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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

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MARCH, 1892.

PATRIOTISM IN EDUCATION.

BY J. CASTELL HOPKINS, MEMBER TORONTO HIGH SCHOOL BOARD.

THE mind of the young is receptive of principles as well as facts; sentiment as well as figures. No safer index of the future greatness and progress of a people can be found than in the feelings and aspirations of the young men who are to be in coming days the pillars of the State. Consequently, in our schools, and more especially in those devoted to higher education, the teachers of history and of the subjects coming under the general head of English literature have a vitally important task to perform. The dry-bones of the past have to be shaken up for the benefit of the boys and girls of the present; the lessons of experience taught by the events of a thousand years have to be impressed upon the rising minds of to-day, and I do not hesitate to say that, lying as Canada does between the surging tide of British civilization, traditions and greatness on the one hand, and the rushing stream of American progress on the other, lessons may be

learned from a comparison of the two which will be valuable beyond expression to the students in the course of their future careers.

But Canada itself has a distinctive record and a noble past. Edmund Burke once remarked that "he knew of no more absorbing and instructive occupation for the mind of a thoughtful man than to trace, in all their peculiar grandeur, the bold and swiftly formed outlines in the history of a young and patriotic people." And Canadians have much to be proud of. Aside altogether from the cherished deeds of British sailors, soldiers and statesmen in ages gone by, possessed by us through an historic continuity which the Americans have so unfortunately lost, we have memories in this land of ours worthy of our ancestors and worthy of the great races which are commingling upon our soil. The war of 1812, with its gallant victories, can never be forgotten, and while warfare in itself is not

an object of congratulation, the principle upon which it is based may, and upon that occasion did, voice the noblest and purest sentiments of humanity. As the Rochester *Herald* said not long ago, so Canadians can very well repeat when reviving such historic memories: "We have no sympathy with that sublimated sentiment which derides patriotism as clannish and provincial, and aims to throw down the walls of home and native and adopted land. We believe that men are better for having a country, a flag, and an allegiance for which they are willing to do and dare and die." So should it be with our Canadian boys.

Of course, this sentiment need not be expressed or inculcated in such words as these. It would not be wise, perhaps, nor would the teacher have time. But certainly the teaching of history can and should breathe such a spirit. Inference, conclusions, incidental references, historical allusions, praises given to patriots and patriotic actions, comparisons casually and briefly instituted; in a hundred ways the point can be driven home and the lesson taught. Canadian history involves upon its every page some instructive reference to national development. In using the word "national," no distinction need be made between Canada and Britain. Our people, by their flag and institutions, are British now, and no reason exists why we should not expand into a powerful British nation upon Canadian soil. Loyalty is indeed one of the great principles taught by our Canadian annals. As William Kirby says in his splendid poem, "The U. E. Loyalists":—

The world goes rushing by
The ancient landmarks of a nobler time,
When men bore deep the imprint of the law
Of duty, truth and loyalty unstained,
Amid the quaking of a continent.
Torn by the passions of an evil time,
They counted neither cost nor danger, spurned
Defections, treasons, spoils; but feared God,
Nor shamed of their allegiance to the king.

It may be that the lamp of patriotism burned brighter in the days of old, but I doubt it. Chivalry in the Old Land shed a ray of beautiful light upon periods otherwise dark. Loyalty in the New World illumined a glorious page in our history, but were this people tried again, and especially if the lessons of the past be properly inculcated in the minds of the scholars of the present, no fear need be felt of the result.

But Confederation united our people. Their minds expanded and a new nation was born upon the banks of the St. Lawrence. The beautiful literature of Quebec developed; the literary mind of Upper Canada slowly grew into harmony with the greatness of our rising destiny, whilst the Maritime Provinces, which could then boast a Sam Slick, can to-day produce the splendid poems of a Charles G. D. Roberts. Manitoba has more than golden fields of grain, and can boast the patriotic and stirring dramatic work of a Charles Mair. The combination of races has made the competition keener, and will in the long run render our civilization more important, and produce in any case a literature as unique as that which followed the fusion of races in the England of old.

Railway development has done much for us and holds in our history a place second only to Confederation. As Lord Macaulay says: "Every improvement of the means of locomotion benefits mankind, morally and intellectually as well as materially, and not only facilitates the interchange of the various productions of nature and art, but tends to remove natural and provincial antipathies." So it has been with us. The union of our provinces has been cemented, and the sentiment of a nation created by the fusion of our people through railway progress and the development of common interests. While, therefore,

our history can hardly afford to the pupil the rich results which spring from what Dr. Bourinot terms the "deep humanized soil of the Old World, which has for ages been enriched by the ripe droppings of a fertile national life; when

"One half the soil has walked the rest,
In poets, heroes, martyrs, sages,"

we can, nevertheless, feel as comparatively proud of the last hundred years as of the far greater period which we have the privilege of studying as sharers in the wide heritage of British power.

Too much stress, in the opinion of many, is laid upon the events of a very distant past. Why should a student of to-day know all about Cæsar and little or nothing about the Dominion of Canada? It is, I claim, the consistent inculcation of history from a patriotic standpoint which would remedy this defect. To teach love of country properly, to infuse the genuine sentiment into the minds of pupils, the annals of Wallace and Bruce, Marlborough or Wellington, will be of little use, unless the method of Professor Seeley be more or less adopted, and the course of instruction prove clearly the continuity of history and the way in which, for instance, an action occurring under the reign of King John could affect the Canadian citizen of to-day, or the commercial wars of centuries ago form the basis of our present Imperial structure. It is in this sequence of events that I believe is to be found the true method of imparting life to the necessarily dry bones of an ordinary school history, and inculcating the lessons of patriotism really contained in what appears at first sight to the scholar a mere list of facts and dates.

In our Constitution, also, rests the glories of a thousand years. Not so much in that piece of parchment called the British North America Act, but in the unwritten code of princi-

ples which represents the struggles and aspirations of centuries. I do not know of any description of our British institutions so striking, comprehensive and eloquent as that contained in a letter written by Benjamin Disraeli, then just entering Parliament, to Lord Lyndhurst, some sixty years ago:

"If neither ancient ages nor the more recent experience of our newer time can supply us with a parallel instance of a free-government founded on the broadest basis of popular rights, yet combining with democratic liberty, aristocratic security and monarchical convenience; if the refined spirit of Greece, if the brilliant genius of feudal Italy, if the great Roman soul, alike failed in realizing this great result, let us cling with increased devotion to the matchless creation of our ancestors, and honour with still deeper feelings of gratitude and veneration the English Constitution. That Constitution established civil equality in a rude age, and anticipated by centuries in its beneficent practice the sublime theories of modern philosophy; having made us equal it has kept us free. If it has united equality with freedom, so also it has connected freedom with glory. It has established an Empire which combines the durability of Rome with the adventure of Carthage. It has at the same time secured us the most skilful agriculture, the most extended commerce, the most ingenious manufactures, victorious armies and invincible fleets. Nor has the intellectual might of England under its fostering auspices been less distinguished than its imperial spirit, its manly heart, or its national energy, and it has secured to me in common with every subject of this realm a right — the enjoyment of which I would not exchange for 'The ermined stole, the starry breast and coroneted brow'—the right of expressing my free thoughts to a free people."

It is this Constitution which we have to preserve for future ages, and the rudiments of which should be imbibed freely by the scholars of to-day. As Lord Dufferin somewhere says, we have to combine in one mighty whole as the common possession of British citizens throughout the world, the brilliant history and traditions of the past with the freest and most untrammelled liberty of action in the future. This is patriotism, and with it necessarily goes a love for the flag which waves over the land of our birth or adoption. It represents everything that our fathers cherished, and to the children it should be the embodiment of the country in which they live, and the home in which they centre their affections. We should in this one particular emulate the example of the great nation to the south, where as President Harrison said on his return from a trip through the Republic :

“Nothing has been so impressive in all this journey as the magnificent spirit of patriotism which pervades our people. I have seen enough American flags to wrap the world around. The school children have waved it joyously everywhere, and many a time in some lonely country house I have seen a man or woman or little boy come to the door of the cabin as we hurry by, and wave the starry banner in greeting to our train.”

So I believe it should be with us and with our flag. We have nothing to

be ashamed of and everything to be proud of. A magnificent country upon this continent ; a magnificent empire extending over the world ; a history which the Americans cannot share in, the strands of which they have rudely broken ; a rising nation of Northmen which is destined to be the greatest people in either of the Americas ; educational facilities practically unequalled ; a record and a position, in short, which our teachers may be proud to impress upon their scholars and which must have its effect in the time to come. Toronto is doing its duty in this inculcation of patriotism, but it can do still more, and certainly the Province and the Dominion can well afford to emulate the Queen City in this respect. Let this inspiration of patriotism pervade our schools and no trouble need be felt as to the coming greatness of the people of Canada. In the eloquent words of Charles G. D. Roberts :—

O strong hearts, guarding the birthright of
our glory,
Worth your best blood, this heritage that ye
guard ;
These mighty streams resplendent with our
story,
These iron coasts by rage of seas unjarred,—
What fields of peace these bulwarks well
secure !
What vales of plenty, these calm floods
supply !
Shall not our love this rough sweet-land
make sure,
Her bounds preserve inviolate though we
die ?

I WOULD we were all of one mind, and
one mind good. —*Cymbeline*, v. 4.

THIS lovely land, this glorious liberty, these benign institutions, the dear purchase of our fathers, are ours ; ours to enjoy, ours to preserve, ours to transmit. Generations past and generations to come hold us responsible for the sacred trust.—*Daniel Webster*.

THE people throughout the world have
but one interest, if properly understood.

—*Lord Shelburne*.

THERE is a certain education which our
sons should receive, not as being practically
useful, nor as indispensable, but as liberal
and noble. —*Aristotle*.

THE SPIRIT OF PATRIOTISM.*

MISS E. J. PRESTON.

WHEN "God created the heaven and the earth" He gave to every living creature some weapons to repel its assailants, and those creatures which made use of those weapons, and fought for their existence, survived the longest.

The little English sparrow is an example of this. . . . So far as anything can bring itself into line with its environments, just so far will it succeed. Man, naturally, seems to have been left in the most defenceless state of all animals. . . . But from this apparent weakness seems to spring his real strength. Some insects, as the bee and wasp, in common with man, have to pass through a stage of grubhood or babyhood, and naturalists assign this as a reason for their wonderful instinct. . . . Self-defence expands into defence of offspring, then, in the case of man, defence of family, clan, or tribe; finally, into defence of country, or what is called Patriotism. . . .

As self-defence means the safety and protection of the individual, so patriotism means the safety and protection of the state. . . .

