Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming, are checked below

☐ Coloured covers/
Couverture de couleur

☐ Covers damaged/
Couverture endommagée

☐ Covers restored and/or laminated/
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée

☐ Cover title missing/
Le titre de couverture manque

☐ Coloured maps/
Cartes géographiques en couleur

☐ Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)

☐ Coloured plates and/or illustrations/
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur

☑ Bound with other material/
Relié avec d'autres documents

☑ Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/
La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure

☐ Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/
Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

☐ Coloured pages/
Pages de couleur

☐ Pages damaged/
Pages endommagées

☐ Pages restored and/or laminated/
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées

☑ Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées

☐ Pages detached/
Pages détachées

☑ Showthrough/
Transparence

☐ Quality of print varies/
Qualité inégale de l'impression

☑ Continuous pagination/
Pagination continue

☐ Includes index(es)/
Comprend un (des) index

Title on header taken from:/
Le titre de l'en-tête provient:

☐ Title page of issue/
Page de titre de la livraison

☐ Caption of issue/
Titre de départ de la livraison

☐ Masthead/
Générique (périodiques) de la livraison

☐ Additional comments:/
Commentaires supplémentaires:

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below/
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10X				14X				18X				22X				26X				30X		
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☑	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
		12X				16X				20X				24X				28X				32X

THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

OCTOBER, 1901

WHAT A PUPIL HAS A RIGHT TO EXPECT.

Professor A. H. Young, M.A., Trinity University, Toronto

The right of a pupil to have any expectations in this matter depends upon his own aims, ability, and application, his teacher's ideals, training, and sense of duty, and the limitations imposed upon both of them by time-tables, the length and character of the High School course, and the wearisome round of the ever-recurring examinations.

Concerning the pupil who lacks ambition and linguistic capacity, and who is, moreover, incorrigibly idle, I have nothing to say, except that it is little short of a crime to keep him at school, wasting his father's money, his teacher's strength, and his own time. He ought to be made to realize by the wisest means that can be devised for him that he owes duties to society at large, and that only he has a right to live and enjoy life who, in some useful way, is contributing to the good and the happiness of others.

The pupil, on the other hand, who has even moderate ambitions and, possibly, only indifferent mental endowments, may, with honest endeavour, attain, under the guidance of a conscientious, high-minded, well-instructed teacher, to a good degree of proficiency in reading, writing, and, perhaps, speaking French and German, notwithstanding the limitations already referred to. Further than this he can hardly hope to go under existing conditions, hence these limitations appear to be the main subjects for consideration at the present time.

I.—TIME TABLES.

Three classes of limitations have been already mentioned,—time-tables, examinations, and the length and character of the High School course. To dwell long upon the construction of time-tables, and, in particular, to inveigh against headmasters, as is almost invariably done by most of those who deal with this subject, is unprofitable. The difficulties of the problem increase with multiplication of options and diminution in the size of the staff.

In spite of the wide range of options allowed ten years ago in the senior forms of the secondary schools in Ontario, it was still possible at a large school like Upper Canada College to divide the working week into thirds of

---

*Read before the Dominion Educational Association at Ottawa on Friday, August 16th, 1901.

ten periods each, devoted respectively, at the rate of two periods a day, to mathematics, classics (with ancient history), and modern languages (including English and English history). The proportion observed between French and German, on the one hand, and English and history, on the other, was as six to four, while science was adequately provided for by allowing boys wishing to take the subject to spend in the laboratory their spare hours from trigonometry, Greek, French, or German, as the case might be.

It is not impossible that such a division of the day and week might work out well in a school with so few as three, or even two, masters, in which, happily , the attempt is not made to teach every pupil in every period. Whether the attempt so to do is ever desirable may well be questioned. We are greatly in danger of teaching too much and of leaving the pupil, to his own hurt, to depend too little upon himself. This evil of over-teaching is undoubtedly due in no small measure to the second of the limitations to be considered

II.—EXAMINATIONS.

"Pupils must be passed," so I am assured by those who are most affected by the evil, or the teacher "loses his place," as the phrase goes. As odious a phrase it is as those others which are seen in the papers every day during the summer vacation:—"State salary expected;" "Wanted a Male Teacher"; "Wanted a Female Teacher." The last two savor somewhat of the old slave days, which are supposed to be gone forever. But with schoolmaster and schoolmistresses of to-day it is, I fear, a supposition, and nothing more. And they themselves have to bear at least part of the blame for the existing state of affairs.

Not only is the aim of the teacher lowered, perhaps insensibly, and independence stifled in the pupil, but a great deal of hasty (therefore bad) teaching and inaccuracy are the result. On the latter point I feel strongly, for I have just finished reading three sets of scholarship papers for the universities of Ontario, the examination being conducted by the Education Department. Hardly one of the candidates (about 120 in number) was able to give correctly common forms of verbs in general use occurring in the prescribed texts.

The imperative of the verb s'asseoir, conjugated either affirmatively or negatively, ought surely to be familiar to honour candidates for university scholarships, yet scarcely ten per cent. of them gave the verbal forms correctly. A larger percentage understood in a vague fashion that the order of the pronouns changed when the negative appeared, but they did not always manage to give their proper forms.

The nomenclature of the tenses is apparently, something not taught in the majority of schools; and, I fear, the same must be said of the functions of the tenses also. In vain have I asked in years gone by for the perfect or the past indefinite of the indicative, giving the two names together. Candidate after candidate has thought the past definite was meant, while some have written the imperfect. This year I sought to avoid the difficulty of nomenclature by asking for the perfect of the infinitive, and in many cases the answers contained the past participle alone, while a few candidates gave forms such as ayant tenu.

The same kind of mistake was found also, and more frequently, in the answers to the German paper. But here the additional vice manifested itself, I should say in fully twenty-five per cent. of the papers, of writing haben gesetzt for gesetzt haben, while I became quite accustomed to the monstrosity haben gewesen.

It is not my intention to raise any discussion concerning the merits of the natural, as opposed to the grammatical, method, or the reverse. To him who can use it, either of them is good; and every teacher must, after all, evolve his own method. But I do think that accuracy is a thing which we have a right to expect from our pupils, and which they in turn have a right to expect from us.

Whatever methods of teaching may be adopted, the verbs in the texts read, or in the grammar, ought to be thoroughly drilled into the pupils, for it is wonderful what an extensive vocabulary anyone will have who has once mastered his verbs in either French or German. If the admirable hints for drill in the verbs which are thrown out in the new authorized grammars are utilized, this drill will not be irksome to either teacher or pupil, but by means of the sentences used, it can be made to subserve admirably the purposes of conversation as well as those of training both ear and tongue, all of which are to be desired.

Another sort of inaccuracy which has tried my patience recently is that arising out of imperfect assimilation of the vocabulary contained in the texts prescribed for examination. With wearisome iteration I heard, when I was discussing my papers with the associate examiners, the phrase "But the candidate has the idea," even though he had, in my opinion, exhausted most, if not all, of the marks by mistakes due to crass ignorance and culpable approximation. This was in connection, it must be remembered, with passages that were to be prepared no less than those that were to be taken at sight. I may be wrong, but it does seem to me that no one, to use the phrase again, "has the idea," in the true meaning of the words, unless he can reproduce it in good, idiomatic English, with proper regard for literalness of translation. When next I examine for the Department, I hope that it will not be necessary for me to argue this point again. I cannot but think the phrase an attempt to apologize for inaccuracy, which is, after all, carelessness and laziness. Both of these we, as teachers, ought to correct in our pupils wherever we see them, for where they are there can be at best only absence of character.

III.— EXAMINATION SUCCESS.

Character and love of knowledge we cannot expect to see growing up in our pupils if we teach for examinations alone, and if, in so doing, we lead them to believe that success (save the mark!) is the only thing worth having, no matter how it is attained. Love of the subject and a determination to pursue it patiently, and in accordance with its own laws, after he leaves school, are far better worth striving to inspire in a pupil than a low desire for any amount of mere examination success. I have a theory, which I am glad to say others besides myself have often worked out in practice, that anyone who is filled with a love for French and German, and who is constantly increasing his own acquaintance with them, will be rewarded by seeing this love and determination I have spoken of growing up in his pupils, if he teaches the subject without reference to examinations at all. And he will not have to fear the day of publication of results either.

IV LENGTH OF THE H.S. COURSE.

Whether it is customary now, as it used to be, for pupils to come without any previous knowledge of the subject, and request to be prepared for the junior or the senior leaving examination in French or German in periods ranging from three to ten months, I cannot say. I sincerely hope it is not. There should be only one answer for such a pupil, and that is, it is impossible, unless you are a linguistic genius. None but a genius could in one school year (much less in a shorter time) begin to have any conception of what is meant by language study and by the laws of a language, to which he must conform who wishes to really learn anything of it.

If, instead of two leaving examinations, there were only one, which should be such in reality, and not in name merely, for the vast majority of our High School pupils, we should be the better able to work out our ideals without distraction. The majority of the the pupils it cannot be too often said, are neither prospective teachers nor prospective university students.

Again, if none but those who had taken the whole High School course were permitted to present themselves for this simplified leaving examination, the position of affairs would be further improved. This would be the case especially, if the entrance examination were abolished and those who might wish to study the languages were thus placed in a position that would enable them to begin them early, within any fear of spending at least four, if not six years, or more, upon them.

After a somewhat long experience, four years seem to me the fewest possible in which to do for a pupil leaving school for good that which will enable him to go on by himself with the study of modern languages, or, indeed, any of the other subjects of study. Once more let it be said, that ought to be the objective of our High School course; and it can hardly be maintained with due regard to truth-telling, that it is so to-day.

V.—CHARACTER OF THE COURSE.

In Germany it is found possible to give the pupils of the Realschulen, in which modern languages (French and English) are compulsory, in the Gymnasien, in which Toechterschulen, a good grammatical training, a considerable amount of practice in conversation, the usual exercises in translating into and out of the vernacular, together with two things which we do not attempt at all,—some general ideas concerning the history of literature and information about the history, institutions, social customs, legends, etc., of the nations speaking the languages in question. Professor Storm, who, though a Dane, holds the German views of language study, makes, in his great work on English Phonetics, a characteristic remark, in a footnote which they are optional, and in the his German translator faithfully reproduces. Criticizing a certain work on the same subject, he writes somewhat as follows:—"It is a pity the author has not traced the evolution of the English dinner-hour. In Queen Elizabeth's time we know that it was noon; in the earlier part of the 19th century we know, from Dickens, that it was as late as five oclock, while now it is seven, half-past seven, eight, or later. Tracing the causes of these changes would have been a valuable contribution to the science of Phonetics." What the connection between the two may be, specialists in Phonetics must be left to determine; my concern is with the fact that nothing is too trivial to be deemed of some importance in the study of languages. Does not this study thus understood become an intensely interesting thing, an intensely human thing, and an infinitely more useful means of culture, in the true sense of that much abused word, than it is when it is made a mere cram for an examination, with the scantest possible attention to the right use of those two indispensable tools, the grammar and the dictionary?

As we should hardly be willing to be called poorer or less clever than the Germans, the course which we ought to aim at introducing, by degrees, into our High Schools would take account of grammar, conversation, translation from and into English, broad outlines of French and German literature, and studies in Landeskunde, as the Germans call it. The last-mentioned could be taught from the teacher's own experience, or from his reading, as I heard being done in a course on English, Colonial, and American Universities delivered, in English, by a distinguished graduate of Glasgow University, who is Lector in English at the University of Strassburg. Or the teaching could be based upon text-books (for one would not be sufficient), as is often done in Germany.

