First, the remission of two out of three years of military service is only granted to four fifths of the students who succeed in gaining a minimum of 65 per cent. of the marks obtainable during the whole course of study. In other words, 20 per cent. of the students who come up to the required minimum, though they are now given the diploma, fail to get the naturally coveted exemption from two years' military service.* It is understood that this regulation is designed as a

sort of goad to stimulate the industry of the students.

Secondly, the visitor to the *École des Hautes Études Commerciales* in Paris is struck by the provision of a number of little chambers devoted to the process of frequent examinations upon the work done in the classes. But these recurrent examinations ("collections," as they would be called at Oxford, only at Paris they are held much more frequently than once a term) are conducted, not by the professors who teach in the classes, but by a special staff of "examineurs." The staff thus comprises two distinct elements, the "professeurs" and the "examineurs." The latter carry on a sort of continuous audit of the students' work. I was assured that the professors and these examiners worked in close concert, but I regretted that I had not further opportunity of ascertaining the educational effects of this rather anomalous system.

In Paris I became conscious of the existence of two very different currents of opinion, as to the value, for commercial purposes, of the *Écoles Supérieures de Commerce*. A friend who is the active partner in one of the most famous publishing houses in Paris, spoke very frankly to me on the subject. And I may add that great weight attaches to his opinion, not only because he has proved himself to possess the business faculty in a pre-eminent degree, but because he has made a very careful study of the French and English systems of secondary and higher education. He gave it as his opinion that the success of the *Écoles Supérieures de Commerce* was mainly due to the regulation granting to a certain number of holders of their diplomas exemption from two out of three years of military service. "This is the root of the matter: it is not that parents really care about

* Until the change of regulations made in April, 1895, the unlucky fifth were deprived of the diploma as well.

higher commercial education. The schools have no real influence on the higher walks of trade. Far better give a boy a first-rate secondary education and then let him travel. And such a secondary education must be liberal and wide. Mere specialization in commercial subjects does harm instead of good. These higher schools of commerce may be first-rate in producing specialists. But what you want at the head of a business is a man of energy, of strong common-sense, of imagination, of knowledge of the world. The head of a business can hire a specialist. What is absolutely essential is that the chief of a commercial house should be a man of character, not simply crammed full of knowledge."

I think it right to report the substance of my friend's opinions, because it is well to hear both sides, especially when put with trenchant force. A few days later, at Havre, I talked over the same question with Monsieur Dany, the distinguished Director of the *École Supérieure de Commerce* in that town. He admitted at once that many people thought the higher schools of commerce no good for trade. But he believed these critics to be wrong, and that the balance of commercial opinion was gradually turning against them. "You cannot" (I give the general substance of his remarks) "learn in an office all that you learn here. True, you cannot learn here what you learn in an office. Both are necessary; the two are complementary. In the office you learn office routine; here you learn general ideas. The wider your basis of general knowledge, the more quickly can you specialise afterwards with effect. If you go into an office too soon, you miss your chance of general education. There are, in point of fact, two distinct classes of business men. The

first must begin their practical work in their 'teens. They cannot afford to wait. They miss their chance of systematic education. Except under fortunate circumstances, they will remain in subordinate posts all their lives. The other class are the sons of rich merchants, intended for their fathers' business. These can afford to wait. It is well for them to know a great deal about the general conditions of their calling before they actively enter upon it. Otherwise they will be more or less dependent on their own paid servants." The social position of trade, he continued, is rising in France. Formerly a successful merchant put his boy into a profession, or sent him into the Army. But now that a commercial career enjoys much higher consideration, wealthy parents are more and more putting their sons into their own business. And for success you need not only energy and character, not only trained brain power, but a wide range of appropriate knowledge. And that, say the advocates of higher commercial education, you can get at a Higher School of Commerce. The retort of the opponents of this form of specialised educational institution is that a clever young man who has been well educated at a secondary school can get this wide range of appropriate commercial knowledge a great deal better by travel and by a period of service in a business house abroad. Perhaps, as Sir B. Samuelson has put it, the truth is that the choice of the parent ought to depend on the character and disposition of the young man.

I asked Monsieur Dany whether he found the boys from the "modern" sides of secondary schools better fitted for the work of the *École Supérieure de Commerce* than boys from the classical side. He

said that it should be so, but was not always so as a matter of fact. He gets very promising pupils from the classical side. The reason is, he thought, that the cleverest boys were still to be found on the classical sides of secondary schools. But is this because the classical studies are best, or because the most intelligent boys still pursue them? The answer, he thought, was that the time will come, but has not come yet, when the boys from the "modern" side will be the better. The discipline of Latin and Greek is not absolutely necessary to culture. But the alternative discipline must be made very good and very searching if it is ever going to compete for the best boys with the classical education. As things are, the classical education often turns out the boys who do best when they take

up commercial subjects. A manufacturer at the Berlin Conference on Secondary Education, in 1890, said something of the same sort. And Professor Layton, at the Institut Supérieur de Commerce, at Antwerp, strongly maintains that, up to sixteen, it does not much matter whether a boy is taught classics or not, "provided that he is turned into a thinking animal." Premature cramming is disastrous. The thing to aim at in the early stages of intellectual education is not the amassing of a great deal of specific knowledge but the development of real interest. The mental powers must not be overburdened, but so trained as to be easily mobilized and used with swift effect on the object to hand.—*Special Reports, Education Department, London.*

(To be continued.)

RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS.

PERCY J. ROBINSON, B.A., TORONTO.

The problems of education have been so thoroughly considered that it would seem that any further progress towards their solution must be made through the avenues of experience rather than by means of discussion. The importance, however, of these problems is conceded by all, and as wealth and culture increase in this new country new aspects of these old questions are continually arising which seem to call for more than passing attention.

Among these the education of boys is a subject deserving of careful thought, and one which may well attract to itself the attention of all who feel an interest in the welfare of the Church and the State. The founding of a new residential school for boys under Presbyterian auspices suggests that some at least

have appreciated the importance of this question and have endeavored to meet a need which has long existed and which has of late been assuming even greater proportions.

In this country a boarding-school education is undoubtedly more expensive than that which can be obtained in the Public and High Schools of the province, and in the present exceedingly efficient state of the latter naturally the question is asked, Has a boarding-school advantages to offer commensurate with the increased expenditure entailed?

Without detracting from the excellent education imparted in Ontario schools it may safely be said that these schools have not attained the highest ideal of education possible. Our system is perhaps superior to any other national school system, and its efficiency will not be im-

paired by the establishing of residential schools, but 'here is an educational work which it can never do and which can only be effectively performed by properly organized and equipped boarding-schools.

Education is not merely a training of the intellectual faculties, for that would be to forget that there is on the one hand a physical nature requiring careful attention, and on the other hand a spiritual nature which it is perilous to neglect. The most efficient educational instrument will have for its object the training of all three, and if successful will produce well balanced and fully developed characters.

This then should be the aim of the residential school which aspires to discharge faithfully the work within its sphere. It should aim to produce not mere scholars or mere athletes, but the object should be the production of well trained minds and healthy bodies and both subordinate to vigorous, manly Christian character. An end undoubtedly difficult of attainment, but if even an approach is made to such a standard a good work will certainly be accomplished.

Now, in the nature of the case the boarding-school is the only institution which can undertake this threefold educational work and do it effectively. At present the day school, the Sunday school and the home divide the work among them.

In regard to the latter no one will be so foolish as to deny that until a boy is ten or eleven years of age there is no place where he can receive such care and attention as in the home; but after that age, when the basis of his character has been pretty surely laid, can home life do so much for him as is sometimes supposed? He will spend the most of his time in the day school and the

best part of his play-hours with schoolmates, ranging at liberty sometimes far from home, so that the oversight of the average busy parent is of necessity very limited. No home exists solely for the education of the children. The father is occupied with business and the mother has social and household duties which prevent her from giving more than a portion of her time to the training of the older children, and a growing boy has many educational needs which the home can hardly hope to satisfy. He needs the companionship of other boys. He needs to learn the lessons of self control, of generosity and unselfishness; and these lessons can be learned better in the broader life of a school than in the narrow limits of the family.

The day school, again, while it may give an excellent mental education can hardly pretend to train the boy's physical nature. Regular hours, plain food and daily exercise are necessary, and the day-school is not in a position to supervise these. Nor are the provincial schools at present able to give a satisfactory moral and religious training, and this lack is but poorly compensated for by the hour a week spent in the Sunday school.

The boarding-school takes the place of all three, the home, the day school and the Sunday school, and by discharging all three functions it gains additional strength and is able more effectively to do the work of each.

Such a school requires ample room for sports of all kinds, and should if possible be situated where the outlook is cheerful and picturesque. Natural beauty has a powerful though silent influence upon the development of character. Hence country life for growing boys is preferable to the restless activity of the city. A boarding school ought to

be the ideal home on a larger scale. Boys love to roam in the woods, to explore, to fish, to swim, and the more of these healthful and innocent recreations obtainable in the neighborhood the better. If the small boy's time is occupied with employments of this kind he is not very likely to indulge in questionable pursuits.

The opportunities for companionship and friendship at a school of this kind are such as no home can offer. For a boy to associate with others of his own age is an education in itself. How many an idle hour is passed simply because the small boy has no one with whom to associate, and, if he be a city boy, no place to play except the narrow limits of the front lawn or the backyard. The more good healthy play a boy can get the better for him in his after life. Few parents have the time or the ability or the inclination to superintend and organize their boy's games and recreations.