All patriots are not perfect, and often their schemes are rather questionable, because they are human, but I fail to see how patriotism can "Drag a man down" as a writer in *North American Review* for October has said. He also goes on to say, "It is a debris of the past, . . . abandon it, and let philanthropy take its

place." . . . As well might he say, "Punishment is only a relic of the past . . . let mercy take its place." There may come a time in the world's history when all men will be as brothers, but we must deal with men as we find them; and so long as individuals exist who do not love their neighbour as themselves, or Governments who try to trample on the rights of other nations or their own subjects, some resisting force will be necessary, and this force, in one case, we call Law, in the other, Patriotism.

. . . There must have been a wonderful power in this "Decaying Sentiment" (as one writer calls patriotism), when it led 30,000 persons to abandon comfortable homes in the "New England Colonies," to face poverty and hardship in a northern wilderness; Sir Isaac Brock and many others to lay down their lives for this country; and the ready response for volunteers to repel the Fenian invasion, and to suppress the North West Rebellion.

The history of nations shows that inhabitants of mountainous regions are more patriotic than lowlanders, perhaps on account of their more rugged and dangerous life, as this quality seems to be strengthened by opposition, danger, or war. Of these we know but little, and a native-born Canadian simply inherits this sentiment from ancestors who had to struggle for liberty, both civil and religious. The life of a nation is like the life of an animal, if an organ continues long inactive it is weakened, and finally useless. Should we enjoy a peaceful existence for two or three generations, and no effort be made to

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foster a national spirit, it may become not only a decaying but an almost extinct sentiment, though it will probably take that length of time to eradicate the hereditary strain from our blood. The nation's life resembles the animal's by its likeness to that on which it feeds. Unless we train our people to love this land, we will not have a patriotic people. The best of parents will not be respected by their children, unless the children are taught this respect. We think it too egotistical to eulogize our country. But do not let us forget that this silence gives a wrong impression, not only to other nations, but to our own fellow-citizens on the banks of the St. Lawrence. Annexation has been discussed in some of our counties, and some of our public men have uttered sentiments (thinly veiled) in favour of it. . . . In some of our eastern provinces we have read and heard sentiments far more repellent, but a hundred times less probable, than annexation. These are some of the forces which are trying to undermine our faith in Canada, and we must put ourselves in touch with our surroundings, using our strongest weapon, which is a patriotic spirit. It is time Canada said to persons of this stamp, "If you cannot show us a form of government in your pet scheme superior to our own, then pass from our country's stage and give place to better men." It is time our youth were taught to love the land we live in, and admire the constitution that protects us. In the future looms up some change in our form of government. Canadian Independence, Colonial Union, and Imperial Confederation, each has its advocates. The discussion of any of these lies not within my limit. I shall therefore speak of some other plans mapped out for Canada's future, at first considering them solely from a Canadian standpoint, without reference to the

great nation to whom we owe allegiance. . . . There are some of our fellow-countrymen who plot and dream of a future when the Tri-Colour shall float from the Citadel at Quebec, and the beautiful French language be the mother tongue of Canada; but it is only a dream. The morning sun that flashed on the British red-coats, massed on the Heights of Abraham, forever dispelled that dream. This hope is only a mirage which will vanish, and leave all who cherish it sadder, but wiser, men. . . . English is destined to be the language of this continent, and whatever flag may shelter us, the Tri-Colour can have no part or lot in this country's government. . . . The French enjoy greater freedom under our flag than they ever could under the Tri-Colour, and the more sensible among them realize this. And those persons who stir the hearts of our French people with such a vain hope, in sowing the wind will reap the whirlwind. . . . In 1776, thirteen stars rose suddenly on the horizon of the nations. They have since made a name of which they are justly proud, being loved at home and respected abroad. This young giant, casting his keen eyes northward, sees the beautiful face, and admires the broad lands of his cousin Canada. To see is to desire. Stretching both hands across the boundary fence, he calls to the maiden,

Come under me plaidie, the night's gang to fa;
Come in frae the cauld blast, the drift and
the snaw;

Come under me plaidie, and sit doon beside
me,

On this continent, lassie, there's na room
for twa.

And then he proceeds to exhibit the plaidie among the folds of which he invites her to nestle. A lovely and artistic fabric — forty-two stars and thirteen stripes on a ground of blue.

. . . He tells her his farm contains over three millions of square miles, cleared and fenced; his income is four hundred and sixty-three million dollars; his servants are eight million negroes, one hundred thousand Chinese, to do the washing, one million Canadians, and fifty-six millions from every nation under the sun. . . .

He tells her that this boundary fence is unnecessary; that she is too young to control such a large estate, and keep in order so many nationalities and creeds. If she will cast in her lot with him she shall bear his name; he will till her lands, fill her forests, work her mines, catch her salmon, seal and herring, and do all her marketing. His picture is so glowing that it looks as if Canada would "Repose on flowery beds of ease," could this union be accomplished; and some thoughtless Canadians, while not desiring the match, rather enjoy the courtship, and advocate a lowering of the line fence, as they think we would benefit by Commercial Union, and yet be true to our country. To me, this C. U. scheme seems a sort of engagement ring, and if Canada accepts it, she will eventually be absorbed, and form a part of the United States. . . . Just at present we might be benefited by such a union; but would we be the gainers in the end? It would inevitably lead to annexation; and would that be a benefit to us? Let us see. They are our superiors in nothing except population and available capital. They 'ave got rid of their last acre of public land; we have millions yet to be surveyed; their fisheries and great timber areas are inferior to ours; their natural wealth is great, ours is only being discovered and seems exhaustless; their educational system, divorce laws, judges, and civil laws are in many ways inferior to ours. Statistics show that a very small percentage of criminals are punished for

their crimes. Here, it is the exception if a criminal escapes. . . . Shall we sell our birthright for a mess of pottage under the name of annexation? Shall we barter a country, stretching from Gaspé to Vancouver, with a glorious future in sight, for Commercial Union? There are eleven Americans to every Canadian; but it is not for our benefit they press for Commercial Union; it is not us they want, but our country. Shall we let them have it? Before answering this I wish to look at the situation from another point. We have had it from a purely Canadian one, involving Canadian interests alone. But while we are Canadians, we are bound by the triple tie of kindred, association and allegiance, to the British Empire, of which we form a part. Let us look at it from a British Canadian point of view. The British Empire covers one-sixth of the earth's surface, and rules one-sixth of the world's inhabitants; 200,000 seamen, in 30,000 trading vessels, carry her commerce to all parts of the world. Her navy has long ruled the wave. Max O'Rell says, "Britain fights to make peace." She has done more to civilize the world than any other nation:

And still she throbs with the muffled fire
Of a Past she can never forget,
And again shall she banner the world up
higher,
For there's life in the old land yet.

Her history, though not faultless, has been perfected through sorrow and suffering. Her 1,000 years of experience has taught her justice, mercy and patience, and these form the groundwork of her national character. To her belongs a long list of those

Deathless names that shine and live,
In arms, in arts, and song.

And this Britain is the mother who nursed our young colony, and gave us protection, even at the peril of her existence. When deserted by the

nations of Europe, she stood alone with every muscle of her national life stretched to its utmost tension in that deadly struggle with the first Napoleon, she still held in her strong grasp the tiny hand of her North American child, and said to the trembling colony, "Fear Not"! She had not learned to temporize (as I fear we are learning), and think only of self and the present. Looking down the vista of the years, she beheld the glorious future lying before this country, and she resolved to defend it. Like human children, we have often been ungrateful and discontented. Her foreign policy has been shaped and often hampered by her interest in our welfare. While practically governing ourselves, we have had the advice of her wisest statesmen. . . . This is what Britain has done for Canada. And shall we let our children grow up in comparative ignorance of all we owe to her? Shall we turn our backs on all these memories of the past, and let apathy or circumstances throw us into the arms of the United States? What can Annexation give us that we may not enjoy under the Union Jack? I do not understand the basis of British Connection, Canadian Independence, or Colonial Confederation schemes, and can neither approve nor disapprove; but of all annexation schemes I most heartily disapprove—believing, as I do, that Canada's future destiny is safer in our own hands. . . . Then how shall we foster that love for her which is so desirable? Let us see to it that every child of British, French, or German origin over which our flag waves be taught to love that emblem, and admire the land he lives in and the constitution that protects him. We cannot all agree on subjects of language and religion, but on the broad platform of country we can meet as the clans of old, forgetting our feuds in a desire for that country's

good. There is nothing more contagious than enthusiasm; let us begin by loving this land ourselves. Let our nation's birthday be more carefully kept and enthusiastically celebrated; our public entertainments partaking of a more loyal character. A true patriot will place country before party; let no man be elected to a place of public trust unless we know he has a firm faith in this country's future. And in school life, first I place "patriotic songs." King Edward was wiser than we give him credit for, when he ordered a massacre of the Welsh bards; knowing well that a spirit of independence would long linger in those mountain homes when fed by their soul-stirring strains. (Writers try to prove that this is only an historical fiction, but I prefer to believe it, and I admire the old king's intuition.) We need a purely British-Canadian collection of songs for school. Could not some of our musicians arrange such a work? A teacher can excite an admiration for our British brethren and our fellow-countrymen by dwelling on reading lessons such as "Loss of the *Birkenhead*," "Road to the Trenches," "Capture of Quebec," "Founders of Upper Canada," "Heroes of the Long Sault," and like subjects found in the readers. In grammar and composition the expansive and comprehensive nature of the English language can be prominently brought out. In geography a pupil's attention can be called to the vast extent, favourable position and boundless resources of his native land. In history seize on anything likely to arouse a patriotic spirit. Encourage advanced pupils to read the works of our few Canadian writers, and as we grow older these will increase. Like all subjects not found on our public school curriculum, this must depend for success on the originality and earnestness of the teacher. Children

remind me of those creatures devoid of a backbone, which breathe through pores in their sides; for they seem to absorb and be influenced by side issues more readily than direct ones. But over and above all, as an agent, is the power of song. Let our hearts

respond to the words of one of our own poets who says:

We are growing weak and listless
There is need of righteousness, inflexible as
fate—
Thou last child of British destiny,
Untorn by wars, Canada arise!
The years to come are thine.

THE PLACE OF THE CLASSICAL LANGUAGES IN MODERN SCHOOLS

(Continued from February Number.)