The only attempt at such a book on this side of the Atlantic, so far as I know, is Stern's Geschichten vom Rhein, published by the American Book Company of New York. It is doubtless known to many of you through the courtesy of the publishers; and you will, doubtless, agree with me that it would be hard to devise anything more interesting as a first reader in German. The whole Rhine is traversed from Switzerland to Holland and very many of its most enchanting legends are narrated. The pleasures of memory, and, possibly, of travel in the days to come, would be increased tenfold for pupils using such books, while now, as we know only too well, the tendency is, in too many cases, to hasten straightway to forget what was learned at school as having no connection with life in general. Too frequently the thirst for knowledge is quenched forever instead of being deepened and increased.

So far as translation is concerned, it seems to me that, for the sake of securing the accuracy I have already insisted upon as a desideratum, one, but not more than one, text ought to be prescribed in any one year of the course. From personal experience and from observation, I should say that it is impossible for the average pupil to assimilate more than one book and at the same time, to pay proper attention to oral exercises and grammatical drill.

So long as we have the present unsatisfactory arrangement of the leaving examinations, which I look upon as nly temporary and as preparatory to something better, it cannot do much harm to have two books for the senior leaving examination, for it is supposed to represent at least two years of work. When the better day dawns, not only the course, but the character of the examinations, will have to be changed in order to take account, as opportunity offers, of such things as I have here set down as desirable.

VI.—MODERN LANGUAGES IN BUSINESS.

My subject confines me to High Schools and the average pupil in them—the chief care, and yet, in a manner, the curse of our whole educational system in Ontario. We are trying, as it were with one and the same set of machinery, to manufacture articles intended for uses as far apart from one another as kitchen crockery is from webs of finest silk. If I were speaking of commercial courses and of business colleges, to which the former ought to be transferred, I should speak of commercial and journalistic French and German. With increasing interprovincial and international trade, there can be little doubt that an ever-increasing demand will be made for clerks with a thorough knowledge of these languages, and perhaps of Spanish and Italian also.

If we had anything corresponding to the Realschulen of Germany, or even a respectable number of technical schools, I might speak of the relation of modern languages of manufactures. We have only the High Schools (and Collegiate Institutes), and they are for culture purposes alone—a fact which should never be lost sight of. We must stand firm upon the ground that the educational system is not intended to prepare boys and girls to earn a living, but, through their studies and their intercourse with men and women of character and education, in the fullest sense of the term, to train their intelligence and develop their character to such an extent as shall enable them to profit speedily by the further processes of training that are to fit them for earning a livelihood, and shall enable them likewise to adapt themselves readily to the ever-changing conditions of life in such a way as to perform honestly and honorably the various duties devolving upon them.

VII.—CHARACTER.

What the old Bishop was as a man, Jean Valjean was inspired to become by his brief contact with him. The story of his "becoming" is, I suppose, Victor Hugo's main theme in Les Misables, while in tuatre-Vingt-Treize he makes special application of this idea of spiritual fatherhood to the relation of master and pupil in the characters of Gauvain and Cimourdain. If there is any truth in this idea, and few will deny the fact, it behooves us to know well what manner of men we are and ought to be.

VIII.—INTER-RELATION OF KNOWLEDGE.

Teachers of modern languages, perhaps more than any other men and women, except the teacher of history, ought to have a sense of the interrelation of the various branches of knowledge. The classical man may, and sometimes does, look down upon the modern languages as not being worthy his pursuit. In that he makes a great mistake, for no man can be counted a thorough classical scholar nowadays, if he does not know something at first hand of French and German criticism and archaeological research, while his so-called philology, as still treated in some universities, is wofully incomplete without a study of the variations from the old Latin forms presented in the successive stages of the Romance Languages. Yet the classical man who lacks a knowledge of modern languages is no worse than the teacher or student of modern languages who thinks that the Strassburg Oaths are the real beginning of the life of the world. Without Latin at least, Romance philology is ridiculous and much of French literature (to speak of no other) difficult, if not impossible, to appreciate.

Classicist and modern have fought in Ontario in the days gone by, and I am not sure that the fight is over yet. Instead of so doing, they ought to have been working together as those whose cause is one, for the advancement of the interests of education generally, and they ought to have been learning from each other methods of instruction in their favorite subjects of subjects.

History and philosophy touch all departments of human knowledge at so many points that, without them, study of the literature and language of any nation, ancient or modern, has next to no meaning. Without Kant, where were Schiller? and without Comte, where were Taine and many another writer of France in the last century? To the philosophers and historians, then, we are under obligations, which, happily, we can in some sort repay, for no philosopher now can do his work without German, and, in my opinion, without French also. To him who would study the history of Canada, French is absolutely necessary, while the body of historical literature in this country would be much less than it is, were it not for the work that has been done in the province of Quebec.

The great mathematicians and the great men of science in France and Germany, together with their great inventors, have made it impossible, as we all know, for students, maunfacturers, and business men to disregard their work. Once again, we students and teachers of modern languages have a part to play in this co-operative work of education and of facilitating the increase of the sum of human knowledge. In return we gain from the men of science and the mathematicians the benefits of their method. Moreover, if we will but let them have their full influence, we may have the benefit of learning from our study of the best French writers, from Pascal onward, the merits of clear expression due, on the one hand, to clear, logical thinking and, on the other, to the fact that the language itself was fashioned by the thinkers to make their thoughts clear to the ordinary man.

Having regard, then, to the mutual relations of such importance which exist between modern languages and the other departments of study, we ought to set our faces resolutely against everything that looks like undue depreciation of any given subject of study, whether it is the broad abstract question that is being discussed, or simply one of timetable, or the course a pupil is to take. In regard to the last-mentioned, I am afraid that predilections of principals or masters often have more to do with the decision than the pupil's own tastes and aptitudes.

IX—INTERNATIONAL CONSIDERATION.

Bearing in mind that, generally speaking, we are, to a certain extent, the interpreters of the thoughts and ideals of nation to nation, we ought to remember in times of quiet as well as of crisis, that other nations besides the British have their appointed work to do, that our ways are not their ways, and that ours are not of necessity better than theirs. To cultivate respect for individuals while we hold views different from theirs, is counted a praiseworthy thing. Why the same rule should not apply to nations, I fail to see. Moreover, there are many things we might well learn from France and Germany, to mention only every-day things such as respect, courtesy, thrift, and finding happiness in the simple pleasures. This mental attitude, then, is another of those things which I hold that the pupil has a right to expect from his High School course in French and German.

X.—NATIONAL CONCERNS.

Following out this same train of thought, and applying it nearer home, let me say that, in building up our Canadian nation, we who teach French have an important part to play. I shall not say German this time, for the same considerations do not apply to it with the same force as to French.

In the main we have in the nation the two constituent parts, French and Anglo-Saxon (or Anglo-Celtic, as some say) descended, to a certain extent, from a common stock, whether we go back to the Northland from which both sprang, or only to the eleventh century when the one which now calls itself in its pride the dominant race was then the vanquished. It took three hundred years to weld the English and the Normans into one nation. Shall we grumble when we have done so much in a hundred and fifty ?

We who are of Scotch or Irish extraction have no right to countenance in any way either aggressive talk or aggressive action when the rights of the French Canadians, guaranteed to them by solemn pledges, are attacked. We should remember how the respective Acts of Union are viewed, even at this late date, in Edinburgh and Dublin. As our kinsfolk in the old homeland have set themselves by intellect and valour to make the term "dominant partner" a misnomer, and have largely succeeded, as witness Mr. Balfour and Lord Rosebery, together with Lords Wolseley and Roberts, let us on this side of the Atlantic not grudge to our French fellow subjects, especially of Quebec, all the honors they have won at home or abroad, thus bringing fresh glory to the Canadian name. For the sake of the Canada that is to be, let us work on side by side, with the strictest regard for old premises and present rights, striving to outdo each other only in that which is for the country's good. If we go down before the others, it will be only because we shall deserve to do so, disagreeable though the thought may be.

Because of the great influence which teachers generally may have in promoting peace and good-will, I have ventured to speak of these matters here. Because of the language question involved, I go further, for that is the sphere of the modern language teacher particularly.

XI.– BILINGUAL COMMUNITIES.

In mixed communities such as Ottawa, Montreal, and Quebec, how much it would conduce to a kindly feeling if the population were even approximately bilingual, as is the case in western and northern Switzerland and in south-western Germany! Following the example of the Englishman, our people usually speak one language only, a custom which is not to be commended. If we do not choose to change the custom, let us follow also his worthy example in the matter of the Welsh and Gaelic languages, and, in view of its projected revival in the schools of Ireland, let us not make overmuch of the recent refusal to allow Erse to be spoken in the House of Commons at Westminister.

XII.—PRACTICAL TEACHING.

In communities where the two nationalities meet they cannot be expected to commingle at once any more than do the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence at their confluence, fitting emblems of the two. But in such communities the teaching of French should be made as practical, as possible, while, considering that education ought always to bear some relation to the needs of the nation, that language should be taught more and more throughout the whole country.

Here would come in also the utility of my plea for Landeskunde, which would supply what is sometimes lacking in the teaching of history, which has, unfortunately, become too much a quesquisite knowledge teachers would have to go to the Province of Quebec, unless some wretched text-book were devised, from which may we be delivered!

During these sojourns in Quebec teachers would learn more of the spoken language. Why the Education Department does not require residence in French and German settlements, I fail to see. If visits to Europe were possible, so much the better. They being impracticable in many cases, it would be well to require of specialists such an addition to their academic training as that just mentioned. The average of good French in the Province of Quebec and of good German, say in the county of Waterloo, is, upon the whole, as high as the average of good English, I take it, in this or any other English-speaking province. However, if it were not what it is, anyone who had been well trained in the languages might go with impunity to either of the districts mentioned, for he would know how to choose the good and leave the bad.

With teachers properly trained (as numbers of them already are), filled also with enthusiasm for their subject and their work, informed by a proper conception of what the study of a language means, and animated by a desire to be useful, in the highest and best of ways, to their country, there would be practically no limitation, except his own immaturity and will-poewr, to the expectations which a pupil might fairly hope to have realized during his course of study in the French and German of the High Schools, given, of course, the removal of the drawbacks now offered by the three sets of limitations herein considered. And, in the best, the only right, sense of the word, he would be a cultured man, for he would have learned not only to love and to continue his studies after leaving school, but, through them, he would have learned how to discharge his duties to himself, to society, and to his country.

TEACHING GRAMMAR.

H. Bonis, B.A., Leamington H.S.

In a certain state examination of teachers the candidates were requested to interpret the phrase "objective teaching" and to name subjects in which this manner of teaching might be applied. One paper contained this reply: "My pupils object chiefly to grammar and music. They say they do not see any use for them."

This rather amusing statement possessed at least one virtue. It was an expression of the teacher's own experience. It is interesting to note that, in a recent canvass of the pupils studying grammar in the public schools of one of our cities , a good majority frankly, though confidentially, confessed that they saw no good reason for studying grammar. Of the remainder, nearly every child repeated the appropriate formula, "Grammar teaches us to speak and write correctly," although a few gave definite reasons for the places of the subject in the course of study, citing their experience to strengthen their argument.