Let the boy's mind be occupied from the time he gets up in the morning till he goes to bed at night

with a well organized routine of lessons, out door exercise and play, and let him spend the evening in preparation for next day's classes, and his life, if he is an ordinary healthy boy, will be a happy one. He will be busy all day either working or playing, and when night comes he will be ready for a sound sleep to fit him for the duties of the next day. Such a life will of necessity be a healthy one and when his school days are over he will start out with a good store of health and happy memories.

These are a few of the advantages afforded by the training of such schools. Others might easily be enumerated. The boy gains, through his intimate relations with other boys and with his masters, a knowledge of humanity and a knowledge of himself which will stand him in good stead when he goes out into the real world beyond the school walls. He has a certain confidence in himself which will carry him through many difficulties and without doubt an accurate knowledge of his own faults and failings.

THE HIGH SCHOOL.*

BY H. B. WILLIAMS, SANDUSKY.

It is not my purpose to attempt any discussion of plans for promoting High School sentiment or methods of developing the same in general. I want to present some matters which pertain to the best methods of inducing young people to enter the High School and to remain throughout the course.

The public High School is now recognized as a necessary part of our system of free education. It is an institution of comparatively recent growth, but it has won its way in the

face of opposition until every city, village and many country districts now support a High School.

The following data taken from the report of the Commissioner of Schools for 1898 indicate the status of the Ohio High School as far as figures go. Out of a total enrollment of 837,152, there were 55,452, or 6.6 per cent, in High Schools. In township districts alone, out of an enrollment of 382,641, there were 5,347, or about 1 $\frac{3}{8}$ per cent. in High Schools. In separate districts, out

* Inaugural address of the President of the Department of Superintendence.

of an enrollment of 449,164, there were 50,105, or a little more than 11 per cent. in High Schools. The total value of High School property was placed at \$4,425,798, and the total amount paid High School teachers in salaries was \$1,023,167, while the amount of salaries paid to teachers of all grades was \$8,301,395. A study of these figures shows conclusively that the High School is not the burden upon the State that it is sometimes charged with being.

But these figures do not accurately represent the scope of the influence of the High School as far as the number of children benefited by it is concerned. Indirectly it reaches a much larger part of the youth of the State than is indicated by these figures. It must not be forgotten that the public High School performs an important function in the preparation of teachers for the elementary school. Statistics show that between 75 per cent. and 90 per cent. of the grade teachers in Ohio city schools received their academic training in the city and village High Schools. Many High Schools in this State give a course of a year or more in professional preparation for teaching. Besides furnishing a goal to which the pupils of the elementary grades may look as the culmination of the school system, the High School stands in this important relation to the grades, viz., that it supplies the elementary school with its graduates for teachers. Its influence, then, is not to be estimated wholly by the number of pupils who enter it.

The sentiment regarding higher education in a community has much to do with the interest in the High School. But teachers, unless they have taught in a school for a long period, are not responsible for the attitude of the public toward the

High School. A healthy, abiding High School sentiment is a matter of slow growth. Since the High School follows the elementary school, many pupils are led to enter it simply because the machinery of the system carries them forward. But there is a gap between the grades and the High School wide enough to afford a convenient dropping-out place. It is safe to say that at least 20 per cent. of the pupils promoted to the High School never enter it. How shall these pupils be held?

The eighth year teachers should be in hearty sympathy with the High School. No one else has the opportunities to impress upon their pupils the advantages of a High School education which these teachers have. They should not only be familiar with the outline of the course of study, but they should be familiar with the subject matter as well. They can, then, seize upon every opportunity that arises in their work to direct attention to the High School. To say to an eighth year class when an interesting subject in science comes up in their work which cannot be dealt with satisfactorily on account of the pupils' lack of preparation, "When you get to the High School, all this will be made clear," will prove of more effect than a dissertation on the advantages of higher education. There is nothing so attractive to a boy as a machine. I know a prominent Ohio school man who was influenced to go to college by witnessing a few experiments in elementary science. It is an excellent practice for the superintendent or some one else to visit the eighth year grades occasionally and conduct a few simple experiments with apparatus taken from the High School laboratory. This work can be done in connection with the study of geography, physiology or nature study, and will not only

furnish an opportunity of creating an interest in the High School but of supplementing the regular work of the grade as well.

But after all effort has been made to point pupils to the High School, they must be exposed to the temptations of the summer vacation. Many of them leave school in June without any fixed determination with reference to their next year's work. Some go to work and learn the luxury of having spending money of their own. Thus in various ways the attention of pupils who have been promoted to the High School is called away from their school work and many of them are lost to the school. An active effort on the part of the eighth year teachers to incite interest in the High School must be supplemented by some plan to secure the pupils' decisions regarding their next year's work before they leave school for their vacation. *Permit me to suggest a plan which has proven successful in some measure in my own experience.* I grant that it would not signify much in small schools where the eighth year and High Schools are located in the same building. In fact under such conditions *no plan of this kind is necessary*, as the eighth year pupils are already more or less familiar with the appointments of the High School, but in a large school it will be found helpful.

During the latter part of the school year keep the advantages of the High School very prominently before the eighth year pupils. Plan a promotion exercise in which the pupils who are to be advanced will be brought together. The presence of a large number who have completed the elementary course will prove an inspiration to some pupils. Young people are influenced greatly by the actions of their schoolmates.

Take advantage of this characteristic of human nature. By all means use the High School assembly room for these exercises. Provide a program to be given by representatives of the different schools and use as many pupils as time will permit. At the close of the exercises present each pupil with a promotion certificate which states on its face that it entitles the owner to enter the High School. Send out invitations in advance to the parents of the pupils to be present. Let the superintendent or High School principal take a few minutes to explain the courses of study offered by the High School and to impress upon pupils and parents the advantage of deciding upon a course of study before the beginning of the summer vacation. For the convenience of parents and in order to reach them all, it is well to present each pupil with an outline of the courses of study with sufficient explanations appended to make it easily understood. A printed copy of a brief, pointed address to parents setting forth the advantages of the High School and the necessity for broader preparation than the elementary school offers, should accompany the copy of the course of study. The superintendent, High School principal and eighth year teachers should proffer their assistance to pupils and parents in selecting a course of study. Appoint a time for such conferences. After the exercises are concluded, have a company of first year High School pupils conduct the eighth year pupils through the High School rooms. I would select the first year pupils, since they have been out of the grades but a year, and they will be known by the eighth year pupils of the school from which they came only a year ago. Let everything possible be done to create a favorable impression. A simple sort of

reception might be planned to give an opportunity for the pupils who come from different buildings to become acquainted. As will readily be seen the whole object of this scheme is to direct the attention of the young people to the High School—its rooms, laboratories, course of study and general equipment before they enter upon their summer vacation. By the time the schools close it will be known how many of the class are undecided as to whether they will enter the High School or not, and all such cases should be looked after personally by the superintendent or High School principal.

When the young people are once in the High School, the problem of holding them must be faced. There is usually a loss of at least twenty-five per cent. in the first year class. This shrinkage is produced by a number of causes, some of which are due to deficiencies in the pupil and others to a failure to adapt the High School system to the needs of beginners. Of the latter causes, there are three that are deserving of particular mention.

The first cause is the failure on the part of High School teachers to appreciate the significance of the new birth which pupils experience about the age at which they enter the High School. Every one who has studied children either as parent or teacher, knows the changes which come in the life of the child with the ushering in of the period of adolescence. This stage of life practically coincides with the time at which the pupil enters the High School. From earliest childhood up to this time the child's activities have been prompted by influences not under his own control. His life has been the result of tendencies which have been transmitted to him by his ancestors; but now he awakes

to a new order of things. His own personality begins to develop and assert itself. He stands in the face of these mysteries perplexed and helpless. At this stage we begin to discover the qualities which shall go to determine the character of the adult. This is the period in life which has most to do with shaping character. It is a time when the youth needs most of all the help of a sympathetic teacher who understands him. If he finds the personal help which his condition demands, he remains in school, but if he fails to find the sympathy which his nature craves, he will go elsewhere. I firmly believe that many of the first year High School pupils who withdraw in the early part of the first term belong to this class.

The second cause is similar in some respects to the first but it arises from an entirely different condition. It is the result of the abrupt change from elementary to High School methods. When a pupil enters the High School he cannot fail to observe the difference in his environment there and in the grades. Every superintendent and High School teacher has observed the lost and unsettled condition of first year High School pupils at the opening of the fall term. They wander about aimlessly, not knowing where to begin with their work nor how to do it. The reason is not difficult to discover. The transition from the elementary to the secondary school is a wide one, much wider it seems to me than we are accustomed to think. There is little similarity in the conditions. In the first eight years of his school course, the child has been associated for a year at a time with one teacher. Special teachers come and go but they do not break the spell which binds him to the regular teacher. His study periods as well as his recitation

periods are presided over by the same teacher. One of the greatest dangers of the graded school system grows out of this condition. I refer to the temptation to give pupils too much assistance and thus rob them of all opportunity for self-activity. The more interested and enthusiastic the teacher, the greater is the danger of erring in this respect unless he is constantly on his guard. The teacher in the rural school with his multiplicity of classes is prevented by the system under which he is working from making the serious mistake of giving too much aid to his pupils. Then in the grades the personality of the teachers has free course in its influence on the pupil. The associations of the school bring teacher and pupil into close personal touch. The grade teacher has an opportunity of moulding character through his own example which no one outside the circle of the home possesses. All these circumstances tend to produce in the pupil a feeling of strong dependence upon the teacher. But when the pupil enters the High School for the first time, how different are the conditions! If the High School is a large one, he is thrown in with a large class of pupils, many of whom are strange to him; he is seated it may be in a large study room among hundreds of pupils and he moves from it to the recitation rooms; or he may be seated in a room of smaller dimensions where he will be visited by three or four teachers during the day. Heretofore, he was associated with one teacher all day long; now he comes in contact with no one teacher long enough or closely enough to feel the touch of his personality. Is it strange that the pupil should feel lost and helpless under these new surroundings? Like the Jews in captivity in a

strange land, they hang their "harps on the willows" and weep over their loneliness.