WHEN I had an opportunity, some five and-twenty years ago, of examining the education given by the French Government schools, I was horrified at the low standard then attained in the Greek language—and I may say in the Latin also. Scholarship, as we understand it, was almost unknown in France and Italy, although it then held its own in Germany, which was indeed a model to other nations in this respect. In France, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, an agitation began against the study of Greek, similar to that which is now going on in England. The university of Paris was not strong enough to withstand the tide of popular opinion, and surrendered Greek as a compulsory subject. The Jesuits—a very powerful and independent teaching body—were able to keep to it, and the consequence was that the education of the Jesuits took a very high position in France, and left the university far behind. Indeed, this had much to do with the influence which the Jesuit teaching had over the whole of Europe. You will have gathered from what I have said that I am strongly of opinion that Greek should continue to be an essential part of classical education as long as that education is preserved, and that

to give it up would probably prove the deathblow of what is called scholarship in England, and would seriously tend to lower the whole standard of the higher culture.

In conclusion to this part of my subject, I will quote the eloquent words of a friend of my own: "Greek and Latin live. They live in the first place by the existence of modern tongues which more or less exactly reproduce them, and for the study of which, especially in the case of Greek, an acquaintance with the ancient forms gives immense facilities. They live because the books which are written in Greek and in Latin are still eagerly and constantly read by thousands of readers throughout the civilized world. Do not the same emotions which thrill the reader who surrenders himself to the magic of Shakespeare, still wake in the heart of him who studies the words put together ages ago by Homer and Æschylus, by Lucretius and Vergil? Is it a dead language which in Horace furnishes the apt and unsurpassed expression of a thousand thoughts familiar in our mouths as household words? Is there any sign of death in the flexible and accurate language in which the Fathers of the Christian church still speak to students of ecclesiastical lore, or the great

jurists of Justinian's reign still expound the principles of their noble science for the benefit of youths studious of learning? The power to endure through long series of centuries is a sign not of death but of vitality; and it is an abuse of terms to speak of a language as dead which has preserved for us, in the freshness of their original fire, those scattered remnants of Sappho which sparkle like jewels on 'the stretched forefinger of all time.' An abuse of terms: for it is no answer to criticism to say that 'a dead language' is merely a convenient synonym for a language which is no longer currently spoken among men. The phrase, like most phrases, inevitably implies a certain attitude towards the objects to which it is applied. Whatever meaning it may originally have had, it serves to fortify and emphasize the contemptuous attitude towards classical studies which belongs to the latter part of our own century; and, to do their work properly, the words 'dead languages' should be amplified, as in men's minds they often are, into the complete and rounded phrase fathered on Cobbett by the authors of the 'Rejected Addresses.' I prefer to speak of Latin and Greek as *par excellence* 'the living languages'—holding that no language are more truly alive than those by the re-introduction of which into the studies of educated men Europe was rescued from darkness and brought into the paths of reform, and which have ever since been heard in the courts and class-rooms of our great centres of education—and freely accepting that attitude towards Latin and Greek which the reversal of the common phrase may seem to imply."

I must now pass to another subject. I mentioned at the beginning of my lecture that there appeared to me to be four possible courses of study in these modern days; the classical and

the mathematical, the scientific and the course based upon the study of modern literature. The last of these has yet to be created; but I believe that if it were properly developed it would be found to be, in educative effect and instructive value, in no way inferior to the other three. A serious attempt was made some thirty years ago to introduce this method of study into France. It was organized by M. Duruy, then Minister of Public Instruction, who was warmly supported by his sovereign, Napoleon III. It received the somewhat insufficient name of "Enseignement Secondaire Spécial." But there were great difficulties in the way. In the first place, special books had to be written for it; it was then discovered that there were no competent teachers, and a normal school had to be founded in which the necessary instructors might be trained. The scheme had proceeded no further than this when the Second Empire was overthrown, although I believe that something has been done to carry out the scheme by the present Republican Government. The central idea of such an education is that it should fit a man for the problems and the work of modern life; that it should not be scientific nor mathematical nor professional. It should deal—as classical education deals—with that higher preparatory education which ought, in any case, to precede the training for professional or bread-winning work. A man disciplined in it would understand the best thought, the best literature, the best art of his day; he would be acquainted with the problems with which the world has to deal—political, social and moral; he would be cosmopolitan in taste and culture; he would be at home in any civilized country; and his interest in the life which he had to lead and the environment in which he would move would not be depressed and overweighted with the burden

of an exhausted erudition. There is nothing more remarkable than the general ignorance of many great classical scholars ; it is difficult for them to put themselves in touch with the modern world. If you speak to them of politics, they are apt to think that it is an animal in the Zoological Gardens. Grote was a politician before he was a historian ; Gibbon acknowledges his obligations to the experience he acquired as a member of Parliament ; but Curtius, the German historian of Greece, is a mere scholar—he describes events by skilfully piecing together texts from various authors, but he has no skill in animating details with the life of action. Heine visited Poland, at the age of twenty-one, and wrote an account of that country which is said never to have been surpassed in truth and in insight. This is what I should wish a scholar trained in modern literature to be able to do. He should possess the linguistic facility of a Russian, the political understanding of an American, the erudition of a German and the common sense and sound judgment of an Englishman ; nothing should be thrown away in his education, nothing should be regretted or thought better of when forgotten. He should not begin his education with a laborious scaffolding framed out of a dead past ; he should proceed from the known to the unknown. He should study the past only to understand the present better. I would, as in a classical education, begin with the study of languages ; the pupil should learn French, German and Italian, as many English children learn them from their nurses or their governesses ; but as soon as I was able I would aim at the production of a scholar's perfection. The pupil should grind at grammar and toil at translation and composition sufficiently to satisfy the severest test.

He should also be made to feel

that the principal use of language is as a key to literature ; that the value of speaking foreign tongues lies in its giving access to the thoughts of men ; he should know his Dante as well as a scholar trained in our universities knows his Æschylus, his Sophocles, his Euripides ; he should have studied with diligence and enthusiasm Goethe and Schiller, Racine and Pascal ; but the main training of his mind I would draw from history, and especially political history. During a life of more than thirty years spent in education at school and university, I have had full experience of the educative influence both of classics and history, and every year that I have taught history at the university has given me a stronger faith in it as a means of the higher education. Setting aside those students who have a marked aptitude for the moral or the natural sciences, or who are gifted with that peculiar insight into the properties of language which fits them to be classical scholars—and these classes form a small portion of the whole—I know of no study which produces such results as history, provided only that the history be properly taught. Even in pupils of a lower order of intelligence, the frivolous boy is turned by this study into a thoughtful man. The reason is not far to seek. It is essentially a manly study. The schoolboy coming to the university, if he submits himself to classical training, has merely to repeat the exercises of his childhood. If he devotes himself to history, he is introduced at once to those studies and those considerations on which the most mature men are accustomed to exercise their minds. History may, of course, by bad teaching be degraded into a mere effort of the memory, but if the political side is kept clearly in view, and the student is accustomed to trace events to their causes, to explain the present by the past, to dis-

tinguish in the records of ancient times what is permanent from what is temporary, what is essential from what is accidental, he is likely to acquire a robustness of intellect which few other studies can give. History also calls out what I have before described as the highest *organon* of thought, the power of balancing probabilities. In history there is no certainty either of prediction or of judgment, or even of the narration of facts. "Do not read history to me," said Bolingbroke; "I know that must be false." False it is if tried by the test of science; true in the highest sense if measured by that standard of probability which is the only criterion within the grasp of weak and fallible man.

This modern literary training, based on the highest use of language, culminating sometimes in history and sometimes in philosophy, will, I believe, be the training of the future, if in the future the highest intellectual training is to exist at all. Let us, therefore, begin it as soon as we can. Science is claiming every day a larger scope; she is spreading her influence far and wide over the land, extinguishing fancy, imagination and belief, hardening the mind against those eternal voices which can only be heard in whispers. If we would protect mankind from a mental leprosy whose influence may last for centuries, we must call to our aid all the assistance which literature, in its widest sense, can give us. Therefore, while I believe that it is, at present, most important that Greek and Latin should form an essential part of the

education of our public schools, and that of the two, Greek is more important than Latin, yet I am of opinion that literary education, of which classical education is a branch, cannot hold its own against the advancing tide of science, unless it call to its aid the literature and the literary thought of the modern world. This can best be done by establishing a new kind of literary education, in which not only Greek but perhaps also Latin has no place.

The remarkable decision at Cambridge the other day, in favour of Greek, has much to teach us. The majority was brought up by no whip, gathered together by no cry; it was composed of no special age or pursuit; it contained a large number of the younger Liberals of the university. The decision pronounced was no doubtful one; it was based partly on a feeling of disappointment with the general effects of scientific education at Cambridge during the last twenty years, partly on a determination that the fatal uncertainty which is ruining our secondary education should at last be made to cease, but chiefly on a conviction that the mind of man is better worth studying than his body, that literature is a far worthier subject of education than science, and that the Greek language, the vehicle of Hellenic culture, must be maintained against all attacks until at least her younger sisters, the spoken languages of Europe, are stalwart and robust enough to take her place in the great battle of civilization.—*Oscar Brown- ing, in The Educational Times.*

WHERE knowing is sufficient, we do not need faith; but where knowing does not use its power, or loses it, we should not contest the rights of faith. The two should not neutralize but strengthen each other.

—*Gæthe.*

LEARN these two things—never be discouraged because good things get on so slowly here. Do not be in a hurry, but be diligent. Let patience have her perfect work. Trust to God to weave your little thread into a web.

—*George MacDonald*

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

BY PROF. MEIKLEJOHN.

(Continued from February Number.)

WHAT has hurt and very nearly destroyed the vitality of our teaching of geography is the unholy appetite for facts—the greed for numbers, the value and meaning of which have never been explained nor even inquired into. Even Professor Geikie panders to this appetite. He asks young children to get up the facts that Carmarthenshire has an area of 940 square miles, and a population of 124,864 persons; and that Pembrokeshire has an area of 611 square miles, and a population of 91,824 persons. But these figures are of little or no use—they are mere mental obstruction. They are of use to the professional statistician, but to no other person. The first set of figures give us fixed quantities; but they cannot be rightly interpreted by the young. It would have been quite enough to say that Carmarthenshire is nearly half the size of Norfolk; and that Pembrokeshire is almost exactly two-thirds the size of Carmarthenshire. As regards the populations, every one of them—what with the births on the one hand, and the deaths on the other—becomes erroneous the moment it appears in type. But even if the figures were correct, they have, in themselves, no meaning. To give them a meaning, we have to ask ourselves such questions as these: Why has Hampshire, which is nearly twice the size of Surrey, a population only one-third the size of the latter county? Why has Warwickshire, which is very little larger than Herefordshire, a population nearly seven times as large? Why has Durham, which is only two-

thirds the size of Cumberland, a population more than three times as large? Questions like these can be asked in scores; and the answers to them lie close to us, under our eyes—on the map or in the book.