"I do not see,"—said a girl who had just come from the country, "I do not see how grammar teaches you how to speak and write correctly. I know children who never studied grammar who speak correctly, and I know people who speak incorrectly even after they have studied grammar a long time." The observation of other members of the class confirmed her theory. When the conversation turned upon the difficulties in grammar, one pupil volunteered: "It wouldn't be so hard if the words were always the same thing, but sometimes they are one thing, and sometimes they are another. A word may be a noun in one place, and in another place it's a verb, and you never know which is which."

This frank acknowledgment seemed to express the difficulty which nearly every member of the class had met. "How do you discover which is which?" questioned the interlocutor. "I walk in the fields every day." "The walk through the pine grove on the hill is a very pleasant one." The country girl proceeds to reply: "You have to think what your word means." Bringing forward her definitions of noun and verb and applying them to the words in each sentence, as she interpreted the sentence she solved the problem, announcing that "walk" was a verb in the first sentence and a noun in the second.

The conclusion of the whole matter was summed up in the suggestion of the thoughtful pupil—"You have to think in order to answer any question in grammar." The pupils readily conceded that any subject which taught them to think was worth while, and with this general consent to the existing order of things, the debate was closed.

The conversation was a typical one, and the attitude of the pupils indicated one of the serious difficulties in teaching grammar. Too often grammar is presented to the pupils under a false flag. "It is to teach them to speak and write correctly," they are told; but forthwith they are set to studying the "classification, derivation, and various modifications of words." As a matter of fact, their study bears a very slight relation to the correctness of their speaking and writing. In the end their grammatical knowledge may serve to test forms of speech which they have learned to challenge; but, as everybody knows, speech is largely a matter of imitation and repetition. Those who are accustomed in youth to correct practice will speak well, even if their knowledge of grammar is exceedingly limited.

One value of the study of grammar, however, lies in the fact that it forces the pupil to challenge every word in the sentence, to weigh its meaning, and to discover the work which that word has to do. Thoughtful reading, then, should be one result of teaching grammar. Appreciation of fine shades of meaning should follow in the steps of grammatical training. The power to arrange, to classify, to separate, to balance, to judge should be developed by the careful study of words. The power to interpret the speech of another and to make one's own speech clear, correct, and cogent should be the outcome of the study of grammar .

A class in grammar were once set to analyze the simple sentence, "The boys with merry hearts started on their excursion." "'With merry hearts' is an adverbial phrase modifying 'started,'" said the first student. The others all agreed. Questions developed the fact that the pupil thought "with merry hearts" to be an adverbial phrase because it began with "with"—a vague groping after the word-classification and the lists which had been committed to memory,—surface study. All the members voted that John was correct in his analysis. He must be right or he must be wrong. They considered that he was right. The visitor asked a question in arithmetic: "Eight and five are how many?" "Thirteen." "Any other answer would be wrong." "Thirteen was the only right answer." Their judgment was compared with the decision upon the question of grammar. The analysis was right or wrong, but not in an absolute sense, as in the mathematical statement. · Discussion divided the class into two parties. "If the sentence means that the boys started on their excursion with merry hearts, then it is an adverbial phrase modifying started.'" "If the sentence means that the merry-hearted boys, or the boys having merry hearts, or the boys whose hearts were merry, started on an excursion, then it is an adjective phrase modifying 'boys.'"

The analysis of the sentence at last caused the pupils to investigate the meaning of the sentence, to admit that in this case two different constructions might at least be allowed, and to acknowledge that two interpreters might differ in their judgment, and yet each, from his own point of view, might be right.

This illustration is a very simple one, but the trend of the discussion in the case shows one of the needs of the present-day study of gramamr. It should emphasize first, last, and always the thought in the sentence. Its main purpose should be to lead the pupil to interpret the thought. Having decided what the sentence means, he is ready to discuss the function of each separate word in the sentence. This decision will be determined by his own individual interpretation of the thought.

The ability to get the thought from the sentence, as one would extract a kernel from a nut, is indispensable to clear speaking and writing and to intelligent reading. The classification, which is necessary in parsing and analysis, necessitates keen observation, accurate comparison, critical judgment, and clear statement. It necessitates the subjective study of one's own thoughts. Rightly conducted, it develops clear thinking, power of logical arrangement, thoughtful interpretation, and a tolerant spirit.

Such results cannot be secured by simply announcing definitions and requiring the pupils to commit them to memory and to attach to them suitable lists of words. The scientific study of grammar demands the ordinary scientific procedure. The child must observe his own experience (in grammar, the expression of his own thoughts). He must state accurately and truthfully what he has observed. To this statement of his own experience the grammatical term may be attached, until his observation is wide enough to warrant the grammatical definition or the statement of a universal principle.

For example, if the young student begins his study of grammar with the statement that "all words are divided into eight classes, called parts of speech ; these are nouns, pronouns, etc. ; a noun is the name of a person, place, or thing," etc., he is simply repeating words expressing a general truth, which he accepts on the testimony of another. This line of approach is unscientific in the extreme. It results in the vague groping after definitions and "the words of the book" to be attached to the subject under discussion.

If on the other hand, they are led to the apprehension of grammatical truths by a statement of their own experience, they walk all the way with solid ground under their feet. For example, the pupil studies sentences in his own composition—the sentences which express his own thoughts—and discovers that in these sentences certain words have a certain work to do. He says: "Jack is the name of a boy John Smith is the name of a man. Mary Snow is the name of a girl. These words are names of persons. Some words name persons." He goes on with his investigation until he is ready to announce that some words name places; some words name things This is a truthful statement of the result of his personal investigation. The teacher adds the term used in grammar to name the class—"Such words are nouns."

The student has now made a fair report of his investigation, and out of his own experience makes the truthful statement, "Some words name persons, places, or things; such words are called nouns." He finds in his own composition, or in the writings of others, words which name persons, places, or things, and are, therefore, nouns. After sufficient investigation he is prepared to accept the general truth included in the definition, "A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing."

It is clear that the pupil who approaches the study of the sentence with the avowed purpose of discovering the work of every word in the sentence; who studies the expression of his own thought in order to discover what work is done by his own words; who truthfully reports his observation in partial statements, since his observation is partial; and who builds up his conclusions to be capped by appropriate terms, is following the natural law and is pursuing a scientific course. Such study is widely removed from the bare repetition of definitions and the vain groping for correct answers. It is all the way an expression of the pupil's own experience. It deals with the thing signified rather than with the sign. Such a course of action revolutionizes the ordinary teaching of grammar.

It is a proposition now generally admitted among thinkers, that most of the ideas represented in language by words have their foundations in some of the elementary notions connected with the senses of sight, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling,—the vast majority of them, however, relating to the three first-mentioned senses, hence among the most common foundation—notions in language are those of *time*, *place*, and *motions*. *Time*, being in reality measured by sensations of all kinds, gives rise to many derived word-notions; e. g., *live*, *during*, *while*, *after*, *youth*, etc. *Place* and *motion* are equally prolific parents of wood-notions It is sufficient to mention, in addition to the large number of concrete nouns belonging here, such words as *in*, *beyond*, *near*, *some*, *all*, *and*, *but*, *stand*, *strike*, etc. Although the process by which complicated word-notions have arrived at their present place is often a long and intricate one, yet it will often be found advantageous, especially in junior classes, to attempt to trace backward to their origin, in far-off times, from simple concrete notions, the highly conventionalized meanings which the word-signs for these bear at the present day. This is an exercise which, while primarily belonging to the teacher of literature, will often be found exceedingly useful in the teaching of English grammar.

The following devices, among others of a similar character, have been found helpful by the writer in teaching the latter subject to junior High School students. They are based for the most part on the principle just stated; viz., that it is possible to trace in most words a relationship to one of the elementary ideas just mentioned, and hence the essential notion represented by the word may be shown *graphically*, by means of diagrams upon the blackboard.

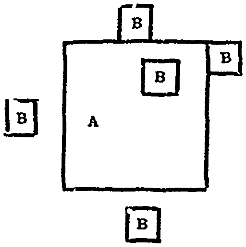
Take for instance the case of the abstract noun. The ordinary way of showing the nature of these words is by a process of induction from examples, aided by a definition involving in itself such abstract terms as *quality*, etc. This does not go far enough, however, since the true origin of these words and the relation which each bears to other kindred words is not thereby brought out.

To do this let the teacher ask the class to name several objects which have the quality denoted by some abstract noun, e.g., *beauty.* Arrange the names of these objects either vertically or horizontally on the board thus: (beautiful) *house*, (a) *horse*, (b) *sunset*, (c) *true*, (d) *woman*, (e) *landscape*, (f) etc. What is the *something* which these all possess in common? The answer will be—"beauty." Show the connection between the abstract notion expressed by this word (*abstract* from ab-from, and traho-draw) and the concrete foundation-notions, thus:

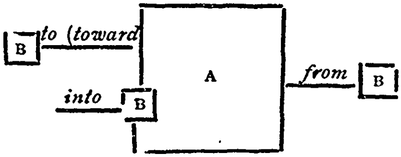
(A), (B) (C), (D), (E), (F) & (G),
————> *Beauty* <————

Again, the meaning of *relation* in connection with prepositions and conjunctions (in some cases) may be shown by a diagram. Let a square marked (a), be used to denote the second, or noun element, of the two parts of the sentence connected by the preposition (or injunction). A smaller square, marked (b), may be used to denote the first of the two sentence elements connected by the propositions. This, in common parlance, may belong to almost any of the parts of speech, so called, yet, as relationship can in reality exist only between two *objects*, the first element will always be found to contain at least a noun-notion, whatever form it may happen to take.

Beginning however with a simple case, such as the sentence, the bird *in* that cage is a good singer, and varying it by changing the preposition in turn to *on*, *beside*, *under*, *near*, etc. The diagram will show the meaning of *relation* very plainly, thus:—



Again prepositions denoting motion may have their meaning illustrated as follows:—



The force of the conjunctions *and* and *but* may be similarly illustrated, thus;—

————>————>————>

He tried hard to persuade his companion and at length succeeded. Here the two thoughts may be represented by a continuous line, the second part of the sentence advancing, as it were, from the point reached by the first. In the sentence—He tried hard to persuade his companion but could not succeed in doing so—the second part of the sentence is adversative to the first, and the relation may be indicated accordingly, by a reversal of the direction of the line at the word *but.* The diagram may be put in this way:—

<————<————>————> *but*
<————<————

From such simple beginnings it will not be hard to deduce, by analogy, the relational force of such words as *except*, *save*, and others which are more difficult to deal with, especially when discussed in the ordinary way without the use of diagrams.

Transitive verbs, again, offer a field for the use of the diagram ;

——▷———▷———▷
thus—John struck the ball but—

◁——◁——◁——◁———
The ball was struck by John

The arrows show the direction in which the action passes in each case, viz., in the active voice from the subject to the object, and in the passive voice from the agent to the subject. Incidentally it may be shown that transitive verbs have all more or less connection in their meanings with the idea of *motion*.

These few examples of the use of diagram in illustrating grammatical points might be multiplied indefinitely ; but if the idea be once taken up, the ingenious teacher will find no lack of cases where it may with advantage be used, nor much difficulty in finding appropriate ways of carrying it out in each case. Let no one, however, despise the method as being childish and unsuited to any but very young pupils.

The late Professor George Parton Young, of University College, Toronto, was accustomed to make much use of it in his lectures on logic to the under graduates of that institution, and few of those who had the privilege of listening to those lectures would question the value of his methods. All minds, and particularly those of the young, are continually striving after the concrete in the attempt to realize fully the meanings of the words which come to them through the ear, or are presented to them through the medium of printed or written characters. Hence, whatever tends to aid this effort tends also to clearness of comprehension. This, as has already been indicated, is the principle involved in using diagrams as aids to word explanation in teaching English grammar.