But where shall we look for the remedy for this trouble? I reply to the High School rather than to the elementary school. The advocates of departmental teaching urge its introduction into the grades as the best solution of this question of making the transition from the grades to the High School less abrupt. They argue that this system will cultivate self-dependence in the grammar grade pupils so that when they come to the High School they will feel at home with the conditions there. I grant that that much is true, but think of the cost. To me one of the greatest blessings that can come to a pupil in the plastic, formative stage of his character is the influence of a noble teacher of strong personality. It will count for more in the end than all else. It is the *summum bonum* of our educational system, and any plan which deprives the pupil of this influence is, in my judgment, faulty. My own belief is that the gap between the grades and the High School can be partially closed through a plan of organization of the High School teaching force that will in no way weaken the High School but on the contrary add to its strength. I would place the first year pupils in charge of the strongest teachers in the High School. Teachers who not only know how to give instruction but also how to reach boys and girls of this particular age. I believe that it is an excellent plan to occasionally promote to the High School a teacher who has had successful experience in the eighth grade. It is better to assign a weak teacher to the upper classes than to the incoming class. Here, then, it seems to me is the solution of this

perplexing question. The High School must come down to meet the elementary school in its methods of dealing with first year pupils.

The third cause which limits the patronage of the High School is the lack of freedom in the matter of choosing a course of study. The statement is made above, that last year, there were 11 per cent. of the total enrollment in separate districts in the High Schools. In the larger city schools the per cent. is very much less. Last year in Cincinnati out of a total enrollment of 43,458, 2,249, or a little more than five per cent., were in the High School. In Cleveland there were 3,233 out of a total enrollment of 49,727, a little more than six and one half per cent. in the High School. These results seem very unsatisfactory when we consider the advantages of such training as the High Schools of these cities afford. The question forces itself upon us, What has the course of study to do with the High School enrollment? In the Galesburg High School, where an elective system has been in use for the past four years, the enrollment has increased from 234 to 518 pupils, while the increase in the enrollment below the High School has been but nine per cent. The fact that 294 or 35 more than half of the pupils enrolled in this High School chose some other course than the usual Latin and Scientific courses would seem to argue that the phenomenal growth in this school is due to the freedom that is given in the selection of studies. The High School should aim to extend its influence as far as is consistent with a fair standard of work. To plan courses of study which are adapted to the wants of any particular class is contrary to the spirit of our free school system. The High School must recognize mental

differences, and adjust itself to them. I have had opportunities to observe the influence of expanding High School courses by the introduction of new courses in, at least, two Ohio High Schools. In both cases, not only the High School enrollment was greatly increased, but the number choosing the orthodox courses grew almost correspondingly. The average High School pupil is democratic in his ideas. Say to him you must study Latin and in many cases he will refuse to enter the High School, whereas if he has a choice in the selection of his course he will be very likely to choose the Latin course.

In the process of multiplying courses, there is a great danger of sacrificing thoroughness for breadth. Many small High Schools make the mistake of overloading their course; consequently no part of the work is done well. It is certainly better to do two years of thorough work than to give a smattering of four years' work in two. While every High School owes it to its district to offer as broad a course, as possible, yet it should offer no broader course nor no more courses, than its facilities for good work will justify.

But what shall be said of an entirely elective course? The question is a debatable one. I can see opportunities for good in such a system. Under the influence of strong teachers who will be consulted by parents and pupils in the matter of selecting courses, it would, doubtless, succeed well.

One of the important advantages which the graded school possesses over the mixed or ungraded school is the stimulus to the pupil which comes to him from pursuing a carefully planned course of study. There is valuable training in doing a prescribed amount of work in a certain

period of time. I am old foggy enough to believe in the value of a little of the discipline of the disagreeable. To be able to concentrate all one's powers of mind upon the solution of an uninteresting and, possibly, distasteful problem is a valuable accomplishment. There is no one who succeeds to any degree in life but must have this sort of self-control put to the test very often. I am in sympathy with the spirit of an elective course but not with the letter. I cannot persuade myself that young people ought to be graduated from our High Schools without, at least, an effort to master elementary Algebra. I am free to say, however, that after a pupil had demonstrated his entire lack of

ability to acquire a knowledge of the rudiments of Algebra, if he showed ability in other lines of study I would not hesitate to sign his diploma. But such cases are rare.

Most High Schools now maintain from three to five courses of study so arranged as to prepare for the future work of the pupil. With this number of courses and with a certain degree of freedom in the matter of substituting studies, if proper effort is made by the eighth grade and High School teachers to lead pupils to select the courses best adapted to their different tastes and capabilities, I see no reason for more freedom than is now possible under the present system.--*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

EDITORIAL NOTES.

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

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

Since my return from Britain where I spent my summer holidays this year, I have been frequently asked, What have you seen? Anything to tell your co-workers and the country of work being done in the homeland in education? The brief answer to be true would be, "Much in every way."

The readers of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY will remember that the editor visited Syracuse last Christmas and that afterwards he gave his impressions of what he saw and heard in the pages of this magazine. It is gratifying to know that fellow-workers and others in both countries appreciated the brief sketches. The editor does not expect to be anything like so successful in dealing with Britain for very obvious reasons, though he is not forgetful of the admonition, "hitch your waggon to a star."

Our note this month is on the "Open door to the High School." Some details were given in the early months of this year in this Journal about the great facilities, by comparison, afforded to intending entrants to the High Schools in the State of New York, all their arrangements strongly tending to make easy the passing of pupils from the Public Schools to the High Schools.

The writer could find no trace there of a practice which has prevailed in Ontario for some years of opening the door of entrance to the High School only once in each twelve months and then closing it so rigidly that it is almost impossible to cause it even to stand ajar wide enough to force a boy in. Here is one example of what happens, not infrequently, in our enlightened and free country. This

month (Sept., 1899) a father called on the writer concerning the admission of his son. His son had written at the entrance examination in June and passed in each subject except one in which he failed by two points, he failed also on the total. His father wished his son to begin the study of languages. And he thought that since the boy had done so well in his class during the year he should be admitted; the lad had a good record. The father was given all necessary directions how to proceed in order to secure the admission of his son. After an interval of four or five days the father returned, stating that he so far had not succeeded in his object, and was afraid that he was going to fail because he had received so little encouragement in his efforts for the admission of his son, who would lose a year, if he was not admitted. The Principal of the High School or Collegiate was powerless and had to confess that such was the case.

Contrast with this the ready welcome a pupil would receive in London, England. "Boys and girls are admitted to the school who have received an education equivalent to the Sixth Standard of the Educational Code, or who shall exhibit such exceptional knowledge as shall warrant the Governing Body in assuming that they will be able to profit by the advanced instruction offered. Prospectus Day School, S. W. Polytechnic, Chelsea." Admission is granted at any time.

"Boys are admitted into the school by the High Master at the commencement of each term. There are three terms in the year; an examination for admission is held at the beginning of each term." This is the way the door is kept open all the year and since 1515 at the Manchester Grammar School.

At the Glasgow High School boys are taken in to begin their

studies at this ancient and celebrated school at the age of seven or eight years, that is, into the Junior or English part of the school, and at any time, but here we have more than English taught, some other language is included in the course of study. These schools in London, Manchester and Glasgow are simply selected to show the universal practice which obtains in Great Britain. If we go to the continent of Europe, this pronounced encouragement is more emphatic than in Britain. In Germany, for instance, the rule is, that every scholar who can at all, must proceed to the Secondary School for in the Secondary School the parting of the ways really appears.

To show what educators in the United States of America think about this important question, we this month reproduce the inaugural address of Mr. H. B. Williams, President of the Department of Superintendence, delivered at Put-in-Bay Island, June, 1899.

It is high time our mode of entrance to High Schools was carefully re-considered and modified. It is also most essential, to say the least, that some of our fellow workers in the Public Schools should look further afield than the Public school.

The editor of the *Popular Science Monthly* does not omit the educational side of things in his excellent periodical, but our readers will hardly look with less excitement on his latest statement concerning the modern child's capacity for work than they would on the announcement of some marvellous invention. "One broad fact," says that gentleman, "stares the educational world in the face, and that is the average child has to-day, at a given age, a less capacity for learning than the

average child of thirty years ago." Is this mere opinion or is it really a statement of fact? There is work here for the educationist who delights to collect his *data* by circular, and until well established *data* have come to hand it will be safer for all of us not to take the editor of the great scientific periodical at his word.

The teacher is not always safe from the rigor of the magistrate, who often has to punish, in discipline trials, the wrong person, as he not unfrequently has to say in private after the court has closed. This time the charge of assault, however, came from the teacher, and it is the assailing patron that is fined. There is no need to mention names. The lawyer for the plaintiff stated that a boy had been guilty of disobedience and had to be punished across the hand with a cane. The defendant, a woman, had gone to the school to raise a disturbance over the matter, though it does not appear that there was any relationship between her and the punished boy. The teacher asked the defendant to leave the schoolroom, but she, having refused, he had to eject her. In the porchway the infuriated woman inflicted a bruise on the teacher's forehead and also broke his watch-chain. The Court imposed a fine with an alternative of fourteen days in jail.