What geography wants is not facts and figures—true geography is almost crushed to death under the weight of them—but seminal ideas, germs, living nuclei, which may become centres of new life, and which may attract to themselves the raw material in the shape of facts and figures which lie around them. Such ideas need not be difficult or recondite; they may be perfectly simple. But it is the art of the true teacher to find them out and to employ them in teaching. Let us glance at a few.

“Great cities build themselves out towards the west.” This tendency is seen in London, Paris, Vienna; in Philadelphia, Washington, Chicago; and, in general, in all the large towns of Europe and North America. There does not seem to be very much in the statement. But when we come to look at the why, we shall find a great deal in it. We shall find that the cities go out to meet the west wind; that most of our best fresh air comes from the south-west; that south-west winds, in the N. Temperate Zone, blow across the Atlantic and the Pacific for two days out of every three throughout the year; that all our purifying gales come from the south-west; that our largest supplies of oxygen and ozone are carried by these winds; that the Cunard lines charge more for carrying you to New

York than for bringing you back to Liverpool; that sailing-ships do the voyage to Liverpool in two-thirds of the time required when sailing to the west; that the western shores of N. America and of Europe are much more largely supplied with rain than their eastern shores, etc., etc., etc. In this simple fact that speculative builders work harder in Kensington and Hammersmith than in Mile End and Bow, the young learner is presented with a kind of key which enables him to unlock the meaning of many phenomena—of winds and rains, and the social habits of two continents.

Take another: "The too great consumption of wood in building ships and houses is the main cause of the destructive floods which regularly take place in Italy, and which carry off much valuable soil into the sea." This looks like a strong paradox strongly stated. But the steps in the argument are clear and are tolerably well fixed. There are these: (a) The Italians have, for the last hundred years, used up, and are constantly using up, large quantities of timber; (b) the hill slopes and uplands of the Basin of the Po have been stripped of their trees; (c) the evaporation has been quickened on the hill-sides, the rainfall has become more sudden, the countless affluents rush down more rapidly and carry off more soil than before; (d) the upper courses of the Po and its tributaries have had to be embanked, which gives to the streams greater rapidity and greater power of carrying soil; (e) the banks formed by the silting up of the alluvial soil at the mouths of the rivers, keep back and drive back the waters in them, and make them inundate the neighbouring lands. Italy has been cutting down her forests for nearly a hundred years; the splendid forest of Montelli, worth millions of money, was the pride of Alta Italia; to-day

it is a hot and dreary desert, where no one looks for even the shadow of a tree. The immense dykes built along the upper waters of the great Italian rivers prevent lateral filtration, and increase the evil they were intended to cure. The banks at the mouths formed by silting bar the free course of the stream into the sea, throw it back, and increase the magnitude and extent of the inundation. Here we possess a set of steps—a chain of cause and effect—which even the youngest learner can estimate the value of.

Taking these two statements as models, the teacher might give his class questions like the following, the answers to which would probably give rise to thoughtful and animated discussion between the class and the teacher.

1. What are the conditions of the prosperity and size of a sea-port?

A sea-port, to grow large, ought to have: (a) in front of it a deep sea or ocean; (b) behind it, navigable rivers and canals; (c) around it, a rich agricultural country; (d) near it, mines of coal and iron. Chicago fulfils most of these conditions. It stands, practically, both on fresh water (the Great Lakes) and on sea water (having now free access for large ships to the Atlantic); and hence it bids fair to outstrip New York (which has 2,000,000 inhabitants) both as a city and as a port.

2. What country or colony has the largest mileage of railway and of telegraph.

The first gives a trustworthy comparative idea of the wealth of a country and of its travelling habits; the second gives a fair idea of the extent of its business. An exception to the latter statement is Russia—more than half of whose telegraphic messages are on the part of the Government, and represents no business but the barren bureaucratic.

3. What are the conditions of good roads and cheap and easy communication.

(a) Plenty of stone and stones. The soil of Hungary, parts of Russia, and much of China has no stones at all. (b) Plenty of cheap labour. The United States has plenty of stone, but no cheap labour. (c) A settled past, like Great Britain. In new countries, like Australia and the United States, the railway was made before the roads; and hence in many parts there are no county roads at all.

4. What are the chief conditions of the prosperity of a commercial river?

(a) It must flow from a colder to a warmer climate. The Mississippi flows from north to south, and carries the products of several climates. The Mackenzie and the Yenisei flow from south to north, and have hardly any traffic. (b) It must flow from a manufacturing to an agricultural region. The Rhine flows from Switzerland to Holland. The Danube flows from manufacturing Germany to corn-growing Wallachia and Roumania. (c) It must have a tide. The Thames has two currents: that of the tide, which carries traffic up; and that of its own stream, which takes boats down.

5. What are the functions of islands in the commercial life of the globe?

(a) If an island lies between two continents, it will probably trade with both. Great Britain trades with Europe and America. Japan is beginning to trade with Asia and with North America. Sicily used to trade with Africa and with Italy. (b) It may be a good coaling station. Hong Kong and Singapore are coaling stations for the commerce of the East. (c) It may be a telegraph station. Valentia, off the coast of Ireland, holds one end of the Atlantic cable, Christian Island, in the Pacific, sup-

ports the cable from San Francisco to Australia, etc., etc.

Or, let us suppose that the teacher selects an article of commerce as the subject of research. Then the line of study might be something like the following:—

1. Iron: (a) Where found most largely; (b) Where consumed most largely; (c) How consumed most largely (in ships or in houses, or in machinery); (d) How conveyed; (e) Sold to what countries, etc.

2. Wheat and Rye: (a) Where chiefly grown; (b) Where most largely consumed; (c) How conveyed (cart, boat, rail); (d) What determines their prices, etc.

3. Railways: (a) What countries have most for square mileage; (b) What countries have most for population; (c) What countries charge cheapest fares, and why; (d) What countries box you up, and what give you the free run of the whole train, and why, and with what social results; (e) What countries are entirely without railways, and why; (f) What parts of England are most densely railwayed, and why; (g) Why the railways in Australia all run from the east coast to some point in the interior, and stop there; (h) Whether agriculture or mining, commerce of manufactures foster the making of railways most, etc., etc., etc.

I should recommend that in the working out of these and similar problems, the teacher should possess, for the purposes of reference, Martin's "Statesman's Year Book," and the "Colonial Year Book" for the year. The latter gives the latest information regarding the development of each of our colonies; and it also gives numerous picturesque pieces of description of the more remarkable mountain and river scenery.

It would also be useful if there were painted on the wall of the classroom a set of units of measurements,

or standards for reference. Thus we might have :

1. A standard of size for countries (taking England or Scotland as the unit).

2. A standard for counties (taking Yorkshire, which has 6,000 square miles, as the largest, for division into it; Carnarvonshire, which has about 500 square miles, for multiplication; and Durham, which has 1,000 square miles, for a third standard).

3. A standard for the size of towns (taking three units here also: one of 50,000; one of 100,000; and one of half a million, for the purpose of comparing Manchester, Liverpool, etc., with London).

4. A standard of population to the square mile (taking West Australia on the one hand, with one twentieth of a man to the square mile, and Belgium, on the other hand, with over 500 persons to the square mile).

5. A standard of altitude above the sea-level (with 1,000 feet above; 2,000 feet, and so on; and, also marked, the pretty regular fall in the temperature of 3° for every thousand feet).

6. A standard of the angle of the sun's rays (with the rectangular rays at the equator; the angle of 45° at some parts of the Temperate Zone; and the angle of the sun's rays at the Arctic Circle on September 22nd).

Now I come to face an objection which seems to me very serious. It may be said—and said with great show of reason—that all these plans and methods are no help to the teacher and the learner who has the examinations before him; but that they are really an additional burden—being apparatus and machinery which have to be carried in addition to the ordinary tasks, which are in general fairly well assimilated by the memory. There is the examiner

—the two-handed engine at the door,
Stands ready to smite once and smite no more.
There are the examination papers;

and these consist, ninety per cent. of them, of questions on Topography (where a place is), the productions of a country, and other facts and statistics. All these things are usually learned by sheer force of memory—by the volitional memory.

To the above objection I reply in three statements:

1. All the facts and figures that have to be got up will be met with in the course of the enquiry and research which I am trying to recommend; and these may be specially marked and noted in the book.

2. The facts and figures, by this method of research, become joints and crossings and paths in the associative process, and, being appropriated by the associating memory, are less likely to be forgotten.

3. The passion of hunting—a passion strong and permanent in human nature—is attached to the geographical car, and drags it along with ease and pleasure. The sense of *task* and *duty* gives way to the passion for searching and the *naïf* pleasure of pigeon-holing.

The question may be asked: Why teach the Geography of the British Empire separately. There are several replies, and a multitude of good reasons. It is *our* empire; it has been won by the labour, the courage, the self-sacrifice, the blood of our fellow countrymen; and we ought to encourage in our children the consciousness that they were born into it, belong to it, and form part of it. It is in geography as it is in history; great deeds are done, great lives lived, dangers faced and death met by English sailors and soldiers; and our children seldom hear one word of all this toil and danger and courage. Moreover, the island of Great Britain has long been too small and has lately become too inclement to hold us all; and the sooner that the sense of a Greater Britain, the knowledge of New Eng-

lands with better climates and kinder soils, filters down through all classes, the better for the whole kingdom and for each individual in it.

Again, the British Empire contains within itself examples of every kind of climate—from the Poles to the Equator; of every kind of production, and of people in every stage of civilization; and these examples can be constantly referred to in the touching of other countries. Again, the speed of travelling is developing so rapidly (America within five days of us and Cape Colony within eleven) that the globe and its continents are contracting every day, and with this, the tendency towards emigration is constantly increasing.

If young people study the constitution and condition of the British Empire while at school, they will learn to feel at home wherever they may afterwards find themselves. There are openings for the young and brave to assist in the building up of a healthy public life in all of our colonies; and, as Professor Seeley says: "there is no reason why the names of New Zealand or Victoria should not one day sound as impressively in the ears of men as the names of England or France, Italy, or Greece." Once more, Great Britain is, by right divine and by labour done,

the guardian of the water-ways of the world; and this fact gives us access to every coast on the face of the globe. The sea is a highway which never wants mending; it is the cheapest and handiest of all highways; and it is kept open to all traders by the ever-vigilant power of Great Britain. Along this highway the Englishman can go wherever he pleases; and the openings, both public and private, for young Englishmen, are beyond all estimate. "The British Empire," says Professor Seeley, once more, "is for the most part very thinly peopled, and very imperfectly developed, a young country, with millions of acres of virgin soil and mineral wealth as yet but half explored: it has abundant room for all Englishmen, and can find homesteads for them all, for the most part in a congenial climate and out of reach of enemies. England now is a realm nine million square miles in extent—a realm so young and in so early a stage of its development that the greater part of it is not yet peopled; a realm which will yet require much organization, many new institutions, but which has been furnished by nature with an incomparable road-system connecting together the principal countries which compose it, I mean the sea."—*The Educational Times*.