EDUCATION AND LABOR.

Mr. President, Members of the University, Friends of the University :

One of the chief aims of a university is the study of relations. Men examine the relations of one attribute of God to another, the relations of God to another, the men to God, the relations of one language to other languages, of one alkali or acid to another. In some cases to the untutored mind the objects under vision seem too trivial or too remote from daily interests to justify the search into their connections. This is not so with the two things that we have to look at to-day: Education and Labor. They absorb a large part of the thought and activity of the community in which we live.

What do we mean by education? Partly to-day the drawing out of a man's powers and character by training them, partly the body of men in this neighborhood whose powers and character have been especially developed by training. When we speak of education, we do not mean merely something classical, technical, or economic, but as well something moral. And we shall touch upon education in its alliance with wealth. We have

[*] Delivered on the occasion of the Thirty-ninth Quarterly Convocation of the University of Chicago, held in the University Quadrangles, August 29, 1901.

in view real education and not sham education. Education that is the result of a purpose, a well-taken purpose. An education which includes self-development, the unfolding, enriching, applying of all the powers of the mind. This self-development must not, however, rest in self or find its highest end in itself. It must point towards the good of others. The offset to this is sham education. Such education aims merely to do "what others do." It looks at the outside, at the show, at the surface or polish gained. It seeks a position for itself. It means to enjoy itself, enjoy life, have a good time. It is selfishness grown up and run riot, and not the best use of the best self to the best end.

The labor that we here have in view is perhaps more limited. It is not at this moment especially applied to brain labor, but rather to labor with the hands, to the labor of a workman in this daily sense, and to the body of such workmen around us. And we shall touch upon labor in its union with poverty. We mean real labor; labor that proceeds from the inborn wish, inborn bent that leads to action; labor that seeks to use its powers. This labor feels that it must act, that it is not itself if it do no act, that it does not live if it do not act. This labor aims, it is true, to better itself, but not selfishly. It tries to help its kind. It tries to do good to and for other men in its way. It is ever ready to put its shoulder to the neighbor's wheel to bring the wagon out of the bog. It will leave the world the better for its having lived. Sham labor is of another cast. It works only so far as it cannot help working. It works that it may not be called lazy. Working for daily bread, it goes farther at the best only to gain the means of self-indulgence. It tries to decry and hinder real labor. It does what it may by sloth and by hard words to keep back or bring back every man who tries to get ahead.

Before we undertake to examine their relations in detail it will be in place to call attention to the fact that to-day many men, many groups of men, many societies of men are looking around for others with whom they may join together. The power of union as shown by the fable of the bundle of sticks is felt strongly. Men and groups see that they singly may be broken as the single sticks were, but that united they can no more be broken than the whole bundle of sticks could be. Education, educated people, the educated part of the population, needs companions, allies, backers. And just as much does labor need these comrades. Further, we all know very well that men do not always at the first glance recognize their real likes and dislikes. Courtship and marriage tell us that. There is many a wife and many a husband who did not marry the persons they at first admired, and who are glad that they did not marry them. More than one man has married happily a woman whom he once thought he never could abide. Very well. Education and labor may be meant for each other, ever if they do not yet know it as clearly as they may later, and even if some people are ready to forbid the bans.

The moment that we name education and labor and ask how they are related to each other, many men will be inclined to say that education and labor do not belong together, that they will no more mix than oil and water. These men would say of a man of toil: "He is not educated. He is only a workman." Or they would say of another man: "If he be educated he is certainly not a workman." In so speaking they would express the opinion of a large part of the community and of many workmen themselves.

Other men will say: "The union is already there; labor has to do what education orders." These men mean that, if astreet is to be laid out, before the workmen begin, some educated man will need to go over the ground and to consider from an intelligent point of view all the surroundings. That he would have to look at the whole lay of the land and calculate what water will run down into or pour down upon this land, and how all that water can, unhindered, run off somewhere else. That he will have to compute the probable traffic, the probable foot passengers, the probable business upon that street, so that he may know how many feet wide the pavement must be, and how many feet in width he will need for standing wagons, and how many for passing and meeting wagons and cars. That he will have to deal with the question as to the probable heights of the houses on each side in determining the width of the street, lest it should by unexpectedly high houses be turned into a damp, dark alley. That he will have to calculate the weight and kind of the traffic in order to determine what kind of a roadbed is necessary; and so on. The notion is that before labor, the workman, builds a house, education, the architect, must draw the plans and determine every least particular; that before a machine is cast in its parts, education must say what every part must be. And the same is true of the production of colors, of chemicals, of ornamental articles. Another man would run this on into politics, and declare that the workmen upon this strange field could do nothing at all without the direction of education, and that labor needed education to represent it in the legislative halls, and even education in a lower form, in the ward bosses, to tell it how to vote. To the minds of such men education is the master, labor is the servant, and there is the end of the whole matter. And they do not understand why we should give any thought to the question. There is no question about it. The thing was settled long ago, before Joseph was sold into Egypt.

Of course we concede that there is, that there has been, and that there will continue to be, a relation of this kind in which there will be a preparation for labor on the part of education. We deny, however, that this is the whole of the relation of labor to education, and we deny that this is the relation of the servant to his master.

And we assert that education and labor need each other, and need each other humanly speaking equally, and need each other as equals.

To say that education needs labor, in the sense that the educated needs to have laboring men to do for them the chores that they cannot or will not do for themselves, does not need much insight. Everyone knows that. And if occasionally an educated man comes to think that he does not need labor, eight days without the services of labor would be enough to clear his view of the case. You will readily believe that I do not suppose this very weighty relation of labor to education to need proof at this moment, even though it would not be hard to give striking examples of it.

Education needs labor in another way. Education tends to grow weak in certain relations, the educated tend to lose energy as they advance in certain lines, to lose their grip, their power of insistence and persistence. This, labor can remedy by example, by word, by direct pressure. The educated man, by dint of thinking over the power of the world, the flesh, and the devil, has come at last to be a pessimist, to believe that all is going to the bad or is clear gone already. He is sure that the devil, under some name, be it Ahriman or Satan or what not, has gotten the better of the Creator of the Universe, of the good God of our fathers. He throws down his arms in the conflict with wrong. He shuts himself up in his books and wraps himself round in his thoughts, and awaits in sorrow his own or the world's end. Such a man can find an antidote in the robust belief of labor. Labor may have broken with the current religion under the feeling that religion has been leased by capital to help control labor. But labor will almost always hold fast to God and to prayer, much as it might be at a loss to define its thought of God or to say why it believed in prayer. I remember two cases: one of a worker in iron, if I am not mistaken, who, before a number of his own class, said that religion was all nonsense—he meant religion as usual in the churches—but who insisted upon it that he prayed; the other case was a master mason, and he said, in his rough way: "A fellow must have religion in his body"—he meant that a man without real religion in him was not a fully fitted man. The mass of labor is, I am inclined to think, not atheistic but opposed to the churches. The statement of this position often runs to atheistic statements, especially in the words of excited leaders. The faintheartedness of education may find a support in the persistence of labor, not only in true religion but also, in common life and work.

Education needs labor in a further sense. One part of the weakness of education as a moment ago thought of shows itself in hereditary weakness, that educated men often have weak children, witness the members of the hereditary aristocracy in England, to avoid examples nearer at hand; the latest and perhaps the best thing was the American with such a vivid sense of his own weakness that he put himself as near as possible to the members of that aristocracy, much, it is to be feared, to the dismay of good Englishmen. Educated families degenerate, lose stamina, die out; labor must replace them. The son of the locksmith, of the carpenter, of the shoemaker, of the bricklayer, of the sailor, of the farmer, comes up with his clear head, with his plain common sense, with his inborn sense of right and wrong that does no hair-splitting, with his unconquerable energy, and goes to the front rank in education.

Education needs labor, however, in another sense, the last point to be mentioned here. It is hard to give to this point its due force, not because it is too slight but because it is too weighty. There are certain things lying at the basis of daily life that we scarcely ever think of. Take the earth itself upon which we stand, sit, move about. How seldom do we with comfort put our feet down upon it and say: "How good and firm that is." Let the landsman be tossed long upon the sea and he will feel the difference when he returns to the earth. Let the earthquake rock the ground, throw down the walls, drink up the wells, and man is glad to have again the common plain solid earth under his feet. Something akin to this weight of a thing little thought of is to be found in the relation of labor to education that we at this instant have in view. Place education in its union with wealth over against labor in its union with poverty and the picture will become clearer.

Educated people have in general no idea of their isolation in the world, in the sense now in view, over against want and poverty. By far the majority of educated people, so far as my experience goes, have the impression that they numerically make up a very large part of the community. They see a man who puts coal or wood in for them, they see an occasional day laborer when they pass a new building that is going up, they read in the papers of cases of distress in town. But all that gives them no notion of number on the other side, no view of their own numerical insignfiicance over against the myriads of poor laborers. There are rich and there are doubtedless, yes, upon consideration there really are poor, but there are not many poor people; riches and poverty, rich men and poor men, are about evenly balanced. Now this is what I have in mind. The case is totally different . We have not in the community 50 per cent. rich people and 50 per cent. poor people; no such thing. There are rather 20 per cent. rich people and 80 per cent. poor people, or, if we set the measure a little higher, 10 per cent. rich people and 90 per cent. poor people. The uneducated and the poor are the great mass; the educated and the rich are the few.

What follows? Education needs labor, needs it not merely to do chores, not merely to give new energy, not merely to renew depleted ranks—needs it as the rest, the main and chief part, of the body corporate. Shall we call education the head ? Very well. What would a head look like stood up on the ground by itself? What could it do, without arms, hands, legs, feet, heart, lungs, stomach, liver ?

Consider the question in a national light. Take away labor and where would the American people be? What could we call 10 or 20 per cent. of the population? The population of the United States is 77 millions: Take away 61.5 millions and leave 15.5 millions; where would the nation be? To what level would it sink? Call the educated 10 per cent. Take away 69.5 millions and leave 7.5 millions. Where would the

United States stand among the nations?

The idea that education can wrap itself up in its knowledge and virtues and can with the help of wealth afford to despise, neglect, do without labor and poverty, poor laboring men, is one of the most absurd thoughts that the mind of man could entertain. Education needs labor, needs it imperatively, constantly, cannot subsist without it.

SOME FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL IDEAS.

Fabian Ware, M. A.

The educational ideas which I propose to consider this evening are those popular ideas which ultimately determine the direction of educational progress in a nation. It is not the ideals of philosophers which really determine the path of educational progress. We are too apt in studying foreign countries to regard only the views of the philosophers and leaders of educational thought; but, great as the influence of these undoubtedly is, they are unable to impose their own ideals on the popular will. If, for instance, we consider Germany—a country where the weight and influence of philosophers may be said to have attained their maximum—few would be bold enough to assert that even there the actual system of education, either in its external aspects or in its internal tendencies, can be traced in all, or even the mais, features of its development to the teaching of the Pestalozzis, Herbarts, and Froebels. Besides the personal influences of men so great as these other forces have been at work—forces social, economic, and religious, which philosophy may have attempted to fathom or to analyze, but for which it has only been able to offer a hypothetical explanation of the causes which produce them, or, at best, to critize their results. In so far as this criticism has permeated the mass of people, and has led them to modify future ac-ion in the light of this interpretation of past experience, so far only has this influence—and it is hardly necessary to pause to consider how very slight this has been—had any appreciable effect on the course of progress.