As a specimen of the criticism which is not unfrequently met with we publish in this issue report of schools in the county of Simcoe, by Inspectors Morgan, Day and McKee. Mr. Morgan is the most outspoken of the three. Plainly, we must reach out towards an education more in contact with the life of our people. Inspectors and masters in our schools should take the lead in

showing what direction we should take. If alteration is required in our programme of studies let us change to meet the ever-changing conditions of our country. Expansion, freedom, life we must have.

The first month of the year's work, after the pleasant midsummer recess, has again begun, with its crowding duties to every educational worker, and we hasten to send greetings to all our co-workers, readers or non-readers. How often has it been said, even by citizens who have never experienced the trials that beset the pathway of the earnest, conscientious teacher, that no other calling in the world is of the importance of school directorship, and how often is the statement being repeated in our own times! And yet it must be confessed that the teacher's rewards are still for the most part subjective—the direct influence for good upon his own soul arising from the soul improvement of those under his directorship. And the teacher who does not know of these rewards nor the satisfaction they bring can seldom take kindly to the close of the holiday season. The holiday season is a reward to all teachers, and perhaps the world may yet come to see how important a well-spent recess is to the cause of education; just as the teacher's duties may at some future time bring with them the higher remunerations. In sending our greetings we plead with and for our fellow-workers a greater measure of co-operation in every effort to raise the standing of the teacher. The prophet, who interrupts the ordinary routine, has always had to meet the neglect or disrespect of those whom he would reform. His very originality is taken as a sign of madness. His words and actions are incessantly frictional. But as soon as there arises a "school of the pro-

phets" to foster his views and further his aims there is a reaction. His originality becomes the common way of looking at things. The extraordinary of one generation becomes the ordinary of the succeeding generation, and the prophet becomes scented after all with the incense of the hero worshippers. The teacher may get a whiff now and again of such incense as his faithfulness comes to be recognized in the community where he labors. But we would have more of a reward even than this for our teachers. We would have them removed beyond the prospect of penury when

their task is done. We would have their emoluments made commensurate with the importance of the work they have to perform, and, when we plead for co-operation in this direction, we plead for what, as every sensible citizen knows, has realized the raising of the status of every profession or calling in the land. "The laborer is worthy of his hire," and, if our teachers will only rally round the principle, the fifteen-dollar-a-month teacher will have no place in our educational economics, nor yet the silly competitions for positions at the lowest salary.

CURRENT EVENTS.

Inspector Morgan, North Simcoe, reported as follows:

"I beg to present my report for 1898 with schedule attached, and desire to add one or two observations on topics which seem to me important.

I hope that you will at this session pass the usual grant of \$50 for the promotion examinations. In this connection let me say I believe these examinations would be much cheaper and in every way more beneficial were they uniform throughout the county. Acting on this idea, I took the opportunity (after consultation with Inspector Day) at a Union Convention with the teachers of East Simcoe, of having a committee appointed to hold a joint examination with uniform papers. Unfortunately though, the representatives from East Simcoe saw difficulties where I do not think that they exist, and so the committee reported against a union.

The Continuation Classes still do good work. I do not approve of their existence unless there are two teachers in the school. I do not

recommend them unless there are three, lest the many pupils should suffer for the advancement of two or three. I cannot but think that, on the principle of the greatest good to the greatest number, part of the money spent on secondary education would be better expended in the encouragement and maintenance of these Continuation Classes. Some years ago, against strenuous opposition, I strongly urged a more practical and business education. The recent changes made by the department have tended steadily in this direction, but they have been too late to stem the torrent of professionalism, which, to my thinking, has done and is doing so much injury throughout Ontario. Similarly I have for a long time warmly advocated the fitting of our system the more thoroughly to meet the practical needs of this busy age. Agriculture has been put on the timetable, but nothing will be done, indeed, until teachers are themselves taught that they cannot teach it. Quite recently, however, I notice that a movement is on foot to

establish schools in which boys will be taught the mechanical arts and girls will be instructed in kindred pursuits. If these efforts are to be successful, however, the Department of Education must take up the question more firmly and liberally than at present appears likely, and the house must approach the question without any political feeling, if such a thing be possible.

I have very unwillingly come to the conclusion that in some respects at least we have not improved very much on the condition of affairs which obtained twenty-five years ago. We do too much spoon feeding for our children now-a-days. The salaries are disgracefully low, and there is an over-production of teachers without either experience or sense of responsibility. Each of these two evils is, in turn, increasing the other, and so long as these two conditions obtain I see no hope for improvement. The remedy is yet to be found.

Yet the vast majority of teachers are working honestly according to their ability, and should anything occur to change my sphere of labor, and so move me from Barrie, I shall never cease to take the deepest interest in the educational welfare of the county, to whose service I have given twenty-eight of the best years of my life."

MR. M'KEE REPORTS PROGRESS.

The following are a few facts gathered from a lengthy report by Inspector McKee, of South West Simcoe:

Eighty-seven rural schools with ninety-six departments; six public schools with twenty six departments; fifty-one brick school houses, one stone, one log, and forty-three frame buildings and grounds are valued at \$125,000, and the furnishings \$23,000.

Of the 122 teachers employed sixty-six are males and fifty-six females; forty-five have Normal training, and all others have passed through the Model; seven hold first-class certificates, thirty-nine second-class and seventy-six third-class. Highest salary to male teacher, \$750; female, \$350; average, \$350 and \$275 respectively. \$40,000 was paid in purchasing sites and buildings.

8,000 children of school age; thirty-two not attending school at all during the year; average attendance, 4132 or about fifty-two per cent.

Over 800 trees were planted during the year. Many of the school houses have greatly improved in appearance, inside and out, and the grounds have put on a clean, comfortable and healthy appearance.

Fine new brick school houses are taking the places of the old frame ones, the houses are being better furnished, and some of them ornamented with plants in the summer and made handsome with pictures.

MR. DAY IS DISSATISFIED.

Inspector Day, of East Simcoe, after referring to the certificates held by the various teachers, says:

You will thus see that the education of the great majority of the pupils in our schools is still entrusted to third class teachers—often to mere boys and girls, whose character is almost as unformed as that of the pupils. The formation of character is the prime work of the school. How can this be done well by teachers who are too immature to know properly what the word means? Could the Minister of Education be induced to raise the age for entering on the work of teaching? I am certain that at one bound the schools would gain much in efficiency." Mr. Day asked the Council to send a resolution (if they

thought right to do so) to the Department, asking for the age to be raised, thus showing that the Council is aware of "one" of the weak points of the system.

Other facts gleaned from the report were as follows:

Average salary \$287 compared with \$300 in 1897. The percentage of attendance was as follows:—Orillia, 43; Medonte, 45; Tay, 44; Matchedash, 35. This low average was attributed mainly to (1) the long distance many pupils have to go to attend the school; (2) the bad roads at certain times of the year; (3) many parents are careless and so greedy of gain that they keep the pupils home to work before the children have received even the rudiments of an education; (4) Truancy Act has been a failure.

NORMAL SCHOOL REOPENS.

The formal opening of the Normal School session of 1899 took place in the hall of the school August 17. All the students, numbering about 120, the majority being ladies, were present.

Principal Scott in a few words heartily welcomed the students, and expressed the hope that the term might be most successful.

Mr. Millar, Deputy Minister of Education, followed. In his preliminary remarks he stated that he wished distinctly to be understood as speaking in a private capacity, and not as voicing the opinion of the Education Department. His visit to Massachusetts was made during his vacation, and his investigation of the school system of the State had been conducted more for his own personal information than for anything else. Almost the first thing that struck him in regard to the system was the extent of the control exercised by municipalities. Unlike the school system of the State of New

York, which in many respects resembled in certain features of centralization what existed in Ontario, there was an almost entire absence of any authority exercised by the State Department of Education over the schools of the different municipalities. It was true the department had several agents who visited various localities, addressed public meetings and advised trustees, teachers and superintendents. They had no authority, however, and the commonwealth of Massachusetts was so jealous of any encroachment upon local control that no attempt would be made to frame regulations for the government of the schools of any city or town. Each town or city, therefore, determined what text-books were to be used, what courses of study were to be taken up, what rules were to govern the management of the schools, and fixed the qualifications for teachers, as well as awarded them certificates. Even a State certificate from one of the Normal schools became a legal qualification only with the consent of the trustees. In some cities, Boston for instance, only those who had been trained in the city Normal schools and examined by its supervisors were permitted to become teachers.

Entrance to a university by means of a certificate from the Principal and his staff, rather than by examination, was becoming more and more the rule in all parts of the United States. In the western States, especially, this plan had long been in use, and only one university in Massachusetts now required admission by examination. Every United States high school master with whom Mr. Millar conferred favored admission by certificate. Wherever this method had been adopted there had been no desire to return to the old plan. The

judgment of the staff was regarded as superior to that of any examining board Pupils were promoted from one class to another usually on a year's course, and when they had completed the necessary year's instruction and had taken the subjects prescribed they received graduation certificates which, if the course was covered as required by a university, admitted them as matriculated students without any further examination. The effect was conceded to be most beneficial on the discipline of the school, and secured more thorough work, and afforded a better guarantee of fitness to take up university work. Continuing, Mr. Millar said that the effect of the system was to relieve high school masters, to a very large extent, from that constant strain to which teachers were subjected in Ontario, on account of the desire to prepare pupils for matriculation. It might be asked: How may scholarships be determined unless there is a written examination? In reply it might be said that competitive examinations were now condemned by almost all educationists. The work of the high schools, he held, should not be determined to meet the aims of the few pupils who wished to show their superiority as intellectual athletes. There need be no fear of the importunities of parents when a method of this kind was properly understood. The teachers of Ontario are worthy of being trusted, and by placing the matter of promotion to a university in their own hands it would add to the prestige of the staff and relieve masters from seeing some of their best students plucked, and some of the weakest students, who would never be recommended by the teachers, slip through an examination. The crowd of students at Canadian universities who are now

"starred" in the first year was sufficient to condemn the present system of matriculation examinations.