ENGLISH LITERATURE IN SCHOOLS—HOW THE TEACHER AND THE EXAMINER SHOULD DEAL WITH IT.

IT is just ten years since I had the honour of addressing the members of this College on the subject of English literature as a part of school education; so I hope you will not think that I am pressing the matter unduly upon you in bringing it forward again to night. In these ten years many things have changed; and amongst

other changes may be reckoned a marked one in the attitude of teachers with regard to much of their work. There is less of that airy amateurishness which used to be so discouraging and so exasperating, and more of professional spirit and sense of responsibility. Teachers—not many, perhaps, yet, but still some—have come

to consider not only that it is worldly wise, but that it is also their bounden duty, to examine into the educational values of school subjects, and how these values may be realized; and the proposal to discuss such problems is no longer received with quite so marked an aversion or so very thinly-veiled a contempt. Of course, I am speaking of teachers in general, and not of the members of this College, the very existence of which is a protest against the teacher's ignorance of his work. That we are still a long way from being what we should be, no one feels more keenly than I do. Nevertheless, we have improved; and in no subject is this improvement making itself more visible than in the treatment of English literature—at any rate, in our girls' schools. I do not make this statement at second-hand. During the period mentioned, I have examined, and more than once, nearly all of our best known public schools in this subject; I have also examined great numbers of our high schools for girls, both orally and on paper; and I have given lessons in English literature to great varieties of pupils of all ages. It is on the results of the experience so obtained that I wish to speak this evening.

A little while ago, it used to be thought—and the opinion is, I believe, still held by a few—it used to be thought that the only way to deal with literature in schools was to choose a piece of poetry which one liked oneself very much and give it to the pupils. If they seemed to understand it and to take to it, well and good; if they did not, well, they were hopelessly dull, and there was nothing to be done. You might, perhaps, tell them that you liked the poem, and let your voice tremble a little when you mentioned its name. But beyond that all was sacrilege, mere degradation of the beautiful. To give a school flavour and to fill up the

time, you might require the whole or part of the poem to be learnt by heart; and you could require the notes at the end to be got up. These would explain a few hard words and phrases, and add a few scraps of philology and antiquarianism. Some authorities prescribe spelling and parsing. You ended up the whole with an examination, without which no subject is complete. In the examination you asked whatever chanced to strike your fancy, while at the same time you endeavoured to preserve the appearance of abstruse learning. For the life of me, I have never been able to discern where, in all this, the education came in—at least, if education is to be taken to mean the effects in knowledge, development and skill which one mind consciously produces on another. Nor do I see why we should call the process "Lessons in Literature," any more than we should call breaking stones by the roadside lessons in Geology. Of the two exercises I prefer the stone-breaking; for though, like the lessons in question, it covers you with much dust, while it spoils your facility of movement and the delicacy of your touch, still it does strengthen your arm; whereas the lessons referred to produce no beneficial result whatever. They do not even teach you spelling; nor do they improve the memory, for the memory is hurt, and not helped, when what is distasteful and ill-understood is thrust upon it. Now, I trace progress and improvement in the fact that there is an increase, slow, but steady, in the number of people who not only disbelieve in the plan I have described, but also believe in the possibility of a better plan.

To disbelieve is so easy and so cheap, and at times has almost the appearance of thoughtfulness. But positive belief in something better is the only test of real value.

I could name four of our greater

schools for boys where a better plan is in use ; and I could make a list of thirty girls' schools where the work is better still—naturally, inasmuch as so many of our women teachers are trained.

The error of the plan I have been speaking of seems to me to arise partly from the mistaken idea that the teaching of Latin and Greek in our schools is *literature* teaching ; and partly from the endeavour to transfer the method used for Latin and Greek to the teaching of English, without noticing that most of the conditions in the latter case are not the same. But to assume that all pupils who are not preternaturally dull must be able at once and of themselves to understand any piece of poetry as soon as it is put before them, shows an ignorance both of child-nature and of the art of all good poets. A poet, whether he writes for a little clan or for a whole nation, presupposes many things in his readers. He assumes that the materials he uses are either already familiar to them or may be readily understood and imagined by them ; that, inasmuch as he both aims at suggestion and works by means of suggestions, these will be perceived and appreciated ; that the language he uses, his treatment of his subject, and his method of construction are all well within the powers of his readers ; that they possess certain feelings, and that what he sets before them will call these feelings into action. He trusts that the associations which attach themselves to the things mentioned and to the very words and phrases used, will exist for his readers as well as for himself. He counts on his allusions and the particular bearing of them being known and perceived, or they will darken and not shed light upon his meaning. Nay, if the writer be a Milton or a Virgil or a Burke, he will go further, and import into his work,

phrases, lines and even whole passages from well-known sources, with little or no change in them ; and, not fearing the charge of plagiarism, will rely on the very *familiarity* of his borrowings to produce an effect of literary beauty. He expects the descriptive power of his epithets to be appreciated, the graphic force of his metaphors, the beautifying and illustrative effects of his similes, to be perceived and recognized. He appeals constantly to the general experience of humanity. These things, and perhaps others, the literary artist demands from his readers. He will succeed or fail mainly according to his skill in these matters—though, of course, his special singing gift and novelty of invention will also count for much, especially with the highly cultured few. The list I have given is a long one, but of course I do not intend to imply that all these demands are made in every case. We must, however, be prepared for all or any of them being made in any particular poem.

If you now call to mind your knowledge of what children know, what they feel, and the degree and nature of their insight into language, the first result will probably be a disposition to deny that literature is a subject fitted for school use. But a little reflection and some small amount of experience will, I think, cause you to modify this opinion. You will see that, though it may not ever be possible to convey to our pupils the whole of the author's meaning (how many adults ever take in the whole meaning?), it may still be possible to convey enough of the meaning to make the endeavour well worth our while. You will notice that poems and prose works differ considerably in the character, degree and number of the demands which they make on the reader ; and that what is hard under one set of circumstances may be easy

under another set. For instance, it is one thing to use "John Gilpin" with little London children, and quite another to use it with, say, children in a country village in Devonshire; while, again, a poem about ants and beetles and glowworms will be more readily imagined by country than by town children. I need not go into detailed argument in this matter. You will, I know, agree with me that a choice of pieces suitable for educational use may be made; and that to meet the various degrees of progress and development of our pupils the pieces chosen may be arranged in a properly graded series, according to the character, degree and number of the demands which they make on the reader. What I want more particularly to urge upon you is that, when making your choice and when about to give your lesson, you should carefully observe and consider what the demands of the piece in question actually are; whether any of them can be met by what the pupils already know and feel; whether the children can be helped to know and to feel what is wanted for the rest; and, if so, how. If you consent to consider these points, it will not be necessary for me to lay any stress on a fact of my experience—and probably also of yours—that the difference in result is immense between leading our pupils through a carefully graded course, and plunging them (as we too often do, especially in Latin and Greek) headlong into literature, the greater part of which is wholly outside their sympathies, and much beyond their powers to imagine and to understand.

One of the first and most important things, then, which call for our attention in literature-teaching is the introductory lesson, or rather talk, which is to prepare our pupils for the demands about to be made on them; the recalling and brightening up of the material already possessed and which

is now needed, the imparting of the fresh material required, the glimpse at the kind of construction which is to follow—which will often mean the bringing in of a rough model of some kind, *e.g.*, a football match to introduce a battle, modern emigration to introduce the coming of the Danes, pictures of people and places, etc.—the attuning of the feelings, the awakening of interest; or, as I have sometimes more briefly expressed it, the putting the child in the right place, turning his face in the right direction, and striking the keynote. If the poem be very short, all this can be done at once; if it be long, then this preparatory work should be done in easy stages, introduced just when they are wanted. Do not think that I am recommending anything elaborate and grandiose. You will not, of course, like an Italian peasant, build a large and imposing gateway to lead up to the merest scrap of a cottage. Everything should be in proportion and harmony, both with the subject and with the children. Even we grown-up people know in our own persons how, at times, a little preliminary chat on the subject will put us in the right tune for a picture, or music, or a play which, otherwise, might have found us somewhat cold and sluggish and irresponsive. Some years ago I published in the *Journal of Education* two specimens of such introductory talks as I mean ("Training of the Constructive Imagination," July, 1885, and "Training of the Æsthetic Sentiment," Sept., 1887), and you will find a very good one, of a somewhat similar nature, by Mr. H. C. Becching, in his excellent little edition of "Julius Cæsar." As a rule, editors of English classics for schools give us instead a biography of the author and a discourse on dates and originals—useful for getting up with a view to marks. I do not know any other use they can have in schools.

I will now touch upon the various other points of importance in literature-teaching, taking them as they occur to me, and not meaning to imply anything by the order in which they come; but before doing so I should like to be allowed to restate what I said in 1881 as to what I mean by "literature-teaching." "By the study of literature as literature, I mean the study of a poem or prose work for the sake of its substance, its form and its style; for the sake of the thought and imagination and feeling it contains, and the methods used to express these; for the sake of its lofty, large, or acute perception of things; its powers of exposition; its beauty, force and meaning of its metaphors, its similes and its epithets; the strength and music of its language. . . . My aim is to lead my pupils to appreciate thought as thought, a work of art as a work of art; and thereby not only to enlarge, enrich and refine their minds and hearts, but also to bring them to a knowledge and ability of expressing themselves, when they have something to say, both correctly and well."

The Subject-matter.—By this I mean something more than the mere story of the play or poem. It should also include the ideas dealt with and set forth. In Shakespeare's plays, for instance, there is the exposition of character and of human life; in "Comus," the plea for purity and "true virginity," and the thinly-veiled allegorical reference to contemporary religion; in Blake's "Dream," pity for the little things of this world and the evidence of providential care for them all; in Southey's "Blenheim," the condemnation of war; and so on. These things are often of more value than the story itself—if there be a story at all. Sometimes they are so manifest that we need only call attention to them and pass on. Sometimes they are intricate and elusive, or wholly be-

yond our pupils' range of knowledge and feeling—so that we have to omit them and content ourselves with the story only. What I wish to urge is that, if we omit them, we should do so consciously and for good reasons. We are far too much given to taking it for granted that our pupils have noticed and understood what has been placed before them. Our task as teachers is to attract attention, to aid understanding, to stir feeling, and we cannot do this by silence and indifference. A word or two at the right time will often be quite enough, and commonly this will best come in the introductory talk. We must not forget that most of the literature we have to use was not written for children. We have to adapt it to them, and them to it, to bring them within its range; and this requires care and skill—not very unlike the care and skill required in primary science lessons in observation. Our task is not to force our opinions and refinements on our pupils, but to attract and hold their attention.