From time to time, it is true, one of these individuals who, in his overweening pride, imagines that it is possible to change the course of human events to suit his own ends, has attempted to modify the action of these forces by placing them under the control of philosophers. You will remember—if we may venture to draw a lesson from the history of the remote past—how Artaxerxes when he set out to restore the Persian monarchy, called together the Magi, the philosophers, priests and educators of that land; on this incident Gibbon is as instructive and luminous as usual. He says: "To suppress the idolaters, reunite the schismatics, and confute the unbelievers, by the infallible decision of a general council, the pious Artaxerxes summoned the Magi from all parts of his dominions." If for a moment I may be pardoned a digression, I believe there are some people who imagine that the objects of our Government in calling together a Consultative Committee were, or, at any rate, should have been, much the same as those of Artaxerxes in summoning his Council of the Magi. And I am not sure that there are not some schoolmasters who would have been gratified if the Government had rivalled Artaxerxes in the liberality of his summons to the Magi. For, again to quote Gibbon, "these priests who had so long sighed in contempt and obscurity obeyed the welcome summons, and on the appointed day appeared to the number of about eighty thousand." Artaxerxes had, however, no difficulty in reducing his tumultuous assembly to the more reasonable number of seven. The final collapse of the system thus established is however, known to all, and I quote this instance merely as an example offered by history of the futility of attempting to suppress with the aid of phiosophers whose forces which, even if the superficial traces of their onward march may be temporarily effaced, as Artaxerxes you will remember succeeded in doing, inevitably proceed along their destined lines, building or disintegrating nations. It is under pressure of those forces that peoples form these ideals which guide them in the development of their educational systems, even if that development be temporarily diverted by political tyranny served by so-called philosophic thought.

I have said that these forces may be classified under three headings: social, religious, and economic. I wish, then, to consider—necessarily in a very broad and general manner, suggesting rather than filling in in detail—some of the educational ideas which one or more of these forces has produced among three foreign peoples. I shall begin with France, for France seems to me—for reasons which it is difficult to explain—the country from which we have during the last thirty of forty years borrowed more educational ideas than from any other. Now, at the end of the last century, France, in the full fervour of her democratic zeal, regarded education as one of the indefeastible rights of man. It should be remembered that the democratic aspirations of Frenchmen have been generally directed towards social equality rather than towards individual liberty. Social rank and its outward symbols appeal but slightly to the English democrat; he takes as granted his equality, if not his superiority, to all his neighbors, and merely asks to be let alone to enjoy it. The French democrat, on the other hand, has little objection to the interference of the State with his individual liberty so long as he is given full opportunity to rise in the social scale; his first ambition being to attain that rank which justifies the wearing of a distinctive mark or badge.

I believe one of the reasons why we so constantly fail to understand or appreciate the actions of the French is because we do not allow for this fundamental difference between the views of the French and English democrat. The Frenchman's ambitions are generally confined to the achievement of social equality; the Englishman's ideal is complete individual liberty. It is exceedingly important to remember this when instituting any comparison between the French and English educational systems. It will immediately explain why the educational ideal of the French democrats has always been a ladder leading from the gutter to the University, not primarily because the University the stepping-stone to moral and intellectual heights, but because it is a door to the regions of social grandeur. The educational ladder has, on the other hand, never found an abiding resting place in the dreams of the English proletariat, often as it has, for party purposes, been presented to the imagination of the working classes at School Board elections. It will be easily understood, in the light of these observations, why the educational ladder—when an attempt has been made to set it up—has not proved an unmixed blessing to the French people, and why there is something in the assertion which reaches us from the other side of the Channel that universal, free, secondary, and University education produces a large number of useless and discontented unemployed. One of the first men to remark this was Guizot. You will remember that Guizot was a man who had no sympathy with democratic aspirations. To quote the words of one of the compatriots, he came to the conclusion, from his wide historical studies, that "the whole of European history, from the invasion of the barbarians onwards, tended everywhere, and particularly in France, to form, raise up, enlighten, and enrich a middle class of society." To foster this middle class, to replace the tyranny of birth, the tyranny of equality, and the tyranny of merit—which three tyrannies had succeeded one another in dazzling rapidity in France to replace these by the tyranny of wealth was consciously or unconsciously the object of all Guizot's efforts. It is well here to remember Cobden's observation that Guizot struck him as a man whose academic studies had rendered him incapable of seeing men as they were in actual life. However, this may be, Guizot, when he was Minister of Public Instruction, raised the first great barrier to free secondary education. Referring to the lower middle classes — who occupied a position half way between pecuniary ease and extreme poverty—he deplored the effect on them of secondary education, producing, as he said, "a number of mediocrities out of their proper sphere, who were no longer able to make a way for themselves in life, and who degenerated into ungrateful, wretched, and discontented beings, a burden to others and themselves." Guizot was the founder of that system of higher primary education the object of which is, and the result of which in a very great degree has been according to the most recent French statistics, to keep children in the trades or occupations of their parents. This is the system which has been so busily imitated during the last few years in England, by those who are loudest in asserting the benefits of a ladder leading from the gutter to the University!

Now, the higher primary system of France has gone on developing rapidly, and its general tendency has been to become more and more technical and more and more specialized. It is somewhat strange that a people who have sacrificed so much in the quest for social equality should have allowed a system of education to be thus imposed on them by their plutocrats—a system which confirms existing social barriers better than any oppressive laws in support of privilege. That this system has on the whole, proved temporarily beneficial to France cannot be doubted. It certainly has stopped a large number of persons from the lower classes without the necessary intellectual ability from wasting the most valuable years of their youth in classical secondary schools, where the curriculum is adapted to the special requirements of boys destined for the learned professions. In every country such a curriculum appears to possess a certain social attraction ; that it is so accounts for the failure of that admirable system of modern secondary education, designed by some of the most enlightened of French officials to supply the need, which they believed to exist, for a type of secondary education that would offer all the benefits of a sound general training and at the same time not terminate in its highest branches with specialization for the learned professions. This type has no attractions for the French lower classes ; those of them who can afford to escape the higher primary net still prefer the classical school, with its social sanctity. In short, the higher primary school in France is not the result of popular ideals, but a temporary corrective imposed by the political tyranny of the bourgeoisie. Before leaving this subject we may note the fact that those enthusiastic and genuine French educationists who regard the higher primary system as a realization of their ideals contend that in its highest branches it offers a well organized technical curriculum —commercial, industrial, and agricultural. They maintain that the competition between nations has become so intense that technical education, of even so low a grade, providing special training for future occupations, has become essential for every member of the community destined to the occupations of commerce, industry, and agriculture. There is no need to repeat the refutation of this argument before the present audience. The only strange thing, as I said before, is that this system should have been held up to the English for imitation by more than one eminent educationist.

One more point in connection with France : it is full of significance for us in England on the eve of the organization of our secondary education. (I say the eve, Sir, in deference to public opinion. There are some of us who would rather not specify the exact temporal relation between the present and that long desired consummation.) In England, some of us are under the impression that the French are not very religious people ; and yet the astonishing fact was disclosed by the recent French Commission on Secondary Education that, while the numbers attending the lycees and colleges in 1884 were ninety-one thousand, they are now not more than eighty-five thousand. The numbers in the private clerical schools have during the same period increased by sixteen thousand, and are now more than ninety thousand. Social pejudices may have something to do with this ; the remarkable successes of the clerical schools at the public examinations may also offer some explanation, but there is at the same time not the least doubt that a very large number of the French people, however lax they may be in matters of formal religious observance, are sincerely attached to the Church and religion of their ancestors ; and, whatever their own attitude may be towards both, they are firmly convinced that there can be no satisfactory education for their children which ignores the fundamental principles of the teaching of the only Church with which they are intimately acquainted. It was apparently an unfortunate day for the State secondary schools of France when the Government allowed the religious question to enter into the discussions connected with their organization.

(To be continued.)

CANADIAN AND AMERICAN IDEALS.

In a thoughtful speech recently delivered at Highgate, in the County of Elgin, the minister of Justice, Hon. David Mills, gave frank utterance to some suggestive opinions on Canadian national ideals. To these opinions the people of the United States, no less than the people of Canada would do well to take heed. The peace of this continent, and perhaps the peace of the world, may depend, to a large extent, on the kind of view which prevails on this subject.

Judging from many indications obvious to all careful observers, it is difficult to root out of the minds of the American people the conviction that those two countries will yet, in response to some "manifest destiny," become one. It is useless to ignore the fact that the mutual advantage desirable from free trade will always act as an incentive to political union, but it has always so acted, and yet the two countries have been for several years past drifting more and more rapidly apart. This is a political phenomenon which appears incomprehensible to our neighbors, but is easily understood from the Canadian side.

Lying close to the root of the whole matter is the truth stated so clearly and indisputably by Mr. Mills, that the people of the United States are "less friendly to the United Kingdom than they are to any other country in Christendom. There is absolutely no justification for such a spirit and attitude, but in spite of the lack of provocation, and in spite of positive services of inestimable value rendered by Great Britain to the United States, this flagrant injustice goes on and becomes yearly more rampant. No wonder it arouses a feeling of chronic indignation in the minds of Canadians. They have no cause of quarrel with the United Kingdom, and they have a chivalrous regard, when they have no stronger feeling, for a great people who show so little resentment at treatment so unjust. To all intelligent observers it is patent enough that the interests of the two countries are practically identical in world-politics, and if the people of the United States wish to attract Canadian sympathy they will recognize this truth and act on it.

But more than that is required to overcome the growing repugnance of Canadians to political union. We do not like the Government of the United States, either in form or practice. It has in it, as Sir Henry Maine once pointed out, a dash of the oligarchical nature which characterized the British Government when the effort was made a century and a quarter ago to adapt it to the new republic. Long after that time, when the theory and practice of responsible government had become firmly established, the principle of it was transferred to the Provinces, which in 1867 became the Dominion of Canada. Here it took strong root, and here it has flourished abundantly. It is exactly suited alike to our genius and our needs. It enables us to have about the kind of administration we prefer, and at all events we can exercise a more perfect control over it than our neighbors can over theirs. Until they learn to appraise this important difference at its real value, they will fail to understand why we cannot join them.

In the practice of government we see from our near by standpoint so much that is objectionable in the United States that the resultant feeling is one of disgust. The habit of co-ordinating municipal, State, and national administrations on the same party lines of cleavage has given rise to municipal conditions practically unknown to us except by observation. Nothing like Tammany could exist here, for men will not vote at municipal elections according to the dictates of national party organizations. From incompetency we may sometimes suffer, but we are fairly free from municipal corruption. National corruption we have had, but we have visited it with retribution, not condoned it in the light of day as is done with the abominations of the pension bureau in spite of repeated exposures.

More horrible still to Canadians is the defective administration of criminal justice in the United States. When a criminal, about whose guilt there is little reason to doubt, is placed on trial he is able to interpose successive delays to defeat justice if only he has the funds necessary for the purpose, and when he is convicted he is far too frequently pardoned before he has expiated his crime. On the other hand, the prevalence of lynch law is repugnant not merely to the maxims of our jurisprudence, but to the instincts of our people. The wretch who was tried, convicted, and executed in the far-off Yukon district for a triple murder, might have been either snatched from justice or prematurely burned at the stake if he had been in the United States, instead of being run to earth by sleuth-hound persistence, calmly tried with every opportunity of defence, and in due time brought to the gallows as an awful example of the certainty, and the majesty of British justice administered in a British dominion by Provincial officers. Until both laxity and lynching are eliminated from American jurisprudence

Canadians may well be excused from casting their political lot in with a people whom history will condemn for abuses that would disgrace the most savage tribes under British jurisdiction.