He considered that in character of teaching, and in the training of teachers, Ontario was, on the whole, further advanced than Massachusetts or any other State in the Union. The courses of study in American schools were, however, more practical, with the result that technical training had remarkable prominence.

High Schools in the State referred to were free, and there was no good reason why that should not be true of Ontario. To shut out the poor from high schools, as was too commonly the rule in Ontario, was to adopt a policy characterized by the great German educationist Rein as "unchristian," and a policy which might be simply regarded as a relic of an undemocratic age. If they were to develop the great resources of the country, they could not have too many educated men and women, provided the education received is of the proper kind. The aim, in Ontario should be more education, and an effort to secure more attention to technical education, or to such departments as would be of most practical value from an intellectual and moral point of view.

In concluding, reference was made to the commencement exercises at Harvard University, which Mr. Millar attended. He said that they were characterized by such propriety of conduct on the part of the students, as shows the "hooting and yelling," so often witnessed at university commencement exercises in Ontario in bad light by the comparison. Unfortunately in Canada they appeared to have imitated the barbarities of Oxford. The admiration for British institutions, which it was hoped all Canadians held, should not restrain them from aim-

ing at a reform in this connection, even though American models had to be examined.

James L. Hughes, Inspector of City Schools, in the course of a short but vigorous address, said he believed firmly in the views expressed by Mr. Millar regarding examinations. For his part he would never have examinations for admission to any educational institution. Twenty-five years ago such an opinion would have been scorned. To-day it was daily gaining ground, and in many places being put into effect, and 25 years hence degrees from normal schools and colleges would be given without examinations. If within the next ten or fifteen years educationists could not find a better test of power and ability than that of examination the world was moving much slower than he imagined. In Ontario they had a habit of saying this system of education was the best in the world. The belief had grown to an injurious extent. As a matter of fact, there were many things in the systems of the old world and in the United States in advance of those prevailing in Ontario. Educationists of the province should try to make their own system better, and spend less time comparing it with others to their disadvantage. Manual training would, he believed, receive greater attention in this province in the future, and the children of from six to nine years of age would not be required to grind their lives out with arithmetic as under the present system. Training in that branch should come later, at a time when the child was more capable of grasping and dealing with it. —*Globe*.

PAYMENT OF TEACHERS.

The *Toronto News*, commenting on the speech of Hon. Geo. W. Ross, in which he said that the great edu-

cational need in Ontario was the study of the individual child, says:

"But there is another side of the question. What inducements have men or women of ability to pursue teaching with enthusiasm? What incentive have they to apply all the energies of their minds to the performance of their duty to each individual child? It will be argued by those who set a high moral standard that the teacher accepting such a position should not allow the remuneration paid to influence his or her performance of the duties undertaken, and yet it is just as impossible for a teacher to do her best under the pressure of financial difficulties as it is for the merchant or the professional man. One condition necessary for the full performance of the teacher's duty is the freedom from financial anxiety. Another is the determination of the teacher to adopt that profession as a life-long calling. In order to relieve them of this anxiety and to induce them to take up teaching as a permanent occupation, improvements must be made. Teachers in the cities are not under-paid, as is the case in towns and rural districts; but even for those who have positions in the large schools of the cities the salaries are not commensurate with the abilities required and the exhausting nature of the employment."

There can be little doubt of the soundness of the *News'* opinion that the educational difficulty in this province is largely a financial one. It is true that even with the most liberal provision for the pay of teachers the profession could not be made attractive to the money-making class; but that is neither necessary nor desirable. What is needed is that the teacher shall be placed out of the reach of sordid care so that he may devote his mind wholly to his calling, and that he shall have

access to books and other means of intellectual growth. In spite of all that cynics may say, there are people for whom the pursuit of money would have far less attraction than the pursuit of learning and the task of aiding in the intellectual development of others. But the teacher ought to be fairly paid ; he ought to

have the means of pursuing his own studies, of keeping his mind bright by companionship with books and with his fellow-workers. Excellent work is done as it is better, perhaps, than we have a right to expect ; but a little more substantial recognition of the value of the teacher's work would give us still better results.

SCIENCE DEPARTMENT.

J. B. TURNER, B.A., EDITOR.

THE RECENT EXAMINATION IN FORM I., BOTANY.

Below will be found a copy of the paper in Botany set at the recent examination. The diagrams and descriptions of these are omitted for obvious reasons, but the questions based upon them are given. The plant referred to in Part A, question 1, is the *Nesaea verticillata*, in question 2, the *Rudbeckia hirta*.

The practice of furnishing the candidates with diagrams and descriptions of the plants they are to identify has doubtless been resorted to in order to overcome the great lack of uniformity in the examinations in this department of subject that has been a matter of protests from teachers and examiners for some time.

Its effect on the teaching of Botany in our schools will require to be carefully watched, for there is a danger that methods of teaching will be resorted to that will enable candidates to cope with such questions and yet be far from desirable methods of teaching Botany. If it should happen that any method of teaching Botany should be practised that did not bring the learner into actual contact with as great a number and variety of specimens as possible it would be a matter greatly

to be regretted. The amount of detail required in an answer to question 1 will to a great extent reduce the danger but not entirely do away with it.

A careful reading of the questions in Part B of the paper will show that the task of preparing for such an examination is not a light one. Especially does this remark apply to questions 5 and 6. When it is remembered that the great majority of the candidates who present themselves for this examination spend only a year in preparation for it, and in that year only some four months, or thereabouts, are available for good work in Botany, the magnitude of the task of preparation appears much greater. The importance of the subject from whatever standpoint it is looked at demands that more time should be given to the study of it, and probably the most effective way to secure that additional time is to see that the papers set from time to time are of such a character as to command respect.

Question 7 indicates that the examiners think the student should early become acquainted with some of the influences which affect the

life of the plant. Those who have given serious thought to the subject, and who are watching the trend in the teaching of Botany in other lands will, we are sure, give unqualified assent to this view.

FORM I.—BOTANY.

A.

1. Using the key, beginning with the first line ("Series I., Phanerogams'), copy every step taken in the identification of the plant figured on page 2.

2. Trace to its species the Compositae figured on page 3. Beginning with the sub order, copy every step.

B.

NOTE.—The Presiding Examiner will tell you which specimen to use in answering question No. 3, and which to use in answering question No. 4. Use definite botanical phraseology in the descriptions.

3. (a) Refer the plant submitted to its natural order, arranging the characters upon which you base such reference under the headings: Leaves, Calyx, Petals, Stamens.

(b) Name the genus of the plant.

(c) Name another genus of the same order, and state how it may be distinguished in at least three particulars from this one.

(d) Describe the mode and subdivision of the inflorescence, and

(e) The position, arrangement, and surface of the leaves.

4. On a sheet of paper laid sideways, occupying the whole page, draw a schedule as below for the description of the flower submitted. (See note above.)

Organs.	No.	Cohesion.	Adnation. (Adhesion)	Drawings.	Floral Diagram
Calyx Sepals					
Corolla Petals					
Stamens Anthers Filaments					
Pistils Stigmas Styles Carpels					

5. On a sheet of paper, laid as for No. 4, rule as below and fill with appropriate entries.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Name of Order.	Character from which the Name of the Order is derived.	The Name of a Plant in the Order.	Drawing, with verbal description, if necessary, of the parts of the Plant named in column 3 which is referred to in column 2.
Cruciferae			
Leguminosae			
Umbelliferae			
Cupuliferae			
Coniferae			

6. Describe (not name merely):

(a) Any character which separates the Liliaceae from the orders named in No. 5; and

(b) A character which separates them (the Liliaceae) from the grasses.

7. State and account for two of the general differences which you have observed between herbaceous plants growing in situations fully exposed to sun and wind and those growing in sheltered, shady situations.

THE HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS.

FORM II.—ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND RHETORIC.

A.

1. And, as the finder of some unknown realm,
Mounting a summit whence he thinks to see
On either side of him the imprisoning sea,
Beholds, above the clouds that overwhelm
The valley-land, peak after snowy peak
Stretch out of sight, each like a silver helm
Beneath its plume of smoke, sublime and bleak,
And what he thought an island finds to be
A continent to him first oped,—so we,
Can from our height of Freedom look along
A boundless future, ours if we be strong,

(a) Analyze the above passage so as to show the various clauses (principal and subordinate) it contains, and indicate their relation to one another. In the case of subordinate clauses be careful to state the grammatical function of each, and to point out the particular word or words each one modifies

[N.B.—Write every clause in full.]

(b) Write out the various phrases (prepositional and participial) in the first seven lines of the passage, and state their functions and the words they modify.

2. Write brief grammatical notes on the italicized words in the following:

(a) *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

(b) I forgave *him* the insult.

(c) The bells ring a merry *peal*.

(d) It is turning *hot*.

(e) He struck the man *senseless*.

3. State the grammatical functions and relations of the italicized words in the following:

(a) He is fond of *hunting* deer.

(b) We found him *sleeping*.

(c) *Walking* along the street, I met my brother.

(d) The miser goes on *accumulating* wealth.

(e) He was engaged in the *building* of a house.

4. Distinguish the Restrictive and Co-ordinating Relative Pronoun, illustrating your answer by examples.

5. Give the principal parts of the following verbs: hang, rid, lie, eat, dive, spin, dare, wake, sit, forbear. (In the case of *hang* and *lie*, give double forms and distinguish in meaning.)

6. State briefly some of the main changes subsequent to the Norman Conquest in (a) the vocabulary and (b) the word-formation of English, giving examples.