I have mentioned the exposition of character as one of the things to bear in mind in connection with a play of Shakespeare's. The common plan is to give our pupils the exposition of some notable critic—Coleridge, or Gervinus, or Dowden, or Mrs. Jameson, or another—and to leave them to get it up. I do not think this plan a good one educationally. It is better than nothing, it is true, and often pays in examination. But that is all that can be said for it, even when we do require (which is not often, I fear) a few illustrative quotations from the play to be added. It distracts pupils' attention from the facts themselves, and brings them into a habit of trying to say things prettily rather than say them truly. Some of the characters have been so embroidered upon in this way by the critics that all the original form and

colour is hidden, and Shakespeare himself would not recognize where his own work came in. A better plan is to collect at any rate the chief sayings of a character; to decide briefly in each case what sort of a person he or she must be to say such a thing on such an occasion; to add what the other persons say about the one in question; and then to unite these results into one construction. After this—not before—may come the descriptions of the notable critics. This work done by pupils and teacher together will often enough be very faulty, and much inferior, I fear, to what Coleridge, or Charles Lamb, or Dowden would do. But it is the right kind of work, is extremely interesting, promotes close attention to the wording of the play, and fosters the habit of getting your facts first, and then drawing your conclusions from the evidence before you. The constructiveness of the final stage is of especial value educationally, when the different traits are collected, and then modified, reconciled and united into one complete character.

Text.—Then there is the text—that is the mode in which the author expresses himself, the wording of his sentences, the precise epithets, metaphors, similes, etc., which he uses in particular passages. Much of this—or perhaps all of it in the case of a short poem—may be learnt by heart. But the main thing is to ensure that the forms of expression used are understood and appreciated—for they then become part of the learner's own power and means of utterance; otherwise they did not. To effect this, something must be made to result from and depend upon the understanding and appreciation. The work just referred to under the head of description of characters will do this excellently; and so will the paraphrasing or complete interpretation, of passages. Mere rote-learning commonly betrays itself by inaccuracies impartially made in the important and unimportant words alike. The learner who has learnt intelligently may make mistakes, too; but these seldom affect the important words. — *The Educational Times.*

(To be continued.)

THE INFLUENCE OF THE TEACHER'S MANNERS.*

FELLOW teachers, I am glad to be given this opportunity to speak to you upon what I feel to be a vital topic, the influence of fine manners in the school room. I am convinced that we teachers do not lay enough stress upon the importance of manners. I am enough of a heretic to agree with a certain super-

intendent of schools, who in speaking to me of what he required in his teachers said, "First of all I ask that my teachers shall be men and women of high, strong, noble character, second, that they shall have fine manners, third, learning, and fourth, professional training. I know this is heresy in this presence!

* Part of a talk given by Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer before the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, Saturday morning, November 28, 1891, at the College of Liberal Arts, Boston University.

If we teachers are to hold our pupils, especially the boys, in school, we must have something that will draw them more strongly than business and pleasure outside can. Sound learning and business ability will not do this.

Fine, high character, and sweet and gracious manners can. And in speaking of the teacher's manners, I of course refer to her manners everywhere—on the street, at home, at church, as well as in the school-room. In the end, the teacher's manners show us all the rest. Manners are the indices of other qualifications, and reveal a teacher's culture and training and all that goes to make up character.

We all know men and women who have been our teachers, high-minded, true characters, who longed to teach us well, to train us to be what they would have us, whose overwrought, eager, earnest, generous anxiety made them so nervous that all their efforts failed; they repelled the pupils whom they wished to attract, and defeated the very object nearest their hearts. I remember a teacher I once had—a very learned teacher, but who could not control her nervous impatience; she would make the little girls speechless from fright when she stood before her arithmetic class and cried "Now!" watch in hand. My father decided that his dear friend was not fit to teach his nervous little daughter, and so I had to have another teacher, one who had a sweeter voice, but who was not nearly so learned.

Surely if there is any place in the commonwealth where all that is fine, gracious, and womanly should be united in effort with all that is strong, noble, and manly it is in our public schools. It always makes me sorry when I hear that parents who are able, send their children to private schools because they receive there better training in manners than they do at the public schools. Most of the little children who come to our public schools have no opportunities to learn gentle, gracious ways at home; they come from homes where there is hard work, and crowding, and very little culture. These little children

ought to have the best possible chance at school. It is said across the water that the American public school is largely responsible for the American voice. When I hear the little voices shouting out their lessons to the anxious-voiced, but loving teacher, then I long to emphasize the power of a sweet, strong voice. We cannot all possess this qualification, because our grandfathers didn't give it to us; but we can all do our best to have our voices clear and sweet, and to bring these gentler, sweeter qualities to the surface.

The more I go about among the schools, the more I am impressed with the fact that there are thousands of boys and girls whose highest ideal is their teacher. Teachers may distinctly influence the manners of our time. The teacher is the living epistle, known and read of all her children. How quickly the children recognize the bashful teacher, who has to "bluff" a little to hide her shyness; and how keenly they are affected by the one who has grown so tired in the service that he forgets how his sharp words sound to little hearts.

Besides this matter of the voice, I want to say that teachers should be generous in speech and behaviour. We shall not lose our power if we are less rigid and cultivate more sweetness. I know a little boy in Cambridge who used to be a very bad little boy, who is now good, because he says his teacher is "such a lady that somehow he can't be bad." Some teachers are too pedagogic in their language—and yet it is not fair to call it pedagogic. We all know teachers in whose presence Shakespeare and Milton would stand aghast; whose pupils must always say "I cannot," instead of "I can't." Let teachers be less finical and critical, and more lenient, even over an occasional slang phrase.

The pupils must feel that in addition to all the teacher knows, she is instinct with love and kindness for them. The darker the day and the more restless the pupils the more she must exercise a gracious tact and let the light of sympathy shine in her eyes, even when the sternness of discipline is required. The teacher must so carry herself that every little girl on the street will feel when she passes her teacher that she passes an uplifting presence, so that the highest deal of the boys and girls will be,

that when they are men and women they may be "just like that."

If I were hiring a teacher to-day for children who were dear to me, for whom I wanted to do the very best I could, I would choose—not to teach Latin a man who knew nothing about it—I hope I should not do that—but first of all I would choose a man who was a gentleman in heart, life, manners, instincts, dress, habits. He must be fine and high in all his thoughts and imaginations of his pupils.—*The Academy.*

EXPERIENCE.

WE have heard much of late about the value of "experience"; and more than once it has been held up for our admiration as the all-in-all for every one, and only second to training—if not indeed its equal. But speakers and writers take little trouble to define what they mean by the term. It has a "practical" sound; and that would seem to be enough for most people. But a very little thought will show that, as commonly used, its meaning varies considerably. Sometimes it is evidently nothing more than the passing of a certain period in the presence of certain things, or being present while some process is being carried out, however difficult and delicate that process may be. In this case we shall have to consider the caretaker at the Natural History Museum as experienced in natural history, the policeman at the National Gallery as experienced in art, and the attendants at a hospital as experienced in surgery and medicine. No doubt, when stated in this bald manner, almost every one would at once reject such a conclusion. And if we asked, Why? the answer would probably be that, at any rate in the case of the

hospital servant, knowledge of the nature of the problems being worked out is lacking, and that until some of this knowledge has been acquired and some little guidance given as to what to look at and how to look for it, the processes carried on must continue to have no meaning, or very little meaning, for the on-looker. But how is this knowledge to be acquired, except by observation and experience? Observation—true observation—is certainly the best, the most necessary, part of the process of gaining knowledge; but there have been other, and perhaps better, observers and thinkers than ourselves, and these should not be neglected; and, in addition to this, it should be remembered that our time for observation is not inexhaustible, and the range and the scope of what comes before us are both necessarily limited. Moreover, observation is not mere looking-on. It is intelligent well-directed attention; and attention cannot be intelligent and well-directed until there is some knowledge of how to observe and what to observe, and some power of interpreting what is observed; while the whole process is quickened and

rendered more fruitful by the presence near at hand of skilful guidance, to which appeals can be made. There is all the difference in the world between experience when it means mere lapse of time in a particular locality, with nothing better than squandering glances, and experience when it means intelligent, well-directed observation.

But, with many of us, experience means even more than this; and our plea is that, when teachers use the term, in reference to what makes a teacher, it should mean more. It should include practice in the testing, modifying, and perfecting of knowledge, by making use of it and applying it to work. In fact, we hold that true knowledge cannot be acquired by observation and thinking only; there must also be practice in the use of it, which not only most effectively promotes assimilation, but also adds a sense of reality to what has been learnt, and gives the learner the mas-

tery over it—and so produces skill. The fact that skill is one of the chief results claimed by many who profess such strong belief in experience, proves that, consciously or not, they use the term in this largest and truest sense; though their words lead one to think they have forgotten that knowledge comes before skill—that skill is effectiveness in the use of knowledge.

We might go further, and point out that, besides experience in what is true and well designed, there is experience in what is unsound and evil—with results which also must mainly be unsound and evil; or that oftenest the experience is mixed, and, therefore, still more urgently needs the help of knowledge and guidance. But we think we have said enough to make our view clear, and to show why we protest against the vague and random use of the term, especially when the discussion turns upon how best to fit the teacher for his work.—*The Educational Times.*

PUBLIC OPINION.