It is not necessary to dwell at length on such matters as the lack of reverance for the home, and the lack of appreciation of the day of weekly rest. These have a close relation to national civilization in many ways, and Canadians do not like a lax divorce system or a completely secularized Sabbath. Annexation might not inflict either of them upon us, but there is a prevalent conviction that it would, and until this is uprooted it must remain a standing and very formidable obstacle to political union of the two nations.

Neither is it necessary to dwell on the falling off in calibre of American statesmanship, the increase of demagogism, and the resort to foreign filibustering on a large scale as a means of making party political capital at home. Canadians do not like the way in which Spain was driven into war; they do not approve of the treatment extended to the Filipinos who were entitled to the status of allies of their present conquerors; above all they revolt at the manifest purpose to violate a solemn national pledge to confer political freedom on the Cuban people. It is not satisfactory to us to be told that the Filipinos and the Cubans are to be better off under American rule; we believe in the right of every people to work out its own political destiny.

In short, the ideals of the Canadian nation are so unlike the ideals of the American nation that it is better for both to continue apart, and we firmly believe that in the long run it will be better for the world. We are not exactly like either the Americans or the British. We are developing institutions of our own with a steadfastness and self-reliance which are coming into general appreciation. Canada is to all intents and purposes a "nation" with national aims and aspirations. To all appearance she will never be less of a nation that she is to-day. The strong wine of young national life is pulsating in her blood. No man who has any sympathy with annexation dare proclaim his opinions unless he is prepared for social ostracism. It would surely be better for the publicists and statesmen of the United States to recognize not merely our right but our determination to develop our own political future and content themselves with taking a friendly, if not a sympathetic interest in our ways of doing it.

The Westminister.

READING IS THE NOBLEST OF THE PASSIONS.

'La Formation du Style par l'Assimilation des Auteurs' is the title of a work by M. Antoine Albalat which has just been published by M. Armand Colin of Paris. It is a handy little 8vo. volume which may be cordially recommended to the general reader, and will be especially valuable to the student of French literature. The object of the author is to show, from a practical point of view how a good literary style may be acquired by studying and assimilating the methods of good writers. This has been the objest, of course, of many a teacher before M. Albalat, but he claims that it has not been attempted on the same plan as he adopts, and that many of his predecessors in the same field have been blind leaders of the blind.

In a note sent us by the French publisher with the volume we are told that 'The immense reading of M. Albalat, his unerring taste, and rare originality of mind have enabled him successfully to carry out his difficult task,' and a study of his charming little work confirms this view.

I. D'Israeli, in his essay on 'Literary Character,' says that 'the French nation insist that the Northerns are defective in taste—the taste, they tell us, which is established at Paris, and which existed at Athens'; and that, on the other hand, 'the Gothic imagination of the North spurns at the timid copiers of the Latin classics.'

How the Gothic imagination spurns is well exemplified in the following amusing bit from Carlyle's 'Frederick the Great' which we happen to come across after reading 'La Formation du Style.' Carlyle is referring to Marshall Belleisle—the 'Artificial Sun-god' as he dubs him—and his magnificent designs in the interests of France and Louis XV.:—

'France,' he says, 'is an extremely pretty creature, but this idea of making France the supreme Governor and God's Vicegerent of Nations, is, was, and remains one of the maddest notions. France at its ideal best, and with a demigod for a king over it, were by no means fit for such function; nay, of many Nations, is eminently the unfittest for it; and France at its worst or nearly so, with a Louis XV. over it by way of demigod—O Bellisle, what kind of France is this, shining in your grandiose imagination in such contrast to the stingy fact, like a creature consisting of two enormous wings five hundred yards in potential extent, and no bigger than that of a common Cock, weighing three pounds avoirdupois. Cock with his own gizzard much out of sorts, too!'

It would be interesting to know what M. Albalat thinks of Carlyle's style, though this is not quite a fair specimen to ask a Frenchman to judge by—Northern and Gothic it certainly is. Probably our author would refer us to his chapter on L'Emploi des Epithetes, and remind us, with a Gallic shug, that 'le gesier de Carlyle etait toujours "out of sorts."'

'Reading,' remarks M. Albalat (and who among our readers will dispute it ?), 'is the noblest of the Passions, it nourishes the mind as bread nourishes the body. "This gaoler," said Napoleon I. at St. Helena, referring to Hudson Lowe, who restricted his walks, "this gaoler ought to know that exercise is as necessary for my body as reading for my mind."'

Then M. Albalat asks, 'How shall we read? and proceeds to describe very clearly and convincingly certain 'false methods,' advocated in manuals of literature, among others that we should read aloud, on the ground that one who cannot read an author aloud with correct feeling, intonation, etc., cannot possibly understand him.

'This theory,' says our author, 'is insupportable. The art of reading is a special gift. One may read badly and yet be profoundly sensible to the beauties of a work. Many people would be lecturers, actors, singers, and orators, if they had nerve, and if they did not blush at the sound of their own voices. But it does not follow that they do not feel what they cannot express.'

'To read a book well,' says another, 'reflect, see if there is a general idea which dominates the work, then seek to detach the secondary ideas, in order to master the plan; see if the developments are natural and logically deduced; examine every chapter, every page, to see the quality of the thoughts, their value and profundity.'

'Good advice,' is M. Albalat's criticism, 'provided you expect no result from it. In what way could such method aid in the formation of style? Could you learn painting by examining a Rubens in this way, detaching the dominant idea, the plan, composition, proportions, development, and details? Assuredly not. The dilettante, the philosopher, and the critic may read with advantage in this way. He who wishes to learn to read will read quite otherwise.'

'In whatever manner we regard reading, one quality is indispensible; it is taste—le gout.'

What is taste?

'Taste,' says our author, 'is the faculty of feeling the beauties and the defects of a work.'

He adds, that 'it is not given to all the world, and is but very rarely found perfect. It has its excesses, its roughnesses, and its fancies.' Theophile Gautier thought small beer of Moliere, Lamartine wouldn't give twopence for La Fontaine, Faubert couldn't understand Lamartine, good writers have detested Racine. One poet told M. Albalat that Bernardin de Saint-Pierre wrote badly; and we are glad to find that his culminating example of bad taste or worse is that 'at one time our literature repudiated Shakespeare and adored Campistron.' What a beast of a literature

'Taste presupposes sensiblity, imagination, spirit, sentiment, and, above all, delicacy.'

We hope we shall not be accused of want of taste, but fancy repudiating Shakespeare! and for Campistron, too, though who he was we do not know, the name is enough.

'To read with discernment in order to attain style in writing, one must have taste. Taste alone can illumine reading, and show both beauties and defects; but, if it is a priori necessary, we must not forget that taste itself is created, increased, and transformed by reading.' 'This,' says M. Albalat, 'is the great question a reader who aims at acquiring style should ask himself of a work: "Is there talent in it, if so why? and how can I profit by it?"'

In his succeeding chapters—for we have but touched the margins of the first—he deals with: assimilation by imitation, composition, amplification, assimilation of the descriptive style, descriptive imitation, false descriptive style, general description, antitheis, etc. —Publisher's Circular.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
To weakness, neither hide the ray
From those, not blind, who wait for day,
Though sitting girt with doubtful light
That from Discussion's lips may fall
With Life, that working strongly, binds—
Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all.

GIVE US MEN.

By J. G. Holland, born July 24, 1819.

God give us men! A time like this demands
Strong minds, great hearts, true faith, and ready hands;
Men whom the lust of office does not kill;
Men whom the spoil of office does not buy;
Men who possess opinions and a will;
Men who have honor, men who will not lie;
Men who can stand before a demagogue,
And damn his treacherous flatteries without winking!
Tall men, sun crowned, who live above the fog
In public duty and in private thinking:
For while the rabble with their thumb-worn creeds
Their large professions and their little deeds—
Mingle in selfish strife, lo! Freedom weeps,
Wrong rules the land, and waiting Justice sleeps.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS.

The disappointments, discontent and unseemly exhibitions of personal vanity and bad taste appeared this year, as in past years, in connection with the annual examinations conducted by the Education Department Masters, with unnecessary haste, rush to the public press to claim credit for their schools and themselves, for the standing in honors which their pupils have obtained in the different subjects of examinations. The "passed" candidates are not mentioned, and what of those who 'failed'? and yet it is likely these two classes are at least entitled to as much credit for their work as the most successful ones.

We believe that the different schools should give information, simply stating facts, but there is a wide difference between giving full and accurate information and the blatant advertising we have year in year out. Surely we in Ontario, and at such a time in the world's history, are British enough to drop the boys' position.

The Education Department this summer published, by counties, the names of candidates who passed in whole or in part, no doubt with a view of relieving the pressure of this advertising mania. It seems to us that this is a step in the right direction, and we take the liberty of adding that all reasonable expectations would be met by sending the lists to the principals of the schools and they would undoubtedly attend to the matter of giving all needful information to all concerned.

In dealing with this question we take the opportunity of directing the attention of the Department to a phase of the subject which has been neglected in the past. The expenditure of conducting their annual examinations is very considerable. The labor on the part of the Education office is heavy and the work done by the examiners and sub-examiners is very great. What are the results? Professional certificates given to those who desire to teach; certificates given to those who are intending to take a college course, and each school is informed wherein and by how much candidates failed: no doubt much and important work. But it always seemed to us that with all this we might have more and very useful information for the province. In order to make plain what we mean we will take one particular subject, viz., English Composition. These annual examinations have been conducted by the Education Department for more than a quarter of a century. How does the work given in by candidates in 1880 compare with the work given in in 1901 in the one subject of Composition? Is it better or worse, or is it the same? Sub-examiners tell us that the Compositions are "wooden," monotonus: all the compositions of a dead uniformity. Are these the characteristics during all the years of the subject of Composition? The Education Department can answer this question for us, and it alone can do it. If the dates named are too far apart then take 1900 and 1901. If these do not suit, then take a period of ten years or five years. But this is a comparison that would be useful to the schools, and therefore, to the country. We took the Composition only as an example; every subject should be tested in the same manner.

This is part of its function, which our Education Department has never touched, and it is a part which well deserves the close attention of the ablest man on the staff. May we indulge the hope that the next annual report of Hon. the Minister of Education will contain such desirable and timely information.

THE WAR OF THE FUTURE.

The sword laid aside, the able bodied men left in their homes and factories, the women and children called to their aid, the competition is killing and universal. Each nation is harnessing all its forces to increase its chances of producing manufactured articles, to increase the national wealth in order to overcome other nations in the race for supremacy. Money is the cry! and the echo is more money.

This is what has been done and is doing by system of schools and universities; every child is being laid hold off, carefully trained to find out what are his powers of body and mind, and then he is given his niche in the industrial army to be in Great Britain or the United States of America. No army training, no naval drill, is so constant, so exacting, so absorbing of all powers of body and mind as the incessant preparation now going on, for the industrial war among the nations of the world. In the wars of the past centuries, the men went out into the fields of havoc, the women and children stayed at home to labor and to suffer, but they were not in the fields of destruction, in the future, the father, mother and children—the whole family—are in the firing line.