B.

7. State the defects of the following sentences as to unity, clearness, ease, emphasis, etc. Also re-cast them in such a way as to make them good sentences:

(a) I was walking home from school and I met a boy and girl.

(b) His answer was, to say the least, for I dislike to charge anybody with boorishness, curt.

(c) The Republicans retained thousands of voters by their support of prohibition who would have left the party had it not taken this start.

(d) When Shylock discovered that his daughter was gone, we could not help feeling sorry for the lonely old man who felt for a moment the love for his child rekindle, now that she was gone, but soon the love of the money overcame the other.

(e) The purpose of Scene II. we find, then to be threefold: primarily

to further reveal Faust's character, while incidentally an artistic effect is produced by the mingling of so many classes of people, and last the introduction of the tempter.

8. The schoolmaster, without further answer, rose and threw open a door half sashed with glass, which led to an old-fashioned terrace-walk, behind the modern house, communicating with the platform on which the ruins of the ancient castle were situated. The wind had arisen, and swept before it the clouds which had formerly obscured the sky. The moon was high, and at the full, and all the lesser satellites of heaven shone forth in cloudless effulgence. The scene which their light presented to Mannering; was in the highest degree unexpected and striking.

We have observed, that in the latter part of his journey our traveller approached the sea-shore, without being aware how nearly. He now perceived that the ruins of Ellangowan castle were situated upon a promontory, or projection of rock, which formed one side of a small and placid bay on the sea-shore. The modern mansion was placed lower, though closely adjoining, and the ground behind it descended to the sea by a small swelling green bank, divided into levels by natural terraces, on which grew some old trees, and terminating upon the white sand. The other side of the bay, opposite to the old castle, was a sloping and varied promontory, covered chiefly with copsewood, which on that favored coast grows almost within watermark. A fisherman's cottage peeped from among the trees.

It was one hour after midnight, and the prospect around was lovely. The grey old towers of the ruin, partly entire, partly broken, here bearing the rusty weather-stains of

ages, and there partially mantled with ivy, stretched along the verge of the dark rock which rose on Mannering's right hand. In his front was the quiet bay, whose little waves, crisping and sparkling to the moonbeams, rolled successively along its surface, and dashed with a soft and murmuring ripple against the silvery beach. To the left the woods advanced far into the ocean, waving in the moonlight along ground of an undulating and varied form, and presenting those varieties of light and shade, and that interesting combination of glade and thicket, upon which the eye delights to rest, charmed with what it sees, yet curious to pierce still deeper into the intricacies of the woodland scenery. Above rolled the planets, each, by its own liquid orbit of light, distinguished from the inferior or more distant stars. So strangely can imagination deceive even those by whose volition it has been excited, that Mannering, while gazing upon these brilliant bodies, was half inclined to believe in the influence ascribed to them by superstition over human events.

(a) State in a phrase the theme of the above extract.

(b) Show what each paragraph contributes to the development of the main theme.

9. Indicate the general plan followed by the writer in the third paragraph.

FORM IV.

1. Show how in *The Merchant of Venice* the dramatist makes the reader hope that Bassanio may be successful in his suit for the hand of Portia.

2. Sketch the characters of Morocco and Arragon, justifying your view by definite reference to their speeches.

3. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon
this bank !
Here will we sit and let the sounds
of music
Creep in our ears ; soft stillness and
the night
Become the touches of sweet har-
mony.
- 5 Sit, Jessica. Look how the floor of
heaven
Is thick inlaid with patines of bright
gold ;
There's not the smallest orb which
thou beholdest
But in his motion like an angel sings,
Still quiring to the young-eyed
cherubins ;
- 10 Such harmony is in immortal souls ;
But whilst this muddy vesture of
decay
Doth grossly close it in, we cannot
hear it.

(a) Give reasons for the introduction of the above passage in the play.

(b) Give the substantial meaning of lines 7-12, and explain fully the references.

(c) Show the full poetic value of "sleeps" (line 1), "thick inlaid" (line 6), "like an angel" (line 8), "quivering" (line 9), "muddy vesture of decay" (line 11).

4. "The genuine king and leader of men is he who best understands and sympathises with the needs and aspirations of his people, and is best fitted to guide them in the working out of their proper destiny."

By definite references to *Richard II.* show how far Richard and Bolingbroke, respectively, satisfy the above standard of kingship.

5. Explain carefully the meaning of the following passages :

- (a) "Soft stillness and the night
Become the touches of sweet har-
mony."
(b) "For when did friendship take
A breed of barren metal of his
friend."

(c) "The sullen passage of thy weary
steps
Esteem as foil wherein thou art to
set
The precious jewel of thy home re-
turn."

(d) "Fear and be slain : no worse can
come to fight ;
And fight and die is death destroy-
ing death ;
Where fearing dying pays death ser-
vile breath."

6. State where and in what connection any *five* of the following passages are found :

(a) "A beggar begs that never begged
before."

(b) "The devil can cite Scripture for
his purpose."

(c) "Who overcomes
By force, hath overcome but half his
foe."

(d) "A power is gone which nothing
can restore,
A deep distress hath humanized my
soul."

(e) "The ripest fruit first falls, and so
doth he ;
His time is spent, our pilgrimage
must be."

(f) "A lasting link in Nature's chain
From highest heaven let down."

(g) "It seem'd as if their mother earth
Had swallow'd up her warlike birth."

7. Examine the more striking similes in *Paradise Lost* (Book I.) so as to show the characteristics of the Miltonic simile and the uses Milton makes of it.

8. Compare *Michael* and *The Lady of the Lake* with respect to (a) form, (b) style, (c) main source of interest, (d) variety of interest, and (e) use and description of nature. Illustrate your answer by definite references to the poems.

CORRESPONDENCE, ETC.

AMBIDEXTERITY.

I have been interested in reading the articles by Dr. Harris and others relative to ambidexterity, from the fact that I have had personal experience in the matter. I am naturally left-handed. My father, grandfather, and great-grandfather were left-handed, and a son three years old seems inclined the same way. I believe that every child who strongly favors his left hand should be carefully guarded and his attention called almost continually to the proper use of the right hand. If careful attention is not given to this matter, many children may become left-handed who otherwise might have the proper use of the right hand.

We generally agree that the right hand is the one naturally to be used. So we find many machines and implements, as sewing machines, scissors, etc., manufactured accordingly.

I was left-handed until about eighteen years of age. At that time I received my first teacher's certificate. After beginning my work I found that I was at a disadvantage when endeavoring to teach writing, especially in showing the position of the pen. How could I teach a child to make a letter with his right hand when I could not use my own? So I immediately began to learn the use of the right hand, and to-day I can use either in writing, and, in fact, for almost everything. I have never tried to use the hammer or throw with my right hand.

Although I find it convenient in many ways to be able to use either hand, yet in the main I agree with Dr. Harris. It was a laborious process for me to learn to write with my right hand, and I am sure it would be a difficult task for a child to learn to use freely both

hands. Yet I do believe that when a child is naturally left-handed he should be taught to use the right hand, or both, as a left-handed person is so many times working at a disadvantage.

I agree also with Mr. Bruce in his article in the *School Journal* of May 13th, that when necessity for use of the left or of both hands, arises, they may, by a careful training, be fitted for any work.

Nature seems to adapt circumstances, and when the necessity arises, we are in time able to adapt either hand to a required purpose. Since, however, required cases are few it would hardly seem advisable to place the extra burden upon every child of learning to use equally well both right and left hand.—*Geo. H. Stratton.*

To the Editor of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

DEAR SIR,—I hope it is not too much to ask you to insert in your paper the following Land Drill for the class teaching of swimming, as recommended by the London School Board. My fellow-teachers may wish to experiment with it as a fine physical drill or go-between lesson in school.

Yours sincerely,
ONE WHO THINKS WELL OF IT.

LEG DRILL.

"LEFT LEG."

"READY."—Legs closed as in position of "Attention."

"ONE'."—Raise the left knee, left heel touching inside of right knee, toes pointing downwards, left knee kept pointing outwards to the left, in same direction as the toe in "Attention."

"TWO."—Extend left leg by an outward and rounded movement

until the big toe touches the ground one pace to the left.

"THREE."—Bring the left leg to position of "Ready."

"RIGHT LEG."—Repeat with the right leg. When proficient, give the word

"CONTINUE" after coming to "Three" and let the class continue—"One," "Two," "Three,"—judging the time—left and right legs alternately. Great vigor must be put into "Three" stroke.

"STEADY."—(To be given immediately before completion of motion.) Motion completed, pupils remain steady.

"ATTENTION."

ARM DRILL.

"READY."—Both arms extended forward and pointing slightly upward, thumbs touching, palms downward.

"ONE."—Describe a quarter-circle outward with both arms, until they are in line with each other and level with the shoulders, allowing the hands to slightly rotate so that the backs of the hands are turned a very little to the front.

"TWO."—Bend the arms at the elbow, and bring the hands to the sides of the chest, slightly to the front, fingers closed and pointing forward, palms downward, thumbs about 4 inches apart.

"THREE."—Resume the "Ready" position. When pupils are proficient, give the word

"CONTINUE," and allow class to go through the movements, judging the time.

"STEADY."

"ATTENTION."

BREATHING EXERCISE.

To be combined with Arm Drill.—Inhale the air in arm movements "One" and "Two," and exhale in arm movement "Three."

The exhalation should be a blowing out of air between the lips partly closed.

COMBINED ARM AND LEG DRILL.

"ARMS AND LEFT LEG."

"READY."

"ONE."

"TWO."

"THREE."

"CONTINUE."

"STEADY."

"ATTENTION."