A SLOW COACH.—The system is wrong and not the teacher. It is true the teacher might set himself against the system and seek to lay in the minds of his scholars broad and deep foundations that would ultimately produce men and women who could think correctly and become the best workers in the circles in which they would move, but by such a course the teacher would be voted a "slow coach" and would have to move on to some other field. Isn't that true? "Payment by results," is an unfortunate phrase invented in some corner of the Educational Department at Toronto. The results have not been what the inventor expected. A change is badly needed. — *The Northern Advance.*

TRUANT INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.—The system of truant industrial schools has been tried very successfully in England, as far as the results can be expressed in figures. The average length of detention has been ninety-five days for each boy. Of the 11,130 boys admitted to the ten truant schools in Great Britain, 6,198, or nearly 60 per cent., were released in three months' time permanently cured, *i.e.*, they have never been arrested again for truancy. In six months' time 85 per cent. are permanently saved, and in a period of nine months 95 per cent. are saved to society.—*London Free Press.*

AMERICANITIS.—There is a national desire in this country to jump to

the top of the ladder, ignoring the divine plan to climb to it round by round. So many varieties of nervous tension and exhaustion are produced by it that a foreign writer has given to it the general name "Americanitis." He goes on to say: "This disease is found in every occupation and department of American life. It is a spiritual even more than a physical disease; an intense and almost insane desire to reach the topmost places at a bound; an inability to grow into things; a determination to take them by force." Teachers have a positive duty in the prevention of this disease in the school-room. One of the most pronounced symptoms will be a tendency to worship one hundred per cent. For this reason all feverish examinations, where results are estimated in figures, must be carefully avoided. In the meantime equitable circulation may be preserved by frequent physical exercises. The pulse beat may be lessened by daily doses of old-fashioned thoroughness and plenty of out-door observation of the way nature does her work. It will be found that seed-time and blossoming are not very close together.—*The School Journal.*

EDUCATION IN ENGLAND. — The year 1891 has been a busy and in some respects a momentous one in regard to educational matters. During its course the Legislature gave further proof of its interest in the mental and moral welfare of the people by passing a law which must have great and far-reaching effects. "Commonwealths and good Governments," said Bacon, writing of the education of his day, "do nourish grown virtue, but do not much mend the seeds." That has been changed in at least one important respect. While good Governments continue to show a becoming respect for grown virtue, they

certainly no longer neglect the seeds. These are guarded and nurtured with a care never before bestowed upon them; and in due season we shall no doubt reap an abundant harvest of those excellent fruits which Dante calls virtue and knowledge. There are hopes that Mr. Arnold's new type of Englishman, "more intelligent, more gracious, more humane" than any now existing, will by-and-by be evolved. Knowledge assuredly is spreading with unprecedented rapidity. Wisdom, the highest essence of education, may still, as in the days of Solomon, be rare, but learning is no longer fugitive and cloistered, or afraid to venture outside academic walls. The Act of last year has given a very perceptible impetus to the cause of popular education. When it became law there were honest people who doubted the policy of giving free instruction, or instruction that was to be had at a merely nominal charge. But results have already justified the foresight of those who were responsible for putting it on the statute-book. How great the strides in elementary education have been during recent years may be partially seen from the fact that while in 1870 the Government grant amounted to something like half a million sterling per annum, it is now seven times as much. The total sum now spent each year on elementary schools exceeds seven millions of pounds, an aggregate that bears eloquent testimony to the efforts which are being made to educate the rising generation. In twenty years the number of certificated teachers has increased fourfold, and the accommodation has grown over threefold. These figures speak for themselves and need no comment. But it has to be noted that the larger expenditure means not only a prodigious rise in the number of pupils and teachers, but a much greater efficiency in imparting instruction.

Another important advance is that the course in day schools has been considerably extended beyond the stereotyped three R's, and that teachers and managers are to a limited extent allowed to use their judgment. Some attention is at length paid to

the special tastes and aptitudes of the scholars. In technical education, too, the last twelve months have witnessed immense progress, though it is clear this department is but beginning to attract public attention.—*The Publishers' Circular.*

GEOGRAPHY.

DR. W. B. CARPENTER. — The death of Dr. William B. Carpenter in England has removed one of the pioneers in the study of the natural history of the ocean depths. His work in connection with the young science of oceanography will never be forgotten. He was one of the founders of the science. It is a curious fact that it was not naturalists nor mariners who began this study. Engineers took the first steps in this direction. It was not until the first submarine cable between Europe and America was laid, that the need for a careful study of the physical conditions of ocean depths became apparent. The first studies were made and the results were so novel and encouraging that a few years later there was a movement among some maritime powers for the organization of scientific expeditions to explore the ocean depths.

The first work of great importance was done in 1869 and 1870 by the English vessel, *Porcupine*, which made many soundings and other researches under the direction of Prof. Wyville Thompson and Dr. Carpenter in the North and Mediterranean Seas. Then came the great expedition of the *Challenger*, which, leaving England in 1872, made a cruise around the world occupying over three years and accomplishing scientific results which were of enormous value. France has also taken a considerable part in these

explorations, and our own deep-sea researches, under the direction of Mr. Alexander Agassiz and others, have been of the greatest importance.—*Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine* (N.Y.).

NOTES FROM THE REPORT ISSUED BY THE TORONTO OBSERVATORY FOR THE YEAR 1891.—The mean temperature of 1891 was 45.87, being 1.74 warmer than the average of the past half century, and 0.67 warmer than 1890. The warmest day was the 16th of June, mean temperature 77.62, and the coldest day the 16th of January, with a mean temperature of 5.13. The highest temperature of the year, 91.9, occurred on the 16th of June. The lowest, 2.0 below zero, on the 16th January. The mean height of the barometer was 29.6385 inches, being 0.0198 in. in excess of the average. The mean humidity of the year was 75, being 2 per cent. less than the average. The extent of sky clouded was on the average of the year six-tenths of the whole. September was the clearest month, and November the most cloudy. During the year there were 60 days completely clouded, being 12 less than the average (1890 79), the greatest number (18) occurring in January, none being registered in July. The resultant direction of the wind was N. 57° W. The mean velocity of the wind, without reference to direction,

was 7.33^a miles. The most windy month was March, with an average of 11.40 miles per hour, and the least windy was September, with an average of 4.20 miles. The most windy day was the 8th of December, average velocity 39.96 miles per hour; and the day of least velocity, 10th of June, average velocity, 0.70 miles per hour. The highest velocity in one hour was 60 miles, from 2 to 3 p.m. of the 17th of November. The total depth of rain that fell during the year was 26.735 inches, being 0.677 inches less than the rainfall of 1890. The depth of snow, 47.8 inches, was 22.0 inches less than the average, and 4.8 inches less than the snowfall of 1890. August is the most rainy month as to quantity (4.380 inches), and November with reference to the number of rainy days (14). May is the least rainy month, less than half an inch having fallen, about one-sixth of the usual quantity for that month. The most rainy day was the 9th of August, when 2.435 inches fell. There was only one other day during the year that over one inch fell, on the 16th of June, when 1.28 inches fell in a little over an hour, but on the 11th of June 0.62 inches fell in 16 minutes betwixt 2 and 3 p.m. The heaviest fall of snow in one day was 5.2 inches on the 11th of Janu-

ary. Rain fell on 125 days, being 12 more than the average number and 20 less than in 1890. Snow fell on 70 days, being 4 more than the average and 11 less than in 1890. There were 193 days on which neither rain nor snow fell. In 1890 the number was 159. The rain occupied 602 hours and the snow 301 hours in its fall, giving a total of 903 hours, or upwards of 37 days 15 hours when rain or snow was actually falling. Of the 19 thunderstorms occurring during the year the first lightning was on the 18th of April and the latest on October 26th. Auroras were more numerous than in the previous year, the most brilliant displays occurring on the 7th and 12th of April, 28th of August, and 8th, 9th, 10th, and 11th of September. The total duration of bright sunshine during the year was 2065.4 hours; number of hours the sun was above the horizon, 4463.3 hours; ratio of registered possible, 0.46 hours. Frost occurred in every month but in June, July, August and September. The last frost in spring was on 23rd May, and the earliest in autumn, on October 10th. Ice first formed on October 13th. The last snow in spring was on the 3rd of May (0.3 in.), and the first in autumn of the 1st of November (a few flakes only).

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

SELF-TRAINING.—All good government is self-government. The pupil must be taught to train himself; he is not, except in his early years, like a race horse, to be trained by some one else. He is to have motives put before him to do this, not to do that.
—*N. Y. School Journal.*

PHOTOGRAPHS.—In order to photograph a flying insect, the exposure must last only 1-25,000th part of a

second. This the French photographer, M. Marey, claims to have accomplished by the aid of a new instrument invented by himself. He has also photographed the blood globules circulating in a vein.

PAPER-MAKING.—Husk of Indian corn is being used in the manufacture of paper. In some experiments to test this use the husks were thrown into a rotary boiler, and after being

mixed with caustic soda and thoroughly boiled, they form a kind of spongy paste, full of a glutinous substance. This paste was then placed in a hydraulic press so as to separate the gluten from the fibre; a compact mass of fibre was then obtained which is worked in various ways.—*Young Men's Era*.

SOAPSTONE, or steatite, can be made into anything. Very beautiful stoves are made of it, and stationary washtubs and sinks are important products. Not an ounce need be wasted, for the dust is used to adulterate rubber goods, giving so-called gum rubbers their dull finish, and in paper, too, it is used to give weight, while all waste can be ground up into a flour which can be made into a fireproof paint for the interior of mills or the roofs of buildings.—*Scientific American*.

TWO TEACHERS.—If we enter successively a number of schoolrooms we shall probably discover a contrast like this. In one we shall see a presiding presence which it would puzzle us at first sight to analyze or to explain. Looking at the master's movements—I use the masculine term only for convenience—the first quality that strikes us is the absence of all effort. Everything seems to be done with an ease which gives an impression of spontaneous and natural energy; for, after all, it is energy. The repose is totally unlike indolence. The ease of manner has no shuffling and no lounging in it. There is all the vitality and vigour of inward determination. The dignity is at the farthest possible remove from indifference or carelessness. It is told of Hercules, god of real force, that “whether he stood, or walked, or sat, or whatever thing he did, he conquered.” This teacher accomplishes his ends with singular

precision. He speaks less than is common, and with less pretension when he does speak; yet his idea is conveyed and caught, and his will is promptly done. When he arrives order begins. When he addresses an individual or a class attention comes, and not as if it were extorted by fear, or even paid by conscience as a duty, but cordially. Nobody seems to be looking at him particularly, yet he is felt to be there through the whole place. He does not seem to be attempting anything elaborately with anybody, yet the business is done, and done remarkably well. The three-fold office of school-keeping, even according to the popular standard, is achieved without friction and without failure. Authority is secured, intellectual activity is stimulated, knowledge is got with a hearty zeal.

Over against this style of teacher we find another. He is the incarnation of painful and laborious striving. He is a conscious perturbation, a principled paroxysm, an embodied flutter, an honest human hurlyburly. In his present intention he is just as sincere as the other. Indeed he tries so hard that by one of the common perversions of human nature his pupils appear to have made up their minds to see to it that he shall try harder yet, and not succeed after all. So he talks much, and the multiplication of words only hinders the multiplication of integers and fractions, enfeebles his government, and beclouds the recitation. His expostulations roll over the boys' consciences like obliquely shot bullets over the ice; and his gestures illustrate nothing but personal impotency and despair.

How shall we account for this contrast? Obviously there is some cause at work in each case other than the direct purpose, the conscious endeavour, the mental attainments, or the spoken sentiments. Ask the calm

teacher—him who is the true master—master-workman, master of his place and business—ask him the secret of his strength and he would be exceedingly perplexed to define it. Tell the feverish one that his restlessness is his weakness, and he will not be able to apply an immediate correction. What are we obliged to conclude, then, but that in each of these instances there is going on an unconscious development of a certain internal character or quality of manhood

which has been accumulating through previous habits, and which is now acting as a positive, formative, and mighty force in making these boys and girls into the men and women they are to be? And it acts both on the intellectual nature and the moral, for it advances or dissipates their studies, while it more powerfully affects the substance and tendencies of character.—*By the Right Rev. F. D. Huntington, S. T. D., Bishop of Central New York.*

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES—FEBRUARY—MARCH.