To the myriads, the battle of life has been "stern," increasing in its call on the activities of the laborers, but as a general thing the mothers and children were kept from the reducing crucibles of the public to which national competition is now calling them—seeing the war is now on, the cry is how shall we best prepare for it! Germany has given her answer, by the method we indicated above; the answer of France is similar, the answer of the United States of America is practically the same. The energy, the inventing genius the sleepless vigilance of all the people are to be "hitched" together to amass the greatest piles of wealth.

In the United States, early in life the young son is talked to by the father on how best to do business, how to get the highest dividends and in the quickest way, "The almighty dollar" occupies the horizon largely. Is that the best way to "train a child"? Reports say at college, industrious youths discuss commercial subjects how best to make corners in wheat, corn, stocks, etc., etc.

In the procession of the ages, the mother country has evolved a code of living, the moulding strand of which is service with honor. No country has a class of public servants superior if equal, to the class of men who serve the Empire in the public civil service. The training given to these men was based almost exclusively on the classics (the linguistic side) and mathematics (the science side). To our modern notions this is narrow and likely to eleminate by its severity. many a valuable worker. But the training was real, earnest and thorough; the attention of the scholar was concentrated upon subjects, which it was possible for him to master in such wise that he knew at least how to learn. This is the chief element of character which every scholar, at school or college should strive to acquire and possess. The institution of learning which sends into the ever shifting affairs of life graduates thus equipped, need not fear dishonor at the hands of her alumni. It seems to us that the Mother Country has hitherto followed the nobler path, the path of duty, mindful of the truth that there is a "wideness" in human affairs which cannot be hemmed in by the horizon of this life. Expectant Canada is confidently entering into the race for riches and power; her natural resources are unexcelled by any other country. May she tread becomingly in the ways of truth and wisdom.

CURRENT EVENTS.

A FITTING LANDING PLACE.

The change from Halifax to Quebec as the landing-place of the Duke and his charming consort cannot but be regarded as a happy one. Where should a British Prince begin a tour of this country if not at the very spot where British dominion in this country began? It is scarcely necessary to say that there is no other spot so vitally historic within the boundaries of the empire. Nowhere else within its four corners can one put his finger down and say that here half a continent was won for Britain. Cressy, Agincourt, Ramilies, Blenheim, Waterloo, are proud names in the annals of the British Isles, but nothing remains of all their glory except their memories. Of Wolfe's victory the most tangible trophies remain, and our royal guest will feel that the title-deeds for the vast stretches of the earth over which he will be conducted during the next fortnight were obtained on that one eventful day at this eventful place.

The panorama of Quebec is not seen by him now for the first time, but it is a scene that does not soon grow stale. It is one of the few places where the theatre is quite worthy of the Imperial drama which was enacted there. The man who can stand at the King's Bastion and sweep his eye over that Titan scene of grim rocks and hills receding in ever-increasing majesty, and swept by the tidal waters of one of the great rivers of the world, and not feel its might and sublimity, would be proof against all influences whatsoever. When to its natural grandeur its historic interest is added we have a combination to which the most unemotional man must succumb. The words with which Byron introduces his splendid lines on Waterloo, "Stop, for thy tread is on an empire's dust," might with even more appropriateness be uttered to the visitor at Quebec, and to its glories is added the pathos of the fact that the leaders in the strife, conqueror and conquered, lie "sepulchred below."

What the course of events would have been if Wolfe and his men had been hurled back and the beetling rock had proved as impregnable as it looks, if not a fruitful, is an interesting subject of speculation. Of all the European peoples Frenchmen show the least disposition to swarm and leave the parent hive. It is such a pleasant hive, so full of honey and with no marked tendency to become overcrowded, that its people go on the principle that France is good enough for them. If not from the mother country, where were settlers for Canada to come from? In view of present conditions one can only wonder at the Champlains, La Salles, Joliets and La Verendryes whom France poured into the new world. Surely these unwearied and unappalled explorers and scouts of civilization were the advance guard of a colonizing people. No toil or suffering daunted them, no peril dismayed. The couriers of the woods, a humble class, with inferior motives to incite them, were nevertheless scarcely less hardy or daring. Their modern representatives may be found in the thousands of French-Canadians who engage in the toilsome and at times dangerous labors of the lumber woods all over the continent. These seem to be of the stuff of which a colonizing race is made, and appear to be of different mould from the Frenchman of modern France. The character of the latter displays strong domestic traits. The only land on earth to him is France, and the dearest spot in it is the few acres over which he labors so patiently and so incessantly. This was certainly not the character of the men who, while other nations were dreaming of America, were christening the lands even beyond the Mississippi with the Gallic names which still stare at us from the maps of the continent.

Quebec has other memories. It is associated with later times, when men of English lineage turned their arms against each other. The American visitor is able here also to read a page of the history of his own land. It is not a page from which he can draw much comfort, but it is a tribute to the doggedness of the race, no matter where it may be planted, for the thought that probably spurred Montgomery and Arnold on to their desperate attempt was that what had already been accomplished by an Englishman could at least be attempted by transplanted Englishmen. The futility of the attempt was perhaps best expressed in the homely phrase of the American tourist who, driving about the ancient rock, saw high up on the cliff where a goat could not hope to clamber the legend, "Here Montgomery fell," and after a short study of the matter he was overheard to remark. "Derned fool, he might a' knowed he would fall off there." Toronto Globe.

THE PRINCESS ROYAL OF ENGLAND.

The late Empress was a Liberal, in the highest sense of the word, and, in both senses of the word, a martyr to her liberalism. She attempted to liberalize the education of German women—to give them the same opportunities for higher studies that they enjoy in England, to throw open to them a career as nurses, as doctors, as teachers. In these efforts she was bitterly opposed by a borne aristocracy, the Court officialism, and by a philistine Chancellor. Endowed with every gift, intellectual and moral, save one that the evil fairy at her cradle denied her—the sovereign gift of tact—she was never fully appreciated by the German nation, and pronounced lacking in Gemuthlichkeit To those who knew her in England the charge seems absurd. Here, for instance, is a reminiscene of her which we borrow from the Pilot:—

Not many years ago it befell that a well-known University College for Women in London (Bedford College) acquired new buildings and laboratories, and invited the Empress to open them. Nobody who was present will forget her kindly, homely, and almost motherly interest in the students and their surroundings; the entirely informal way in which she put the deliverer of a Latin address at her ease again by the smiling question: "And you can talk Greek too?" and the eagerness with which she inspected the domestic and educational arrangements, summing her impressions with: "We have nothing like this for our girls in Germany. I only wish we had."

The same impression was produced on those who attended a meeting, which the Empress graced with her presence, held in the Drapers' Hall on behalf of the Maria Grey College, then about to erect for itself a building of its own. No one can forget the friendly nod, the beaming smile, as Lord Granville, with the familiarity of an old friend, tempered by the courtly grace of an old-world gentleman, recalled scenes and incidents of the Princess' childhood. Those, too, who were privileged to read her letters on the training of teachers and on kindergartens cannot fail to have been impressed by the fine grasp of principles and the sound common sense that they showed, and to hope that so remarkable a correspondence may, in some form or other, be made public.

Very lately an association of teachers in British Columbia has been formed and brought entirely under the trades and labor councils' union. This is probably the first real trades union of teachers in the world.

We have before us a map of Canada engraved by the Toronto Lithographing Co., Limited. The map is not too large or too costly. It is beautifully clear in outlines and lettering. Trade lines and Railways are given as well as natural boundaries of land and water. It is amusing to scan the vast extent of this great and wide Dominion of ours. To possess such a country is in itself a mighty stimulus to all that is best and noblest in a free people. How well that Canada should be ever united and sober, industrious, enterprising and thoroughly in earnest in making the country the best governed in all the world! This map is fit for the office or the school room or the parlor.

In future, if you want to learn Chinese there will be no need to travel to China to do it. A chinese college is to be established in London; and, though the college is not yet built, some of the professors have already arrived and have started work. The professors wear their ordinary Oriental garments when taking classes, and many pupils have joined—army men, engineers, city clerks, and budding diplomatists. Of course, there have long been Chinese professors at Oxford and Cambridge, but this is the first venture of the kind where the teachers are all natives of the Celestial Empire.—

At the recent meeting of the Dominion Educational Association, Mr. J. W. McOuat, B.A., Inspector of Schools, Lachute, raised an intersting discussion by drawing attention to the fact that many Canadian schoolrooms have maps designed in the United States. The map of North America, strange to say, presents the American and not the Canadian view of the contention with respect to the international boundary line of the north-west coast, on the Pacific Ocean, near Alaska. The United States is represented as possessing the coast waters, while the Canadian Government contends that the proper boundary line should be marked thirty miles from the coast. The moral seems to be that we should make and use our own maps. Certainly Canadian schools should only use maps presenting this and similiar cases from the Canadian standpoint.

The discussion brought out the fact that not only were the teachers in the wrong, but that the Deparment of Public Works, Ottawa, in the map exhibit furnished by it at the Paris Exposition, had credited the United States Government with the disputed territory!

Laval University, as stated in the address presented by the rector of that institution to the Duke of Cornwall and York, is the oldest college in Canada. It was established in 1668 as a seminary for the education of priests by the first Bishop of Quebec, after whom it is named. Bishop Laval was a remarkable historical character. Coming from the Montmorency family, which had furnished France with some it most notable warriors, he entered the Church when a lad, and was a Bishop at 36. He had a turbulent time in Quebec. In the first place, he had a successful combat with the Sulpitians, who, through the Archbishop of Rouen, had already secured a vicar-general, with episcopal powers. Then he had frequent conflicts with the civil governors, largely on questions of authority and precedence. Finally, after endowing his diocese with all his worldly possessions, he incurred the displeasure of the King on a question of policy, and resigned. He lived an ascetic life, and is to be canonized in the near future. The seminary he left grew to be a great institution, and Queen Victoria signed the charter which made it a university.

It seems to be about settled that the two largest islands in the world are both in the Arctic Ocean. Greenland is unquestionably the largest—if Australia is counted as a continent—and recent explorations of Baffin land show that it is second only to Greenland in extent. It used to be represented as if comprised of a number of smaller islands, Cumberland Island, Fox Land, Meta Incognita, etc., but each of these has been found to be connected with the main island. Even Cockburn Island, which is itself as large as Iceland, and which the maps all represent as separated from Baffin land by a wide strait, turns out to be connected with it by a neck of land. The area of the whole island is not less than 300,000 square miles. This leaves New Guinea and Borneo far in the rear. The twelve largest islands in order of size are: Greenland, Baffin Land, New Guinea, Borneo, Madagascar, Sumatra, Nippon (the largest island of Japan), Great Britain, Celebes, New Zealand (South Island), Java and Cuba.

Here is a very sensible remark from Sir Henry Craik's last report on secondary education in Scotland. Merchants, he says, demand clerks who have already had some commercial training. They must remember that liberal provision is already made for the proper education, but pupils are withdrawn at an age too early to benefit from it. "The educational machinery of the country can never have a fair chance until merchants in a body set their faces against the practice of putting boys into business at thirteen or fourteen, and until in their selection of apprentices they give preference and reasonable encouragement to those who can produce evidence of having profited by their school training."

BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

Report of the Department of Child Study of the Chicago Public Schools, 1899-1900.

This pamphlet contains much valuable information as to averages in growth, height, weight, etc., which is of importance for reference and study.