Movements exactly similar to those described in the separate Leg and Arm Drills.

"ARMS AND RIGHT LEG."—Repeat commands as in "Arms and Left Leg."

SWIMMING DRILL IN THE WATER.

This is best taken in squads—the size of the squad depending on the rail accommodation at the bath.

Pupils take up positions in the water, at the shallow end of the bath, facing the side and rail, and in extended order.

"LEG DRILL."

"READY."—Pupils seize the rail by placing both hands underneath it, palms upward, and allow the elbows and forearms to rest against the side of the bath. Then raise the body into a horizontal position, with back hollowed, and head thrown back.

(An alternative method of raising the body. On the word "Ready," the right hand seizes the bar over the top, the left hand is placed on the wall of the bath, below the rail, palm to the wall and fingers pointing downward. The body can then easily be raised into the horizontal position.)

From this position both legs can be worked simultaneously.

"ONE."

"TWO."

"THREE."

"CONTINUE."

"STEADY."

Movements similar to those described in Leg Drill on land.

"HALT."—Lower the body to the position of "Attention."

"ABOUT TURN."—Pupils are now standing round the bath with their backs to the wall.

<p>"READY." "ONE." "TWO." "THREE." "CONTINUE." "STEADY." "ATTENTION."</p>	}	<p>Movements similar to those described in Arm Drill on land. Hands to be 2 or 3 inches below the surface of the water.</p>
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The "BREATHING EXERCISE" should be practised with the Arm Drill in the water.

PRACTICE IN SWIMMING.

In order that the pupil may apply the drills when learnt to actual swimming, the following methods may be adopted :

1. THE MONITORIAL SYSTEM.—

Let your best swimmers take charge of three or four hopeful starters, and give ten or fifteen minutes' individual attention to them each lesson—supporting them, correcting errors, and practising the weak strokes. A list of new swimmers placed in a prominent place in the schools, with the names of the monitors who taught them, will be found a strong incentive to pupils and monitors.

2. THE SLING AND ROPE; THE SLING AND POLE.—Both of these aids will be found to be very useful for the practice of the simultaneous movement of legs and arms. Errors may be detected and corrected, and, by gradually lessening the amount of support, the pupil may be led to support himself and make progress independent of the rope or pole.

3. THE PLANK.—A stout plank three or four inches thick, capable of taking six or eight pupils extended along one side, should be placed in the water. The teacher tells off six or eight pupils, who, with arms

fully extended, place their hands upon the plank, and raise their bodies to the horizontal position. The teacher then counts "one," "two," "three," and the pupils go through the leg movements. The value of this aid lies in the fact that the pupils find that their bodies and the plank immediately begin to make progress, without any assistance from rope or pole.

AN ADVISORY COUNCIL.

To the Editor of the Weekly Sun :

SIR,—The reassembling of our Public Schools draws attention to educational subjects, and it will not be out of season to revive the question of instituting an advisory council for the guidance of the Minister of Education. I may plead as my warrant for speaking not only a long connection with the educational profession, but my former position as the elected representative of the Public School teachers on the Council of Public Instruction.

Education is a subject different from the ordinary matters of administration. It calls for professional knowledge and experience, such as we can never be sure of finding in the politician who may happen, by the chances of party, to be assigned his billet in this office, and whose policy may be as fleeting as his tenure. It is especially apt to suffer from bureaucracy. The profession, moreover, needs somebody to represent it, some tribunal to which it can look up for the protection of its character and rights, other than the autocracy, practically sheltered from publicity, and uncontrolled, under which it is at present placed. From the intervention of the Legislature, the members of which pay little attention to such questions, and in which the profession has no independent spokesman, not much

is to be hoped. To the unsatisfactory status of the teacher may, perhaps, be, in part, assigned the unpopularity of the profession indicated by the unhappily short tenure of the teacherships, which cannot fail to tell on the character of the education.

Any fear that a minister would not be able to act with an advisory council is at once dispelled by the fact that in England the First Lord of the Admiralty and the Minister for India do act with advisory councils, as, practically, if not formally, does the Vice-President of the Privy Council, who fills the place of a Minister of Education.

I would venture to suggest that there should be an advisory council, composed of representatives of the chartered Universities, the Agricultural College, the High Schools and the Public Schools, with, perhaps, one or two additional members nominated, we will say, by the Lieutenant-Governor personally, and with

out reference to his political advisers.

This council might be convened annually, before the meeting of the Legislature, for the discussion of any proposed legislation, I would assign to it absolutely the regulation of the text-books, thus placing that subject beyond the range alike of sectional feeling and commercial interest. I would require that it should review the curriculum, and be notified of proposed changes therein. I would empower it to call for information on any subject connected with the department, including appointments and dismissals, and to record its opinion thereon. There would be nothing in this, I think, to interfere with the legitimate authority and parliamentary action of the Minister of Education, in whose hands, besides his general control, all the financial arrangements would be left.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

Toronto, August 28th, 1899.

BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

Scribner's Magazine for September contains a long article on the country that lies about the sources of the Ottawa, by Mr. Frederic Irland, called "Where the Water Runs Both Ways." Canada is that convenient country where many of the citizens of the United States keep their imagination and let it run occasionally for a cool and romantic airing. The present article is most interesting and kindly. In the *Chronicles of Aunt Minerey Ann*, the story given this month is "How Jess Went a Fiddlin'." In it Mr. Harris excels himself in witty and delightful sayings. There are so many good things in the number that all cannot be mentioned particularly, but "The Education of Præd" is a capi-

tal short story, and "A Slumber Song" by Henry Van Dyke, is as sweet a bit of verse as one could wish to read.

Byam Shaw's "Love, the Conqueror," is the frontispiece in the September number of the *Cosmopolitan*. The magazine contains contributions by many well known writers, such as "A Life" by Maarten Maartens; "Eternal Me" by Mrs. Stetson, and the "Study of Fiction" by Brander Matthews. There are three interesting short stories and a number of articles on popular subjects. Among these "The Delightful Art of Cooking" by Anna Leach, should be mentioned as possessing both sense and inspiration.

A woman's criticism of the Woman's Congress by Frances H. Low in the *Nineteenth Century* is republished in the *Living Age* for September 23.

The *Bookman* for September contains three beautiful sea sonnets by Richard Hovey, in which the writer's words are worthy of his inspiration. "The Systematic Epigram" by Frank Moore Colby, is a sober criticism of the "sparkling" novel which at first dazzles and then tires the reader who goes through more than one in a year. The first part of "New York in Fiction" appears in this number. It is illustrated from photographs of scenes which are used in the stories of Ford, Townsend, Davis and Williams. Mr. Arthur Bartlett Maurice is the person who is investigating this interesting subject, and the results of his labors will appear in the *Bookman* for some time.

The seventh article in the series "Nature's Garden," is published in the September *Ladies' Home Journal*. The golden-rod, fringed gentian, and thistle are among the more familiar of the wild flowers pictured. The "Confessions of a Worrier," by Mary Boardman Page, appears in the place of the usual article by the editor. "The Social Side of the Trolley," and "The East Side Girl of New York" are among the interesting articles of the number.

The G. & C. Merriam Company of Springfield, Mass., have recently issued Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, an abridgement of the International dictionary, and the latest and fullest of the abridged series that contains the primary, common school, high school and academic. This dictionary is intended for the general reader and more especially for the college student. It is admirably adapted to the purpose for

which it is intended, being compact and easily handled, and while retaining everything that is required, except under extraordinary conditions, it is in this way brought within the means of students and other persons who desire accurate books of reference, although they cannot afford to do more than provide themselves with the most easily acquired instruments.

STORR'S LIFE OF QUICK.

Life and Remains of the Rev. P. H. Quick.
Edited by F. Storr. Macmillan.

Here is a book which no one who is interested in the course of education during the last thirty years can afford to neglect. Quick produced one educational classic, his "Educational Reformers," published in 1868. In this book he hit upon the device of connecting many of the most important educational truths with great persons, like Milton, Rousseau, Locke, Comenius, Pestalozzi. Thus he found opportunity for much entertaining biographical detail, and aroused interest in principles by starting with persons. Though Quick was intensely concerned with the practice as well as with the theory of teaching, yet his long and varied experience as a teacher would not be pronounced specially successful. But his failures as well as his successes were all made tributary to his thinking and to his writing, and in acuteness of observation and philosophic grasp he is excelled by few writers on education. He became, in fact, the central figure in a small circle of men who have accomplished the most for educational reform in England. From these men came the founders and supporters of the *Journal of Education*, that mirror of English educational thought and progress; and not the least influen-

tial of this circle is Mr. Storr, Quick's biographer. It is a pleasant task to endeavor to convey, within the limits of a review, some just idea of the range and value of the contents of the book, and of the charm of the person whom it describes.

It is not unnatural to compare the book with Parkin's "Life of Edward Thring." Thring and Quick, most different in personality and character, had each the habit of keeping a full written record of their thoughts and experiences. The biographers of both have followed the wise plan of letting the subject speak in his own words. The consequence is, that each book gives the sympathetic reader an extraordinary sense of personal acquaintance with the man whom it describes. Thring was more intense, poetic, brilliantly endowed. To him were given powers of personal inspiration of others, a faculty of public speech, and a facility of expression which were denied to Quick. But Quick's gentleness—not without fire (his Harrow sobriquet was "Old Fireworks")—his philosophic mind, his inextinguishable love for getting at the truth of things, his power of stripping off the outside husk from any practice or theory which had nothing but custom to support it, have given to his words and opinions peculiar and lasting weight.

Robert Quick was born in 1831 and died in 1891. His father was a substantial London merchant who left him with a competence. The pecuniary independence thus secured to him allowed him greater freedom than falls to most educators. Books and travel to any extent were within his reach, and a position could be immediately laid down when results seemed unsatisfactory. His early years of study were interrupted with by delicate health, the

result of measles, from the effects of which he never fully recovered, though he was a large and muscular man. In 1850 he went to Trinity College, Cambridge, and took his degree with only moderate distinction; in 1854, at Cambridge he devoted himself to mathematics rather than to classics and literature, for which he had more aptitude. He followed this course in consequence of a theory, which he afterwards rejected, that it was well to devote one's self, at college, to subjects for which one had little taste, rather than to those which were most congenial, because the latter would be sure to receive attention at some subsequent period! On leaving Cambridge he took orders, apparently because more obvious opportunities for work for others seemed to offer themselves in the Christian ministry than in other callings. He had in some way made the acquaintance of Thomas Carlyle, and it was by his advice that he first visited Germany, spending a month in Hamburg and acquiring some facility in German conversation. This visit was followed by others, the longest one of six months in Leipzig; and he became an excellent German scholar. His familiarity with German thought and the German language led naturally to the production of "Educational Reformers," for, as he himself says, he soon discovered that all books of any value on the history and science of education were in German.

The student of Quick's life will be interested to know the names of the various places at which he worked. He began at the grammar school at Lancaster, in 1858. Here he remained only six months, leaving on account of a disagreement with the head master about Sunday work. Then followed work at Guildford, Hurst, Cranleigh, and, from 1869-

1874, at Harrow. Cranleigh was what the English call a preparatory school, *i.e.*, a school where young pupils are prepared for the large public schools. Quick was called to Harrow just after the appearance of his "Educational Reformers." He was himself an old Harrovian, and had been a schoolmate of the head master, H. M. Butler, and it might have seemed that he had at last found his true field of work. But he lacked that agility of mind, that facility for turning off routine work, that large supply of nerve-force which the brilliantly successful assistant master requires. He saw, also, only too clearly, the defects of the system—the total lack of co-ordination of work, the absolute independence of every master of the work of every other. He could not easily endure the neglect of individual needs which is often inseparable from class teaching; the indifference, stupidity and idleness of the mass of the boys distressed him. The consciousness, too, that he was debarred from his favourite occupations of writing and study by the endless grind of teaching and of correcting exercise books, continually distressed him. And so, after five years of service, he left Harrow, not without appreciation, not without having left his impress, yet not having achieved a decided success.

In 1876 Quick made a singularly happy marriage. In 1879 he was appointed lecturer on education in the University of Cambridge. This position he held for four successive years. During the later years of his life he made two private educational ventures: the first, a preparatory boys' day-school in London, from 1876 to 1881; the second, a preparatory boys' boarding-school at Guildford. His interest in the development and education of his own children, Oliver and Dora, intensi-

fied his interest in these two experiments. In 1883 he was appointed by his college to a living in Sedburgh, which he held until 1887. He then established himself at Redhill, within easy distance of London, where, without the strain of obligatory duties, he passed the last four years of his life.

One hundred and twenty-six out of the five hundred and forty four pages of this volume are occupied by the biography of Quick, which is itself largely an autobiography. The remainder consists of extracts from the forty volumes of his journals. These note-books cover a period of more than a quarter of a century, and are the record of the thought of a lifetime. Dr. Storr says that there is scarcely a dull page in the forty volumes, and this our reading fully confirms. Here the personality of Quick is so clearly revealed that, as one reads, one almost seems to be in conversation with him. We must pass over entirely his instructive study of child-life entitled "Dora and Oliver," a careful account of the development of his two children, from their birth to their seventh and fourth year. Nor can much place be given to his thoughts on distinctly educational subjects, valuable as they are. They are, in fact, too valuable to condense, and it may be assumed that progressive teachers will read them in full. We will prefix dates to the passages quoted:

"(October 17, 1877.) Now I have settled down here quietly with Bertha [in his private school at Bayswater, London] I have been looking over books, etc., and the conclusion I have come to is that I have material for educational writing which I could not manipulate without an additional life or two. The danger now is lest I should be crushed by my own material and

never do anything. How strange it is that one is so long in learning the importance of great books, and the necessity of neglecting middling ones!

"(January 1, 1878, Marine Parade, Brighton, 6 a.m.) When one thinks of the immensity of time and of the Christian hope that there is endless existence before us, one is perplexed that this infinity of time should take its character from a few years that seem to bear no proportion to it. One observes, however, that in the time here, by far the greatest portion is determined by certain hours or, it may be, minutes.

* In itself a thought,
A slumber'ng t'ought is capable of years;

says Byron. With most of us the greater part of our life seems merely wasted. Perhaps the scanty moments we give to prayer may, in importance, be the chief part of our existence.

"(June 6, 1881.) I was lately examining some old papers. They were old scribblings of mine in 1853, twenty-eight years ago. I could not help feeling vexed that they were so good. The first twenty years of life are the really most important part, after all.

"(July 23, 1885.) As I grow old, my capacity for the active business of life (never very great) seems to grow considerably less, while my desire (and, I fancy, my ability) to theorize on life seems to increase. But my time is so consumed by small things that I never get free and never *feel* free to think and write.

"(May 15, 1886.) Perhaps, before the end of my journey, I may be able to write some useful essays, working up the materials in these note-books. The question is whether I shall find time. Till lately, one has thought of the station as at an immeasurable distance. It does not

seem so, now. Like the members of that old fashioned sect still known by the name given them at Antioch, I don't believe in the existence of a terminus.

"(June 15, 1886.) My father used to say that one of his best points as a man of business was that he never let stock hang on hand. He would keep the decks clear and not get hampered with the old stuff.

"(July 8, 1887, Redhill.) In our present state, the machinery of life is far too extravagant of force. When one has arranged one's affairs, seen one's callers and returned their calls, read one's letters and answered them, there is hardly any time left except for meals and sleep. It seems to me a clear duty to reduce all these demands on one's time. Besides this, I think we should spend a portion of the day with some great writer. One is disinclined to rise to the thoughts of a great writer, and one gets to prefer incessant grind. How few intimacies one has with great writers! One has 'no time' to cultivate their acquaintance. But one finds plenty of time to read newspapers and periodical twaddle which does no good at all.

"(October 17, 1887, Redhill.) In indexing my notebooks, I have lately had to read a good deal of my own writing. It is extremely devoid of what M. Arnold calls charm. But one claim to attention my writing has: I write because I *think*.

"(October 26, 1887, Redhill.) I am always engaged in a struggle with my physical surroundings. I do not like disorder, far from it; but never having paid proper attention to keeping things in order, things are too many for me. And, after trying hard to get them straight, I fail. My difficulties arise from two sources—first, I have a sort of acquisitiveness which prevents me from throwing away what may come useful;

and, secondly, I am always putting things to rights, but never take pains to keep them so."

At Redhill, Quick passed a laborious life. The day was about equally divided between his pedagogic and literary studies and the hours devoted to his friends and correspondents. The four walls of his study were lined with bookshelves reaching to the ceiling. His visitors had difficulty in finding a seat: chairs, armchairs and sofa were strewn with books, pamphlets and reviews. Travelling scholars of all nationalities knocked at his door, some in quest of information, others requiring an introduction or a recommendation for some post, or not rarely seeking pecuniary assistance.

Mr. Quick went to pay his friend, Prof. J. R. Seeley, a visit on Feb. 20th, 1891. He was to stay four days, and to read his friend's proofs. He stayed more than four days, and he did not read the proofs. On the second day, the two friends went out for a walk after luncheon, but had hardly left the door when Quick was stricken with apoplexy. He was brought back to the house, where he lingered sixteen days, at first in complete consciousness, which gradually diminished until the end. Prof. Seeley says of him: "I never knew a man of happier disposition and temper. He was all candor and kindness. Intercourse with him was always easy, yet never insipid. He had a singular modesty which he contrived to unite with perfect firmness of judgment. His religion he had learnt from Frederick Maurice."

Here this sketch must close. The more the reviewer has read, the extracts from the notebooks, the more valuable does he esteem them. Not only every teacher, but everyone alive to the deepest concerns of humanity, will do well to have this book at hand, and will find in the oughts of this noble soul cheer and inspiration.—*Evening Post, New York.*

Books received:

From *Ginn & Co.*, Boston.

Lessons in Language and Grammar, books I. and II., by H. S. and M. Tarbell.

First Book of Word and Sentence Work, by M. W. Hazen.

Advanced Arithmetic, by N. W. Speer.

Fifth Reader, by E. M. Cyr.

Introduction to Rhetoric, by W. B. Cairns.

From *The American Book Company*, New York:

Grammar School Algebra, Plane Geometry and Plane and Solid Geometry, by W. J. Milne.

Qualitative Analysis for Secondary Schools, by C. W. Irish.

Advanced Grammar and Composition, by E. O. Lyte.

Stories of Animal Life, by C. F. Holder.

Graded Work in Arithmetic, Fifth Book Grammar Grade, by S. W. Baird.

Kenilworth, abridged and edited by Mary H. Norris.

The Story of the Great Republic, by H. A. Guerber.

Heyse's *L'Arrabbiata*, edited by Max Lentz

Method in Education, a text-book for teachers, by R. N. Roark.

From the *Ward Waugh Company*, Chicago:

Better World Philosophy, by J. H. Moore.

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

Organic Education, a manual for teachers in primary and grammar grade, by H. M. Scott.

Cambridge University Press.

The *Æneid* of Vergil, book 2, edited by A. Sidgwick.

John Lovell & Son, Montreal.

Famous Firesides of French Canada, by Mary Wilson Alloway.

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