British Association for Child-Study.—Inaugural Address of Prof. Thomas Oliver, M A., M.D.-F.R.C.P., President of the New, castle-upon-Tyne Branch.

A thoughtful and interesting address, dealing with some of the problems of child-study from a social and physiological point of view.

Health in the School.—By Prof. Thomas Oliver, Professor of Physiology, University of Durham.

This address, delivered before the North of England Teachers' Association, deals in an adequate and sensible manner with "Absence from School," "Defective Eyesight," "Epidemics,' "The Common Employment of Books, Pens, etc.," (which is condemned), and last, but not least, "The Health of Teachers, their Expectation of Life, etc." It is a timely and excellent address, and created much interest in England when it was delivered.

Seamen's Hospital Society publications of the London School of Tropical Medicine. (1) Syllabus. (2) Introductory address for the Session, commencing 2nd October, 1899, deliversd by Patrick Manson, M.D., F.R C.P., L.L.D. (3) Recent advances in the knowledge of Malaria, by Patrick Manson, M.D., F.R.S. (4, Report on 200 experiments instituted by the Colonial Office and the London School of Tropical Medicine, to prove the correctness of the Mosquito Malaria Theory. (5) Report for the year 1899-1900.

The London School of Tropical Medicine, already a great Institution by reason of what it has done, owes its origin to the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, H.M., Secretary of State for the Colonies, who, with the object of affording instruction in Tropical Medicine to medical officers in the Colonial Service, invited the Committee of Management of the "Seamen's Hospital Society" to establish a school in connection with their Hospitals. The establishment of this school was an event of Imperial importance, and has already had world-wide results. The fascinating narrative of Dr. Manson's recent researches and the report of the school could not but be deeply interesting to any intelligent man or woman. Twenty-three students are now at the school, making a total of one hundred and forty in attendance since it was first opened in October, 1899. Some idea of interest and enthusiasm of the students may be known by the fact that their average attendance at lectures and demonstrations has been over 90 per cent. Ninety-six appointments are already held by these students, nine of these being held by women phyiscians. We are much indebted to the secretary of the school, P. Michelli, Esq., for copies of these interesting publications. It is hoped that the school, much too small for its work, and for the number of students desiring to enter, will soon be enlarged.

A New Edition Re-Written and Re-Arranged, post 8vo, pp. XVI. × 664. Cloth, $1.40.

A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat Lill, D.D.C.L., Prof. Anglo Saxon University, Cambridge. Henry Frowde M.A. Publisher of the University of Oxford

To scholarly students of English, we need not praise the work of Dr. Skeat, for his praise is in the mouth of all scholars, but, still we may be allowed to say to all who are capable of appreciating accuracy that this book is invaluable to the earnest student of our English tongue.

The value and purpose of this book is its precise history of the origin and development of selected English words. It is as a scholarly and enthusiastic etymologist that Dr. Skeat is pre-eminent and his "Concise Dictionary" shows his work at its best.

School History of England to the death of the Queen, with maps, plans and bibliographies. 3s 6d. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, Henry Frowde. This text book has been prepared for the needs of schools and beginners by several teachers of experience. Their object is to give a concise, correct and elementary view of English history. One feature of the book—its classified bibleography will be helpful to those who desire to widen their acquaintance with the history of Great Britain.

The list of contents for the September Monthly Review contains, besides editorial articles, "The Alleged Economic Decay of Great Britain," by W. H. Mallock; "The Navy at School," by Lieut. Bellaires; "Unsolved Foreign Problems," by Charles Bill, M.P.; "Italy's Case Against her Allies," by W. B. Duffield; "The Work and Future of War Correspondents," by J. B. Atkins; "Nationality in Dramatic Art," "A Woman Painter and Symbolism," "Korolenko;" "The Valet's Tragedy," by Andrew Lang; "Magic," by W. B. Yeats; "Commemoration," by Henry Newbolt; and an instalment of "Tristram of Blent," by Anthony Hope.

The August number of The Studio contains an exceedingly interesting article on "The Revival of Painting in Tempera," by Aylmer Vallance; nine examples of the use of this medium are given in illustration of the article, and cannot fail to modify greatly the popular conception of the importance of oil painting. A second paper on the Glasgow International Exhibition is devoted mainly to the art furniture collected there. A third subject of importance treated in this number of The Studio is the exhibition of religious art at the Holland Fine Art Gallery. Judging from the reproductions the pictures form a remarkable collection, but not less remarkable is the exclusively tragic character of the treatment of religious life to be found in them.

"The Lyrical Poems of Andrew Marvell," by H. C. Beeching, is an interesting article reproduced in The Living Age for September 7th from the National Review.

Thomas Nelson Page contributes an article of unusal value and moderation to the September number of The Atlantic Monthly on "The Southern People During Reconstruction." The second part of Mr. Henry Austin Clapp's dramatic reminiscences appear in the same number; there is also a charming paper of great attractiveness called "A City by Night," in which Mr. Rollin Lynde Hartt describes a night view of Buffalo.

"Isam's Spectacles," one of Harry Stillwell Edwards' charming southern stories appears in the September number of The Century. The same number is also marked by the appearance of the first part of a serial by Bret Harte, "Trent's Trust," in which the author returns to California, and introduces a new hero and heroine of the same attractive class as others with whom his readers have long been familiar.

George W. Cable's short story, "The Clock in the Sky," is the most important contribution to the September number of Scribner's Magazine, although American Imperialists would be more likely to choose the first of three papers by Gen. Francis E. Greene on "The United States Army" for that position. The new serial, "The Pines of Lory," by J. A. Mitchell, grows considerably in intereest.

The opening article in the September number of The Ladie's Home Journal is devoted to Mr. Ernest Seton Thompson and his new home in Connecticut. The article is accompanied by various snap shots of Mr. Thompson presumably to show him in the different stages of making a story; the author seems to have lent himself most accommodatingly to the process of being written up.

The complete novel in the September Lippincott is a "Knight of the Highway," by Clinton Scollard, the knight is a tramp and not a highwayman. The same number contains two short poems by I. Zangwill.

The September number of St. Nicholas contains a most interesting description by Albert Bigelow Paine of "The Children's Room at the Smithsonian." It would be hard to plan anything more charming and educative in the best sense of the word than from the description this department of the great museum seems to be.

A historical geography of the British Colonies. Vol V. Canada. Part I. New France. By C. B. Lucas, C.B. (Clarendon Press.)

Mr. C. P. Lucas is the author of the well-known "Historical Geography of the British Colonies,"and his connection with the Colonial office in London enables him to write on the subject with exceptional authority. The title is misleading; there is very little of the geography of Canada in the book, and we think this is very much to be regretted There is special aim to be constantly kept in mind by British writers, (both of Great Britain and Canada) viz., to remove the deep impression which now exists in Great Britain and elsewhere, that Canada is a cold country, that the winters are long and severe.

Writers in the home land seem to slip unconsciously into the common and erroneous phrasiology when they have occasion to make any reference to the climate of Canada.

As an instance, take the following: "The short, bright summers and the long, cold winters make the country one of strong contrasts." We wish to state that Canada has seven or eight months of the finest summer weaiher to be found anywhere in the possessions of the Imperial Crown of "The Greater Britain." But this book is a history, and a good history, accurate and up-to-date. The author has made use of the latest researches. We commend the volumn to our readers. It is worthy of their careful attention.

The author, while presenting a clear view of the general course of North American history as affecting the destinies of Canada, is particularly happy in biographical sketches of the characters who took part in its settlement. Ample references are given for those who desire to pursue their researches into a fascinating chapter of English history.

A Treatise on Medical Jurisprudence. By George Vivian Poore, M.D., F.R.C.P., London, Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine University College, London. Illustrated. John Murray. pp 530. Price 12 s.

It is seldom that a text book is produced characterized at once by professional significance, general interest and charm of style. But here is one. The basis of the book is a verbatim report of lectures at University College, and the author has drawn freely on a long experience. wide reading and an accurate knowledge. Illustrative cases are frequently referred to and the memory of the reader is stimulated and aided in various ways. The English press has received the book with marked favor, and the author is certainly to be congratulated not only on the amount of instruction he has conveyed but on the interesting way in which he has done it.

Domestic Economy in Theory and Practice. A text book for readers and students in training, by Marion G. Bidder, of Newham College and Girton College, Cambridge, and Florence Braddeley, Organizing Secretary of the Gloucestershire School of Cookery and Domestic Economy.

Cambridge: at the University Press. London: C. J. Clay & Sons.

We cannot but speak highly of this volumn and recommend it warmly to our readers. Part I, for which Miss Bidder is responsible, deals with the theoretic part of the subject, and contains much valuable information accurately and simply expressed. The chapters dealing with food, air and water are of special importance. Part II, in which Miss Baddeley deals with the practical part of the subject, is not less interesting. It takes up everyday subjects for the housekeeper in a most thorough and satisfactory manner.

The Philadelphia Medical Journal, like all other recent numbers of medical periodicals, has been full of valuable papers on the subject of Tuberculosis, a subject in which the general public is deeply interested. Philadelphia is one of the cities where medical inspection of schools has already been introduced. The Philadelphia Medical Journal's editorial "Comments" and other departments of the paper frequently refer to school inspection and other points where the work of the physician and the teacher meet.

American Medicine is a new medical journal which was founded and is owned and controlled by the medical profession of America. Dr. Geo M. Gould is the editor and the new Journal has received a hearty welcome. Its appearance and its contents, as well as the names of the editor and contributors are all guarantees of its value and success.

The New York Medical Journal, now in its seventy-fourth volumn, is one of the most valuable medical journals for the use of inspectors, health officers and others besides physicians. It pays much attention to hygiene and contains frequent notes on school affairs. Within the past month an extended editorial reference to one of its original articles appeared in The Lancet and a similar reference to another, of its articles appeared in the British Medical Journal. This fact alone shows the high standing of this journal.

SCHOOL HYGIENE.

THE MEDICAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION.

Prof. Oliver delivered the introductory address before a conference of teachers, which recently assembled at Durham, upon the medical aspects of education. His remarks on ventilation, fatigue, the sufferings of teachers and the mental and physical condition of school children are admirable. Dr. Oliver also referred to the "Communistic" distribution of slates, pencils, pens, etc., as undesirable. He recently took some school pens and pencils and sent them to a London laboratory where they were bacteriologically examined and pyogenic organisms found on them.

TUBERCULOSIS.

Ignorance and carelessness prevent the stamping out of tuberculosis and the interests of public health demand the education of the community about this disease. In 1900, Dr. Osler, the Medical Chief of the Johns Hopkins Hospital appointed a third-year medical student to visit the home of every consumptive patient who came to the Johns Hopkins Hospital Dispensary, and the Dispensary also published a free circular giving directions to these patients and their friends. The result has been most encouraging, the student having been able, in many cases to get the friends to take proper care of the patient so that he was not a source of danger to the community.

NOISE AND HEALTH.

When will our legislators recognize the fact that the health of the community is its most valuable asset, and take the necessary steps to assist in preserving it? Doubtlees there are many noises incidental to city life which it is impossible to suppress, but a very large proportion of them are easily preventable—for instance the incessant discordant clanging of car gongs, the screeching and tooting of switch engines in railroad yards, the rattle of heavily loaded wagons over badly paved streets and the deafening yells of fruit venders and newsboys. In London the city government has recently taken steps to suppress the last-named nuisance—a proceeding which might be followed with advantage in our own cities.—[Health.]