· THOMAS LINDSAY, TORONTO.

AN opportunity of seeing Mercury occurs this month. The planet reaches his greatest elongation 19° east on March 31, and sets on that day at 8h. 10m. Standard Time, and in the direction W. $18^{\circ} 44'$ north.

Venus as the evening star is altogether unrivalled in beauty, surpassing all the planets and first magnitude stars in brilliancy. The illuminated portion of her disc is decreasing, but the angular diameter is increasing as she approaches the earth. Bright as the planet is she has not yet attained her greatest brilliancy. The metallic lustre of Venus is a great bar to satisfactory telescopic work; the best results are obtained by day-light observations. To any one possessing a telescope mounted equatorially it is an easy matter to find the planet by referring to the tables of the ephemeris for her R. A. and Dec. With an ordinary instrument placed with care in the plane of the meridian the culminations of Venus may be noted as follows: On March 10th the meridian passage occurs at Toronto, at 2h. 55m. 16s. Standard Time; for each day to the end of the month

add 30 sec. The meridian altitude on March 10 is $58^{\circ} 43'$; increase from about $27'$ daily in the middle, and about $20'$ daily at the end of the month.

Saturn is now in opposition to the sun, culminating at midnight. The ring in a small telescope is a mere thread of light, and the planet's angular diameter is less than during the opposition of last year, as his distance from the earth is greater. In the midnight sky, during this month, we have the constellation Virgo on the meridian, the bright stars of Orion low down in the west and Lyra rising in the north-east.

The binary γ Virginis is a 3rd magnitude star about half way between Saturn and Spica, and north of the line joining the two. This is one of the binary systems which have been carefully observed and their periods computed. Close to Vega, the brightest star in the Lyre, is ϵ Lyrae, an easy double in a small telescope, and a beautiful double-double with 3 inch aperture.

The familiar constellation of the Great Bear is now becoming favourably placed for observations. The

middle star in the "tail" (Zeta) is one of the easy double stars in a small telescope. But one of the stars so seen has been proved recently to be again double, by the evidence of that most wonderful instrument, the spectroscope. It is a binary, the components of which are revolving in the line of sight and

so close together that no telescope can ever separate them. There are other binaries of the same type discerned in the same manner, and it has been stated that the most powerful telescope of the present day increased in power 5,000 times would still fail to equal the spectroscope in observations of this kind.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

PRINCIPAL HUSTON.

IT is with sincere sorrow that we chronicle the death of Mr. William Henry Huston, Principal of Woodstock College. His death leaves a vacant place in the foremost rank of Canadian teachers, and a place which will always remain vacant in the hearts of friends who knew him well, and the hearts of his pupils. His enthusiasm, his high ideals for himself and his pupils, his unassuming goodness and worth, his energy and unselfishness—these things could not be hid, and neither his life nor his death will be in vain for those for whom and with whom he worked.

William Henry Huston was born on the 17th of June, 1859, at Whitby, Ont. He received his education at the public schools and Collegiate Institute there, matriculating into Toronto University in 1876. He was then engaged as teacher in the Collegiate Institute, Whitby, remaining there four years, at the end of which time he was graduated M.A. at Toronto University, winning the Gilchrist scholarship of London (England) University. He was then appointed house master of Pickering College, which position he filled one year, when he was appointed principal. Mr. Huston was married on December 25, 1882, to Miss Taylor,

of Fonthill, Ont. In 1886 he was appointed first English master of Toronto Collegiate Institute, continuing there until 1889, when he accepted his late position. From 1885 to 1889 he was secretary of the Industrial School, Toronto. He was active in the work of religious and moral reform. He was brought up an Episcopalian, but was latterly a Baptist.

"Death cannot come
To him untimely who is fit to die;
The less of this cold world, the more of
heaven;
The briefer life, the earlier immortality."

SPECIALIZATION.

BOARDS of Trustees experience difficulty in filling positions in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes requiring general qualifications by competent masters. A very proper enquiry is, how has this state of matters been brought about? We believe the explanation is to be found in the undue attention which has been given during the past ten or fifteen years to special subjects, and especially at too early a time in the student's course of study. The practice of the University of Toronto used to be, to discourage close attention to any one department of study till the undergraduate had passed all the examinations of the second year.

Now specialization is encouraged from the very beginning of the college course, and naturally this leads to the same system of reading and study in High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. If universities exist simply to foster a few scholars, or many scholars for that matter, in one branch of learning only—Geology for instance, then they are doing their duty to urge early attention on the part of intending students at the “fitting schools” to that branch only in which they are likely to excel. The fruit of the present plan of college work is graduates in honours in some one department, say, for instance, in Science, who are unable to give intelligently a lesson in English, another first class honour man in English unable to explain and teach a lesson in common simple arithmetic which every man and woman must use in common daily life. The case is equally unsatisfactory with those who take classics or mathematics. Head masters of our intermediate schools know well that we are not overstating the case. Therefore, we hold that whatever old and wealthy countries in Europe may afford to do, Canada is yet neither populous enough nor wealthy enough to follow such early and extensive specialization.

We must have “all round” men to carry on the common affairs of the country, and of these teaching is one of the most important. Every candidate for first class certificate, grade C, should, at least, be required to take all the papers in such subjects as English, history, geography, arithmetic, algebra, Euclid, trigonometry, etc., etc.

In this connection we may refer, with approval, to the action of the Senate of the University of Toronto, in publishing the conditions governing the competition for the Blake Scholarships. The Senate has made it very plain that every candidate in

these competitions must take all the papers in both pass and honours at one and the same examination. To our thinking it is high time for our provincial University to return to its former use and wont of recognizing and encouraging general scholarship, as it did so worthily in years not yet long past.

THE Ontario Teachers' Association is to meet on April 19, 20, 21, in the Education Department Building. This is the first meeting of the Association during the Easter vacation. We hope there will be such a meeting of the educators of Ontario as befits the work and those engaged in the work. All classes of workers should be largely represented at this annual gathering of our teachers. Universities, Colleges, and all professional schools should be conspicuous by the presence of their men in large numbers. Forbearance, energy and wisdom are required at this meeting. Let Ontario flourish by light and freedom in its education and in its methods of education.

HIS MONUMENT.

BY SARAH K. BOLTON.

He built a house, time laid it in the dust ;
 He wrote a book, its title now forgot ;
 He ruled a city, but his name is not
 On any tablet graven, or where rust
 Can gather from disuse, or marble bust.
 He took a child from out a wretched cot,
 Who on the state dishonour might have
 brought,
 And reared him in the Christian's hope and
 trust.
 The boy, to manhood grown, became a light
 To many souls, and preached for human
 need
 The wondrous love of the Omnipotent.
 The work has multiplied like stars at night
 When darkness deepens ; every noble deed
 Lasts longer than a granite monument.

—*Sunday School Times.*

SCHOOL WORK.

MATHEMATICS.

I. E. MARTIN, B.A., R.C.M., KINGSTON, EDITOR.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT,
ONTARIO.

JUNIOR LEAVING AND HONOUR
MATRICULATION.

ALGEBRA.

Solutions by *Gent. Cadet Serg. T. H. Vercoe,*
R. M. C.

Examiners: A. R. Bin, LL.D.; N. F. Dupuis, M.A.; I. E. Martin, B.A.

NOTE.—Candidates will take any seven of the nine questions.

1. (a) Assuming the Binomial Theorem for positive integral indices prove it for fractional exponents.

(b) Shew that when n is a positive integer the co-efficient of the r^{th} term in the expansion of $(1+x)^n$ equals the sum of the co-efficients of the r^{th} and the $(r-1)^{\text{th}}$ terms in the expansion of $(1+x)^{n-1}$.

(c) Find the co-efficient of x^4 in the expansion of $(1+x+x^2)^5$.

1. (a) Book work.

$$(b) \frac{\binom{n-1}{r-2} \binom{n-1}{n-r+1}}{\binom{n-1}{r-2} \binom{n-1}{n-r}} + \frac{\binom{n-1}{r-1} \binom{n-1}{n-r}}{\binom{n-1}{r-1} \binom{n-1}{n-r}}$$

$$= \frac{\binom{n-1}{r-2} \binom{n-1}{n-r}}{\binom{n-1}{r-2} \binom{n-1}{n-r}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n-r+1} + \frac{1}{r-1} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{\binom{n-1}{r-1} \binom{n-1}{n-r}}{\binom{n-1}{r-1} \binom{n-1}{n-r+1}}$$

$$(c) (1+x+x^2)^5 = \left(\frac{1-x^3}{1-x} \right)^5$$

$$= (1-x^3)^5 (1-x)^{-5}$$

$$= \{1 - 5x^3 + \dots\} \{1 + 5x + \frac{5 \cdot 6}{1 \cdot 2} x^2 + \frac{5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} x^3 + \frac{5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} x^4 + \dots\}$$

The only terms in this expansion that give x^4 are $5x \times (-5x^3)$ and $\frac{5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} x^4 \times 1$;

\therefore The co-efficient of x^4 is 45.

2. (a) By means of the expansion of $(1+x)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ find a series whose limit is $\sqrt{2}$.

(b) Find the co-efficients of x^n in the expansion of $\frac{(1-2x)^2}{(1-x)^4}$.

(c) If $(10+3\sqrt{11})^n = a+b$ where a and b are integers and b is a proper fraction, prove that $(a+b)(1-b) = 1$.

2. (a) Putting $x = 1$ in the expansion of $(1+x)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ by the Binomial Theorem, we have $\sqrt{2} = (1+1)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{128} + \frac{1}{256} - \dots$

$$(b) \frac{(1-2x)^2}{(1-x)^4} = \left(\frac{1-2x}{1-2x+x^2} \right)^2$$

$$= \left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right)^2 \right\}^2$$

$$= 1 - 2x^2(1-x)^{-2} + x^4(1-x)^{-4};$$

\therefore The co-efficient of x^n in this is

$$\left\{ \frac{(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{6} - 2 \cdot \frac{(n-1)^1}{1} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)(n^2-5n-6)}{6}$$

(c) Since $(10+3\sqrt{11})(10-3\sqrt{11}) = 1$;
 $\therefore 10-3\sqrt{11}$ is less than 1;

$\therefore (10-3\sqrt{11})^n$ is $< 1 = b$ (say), and $(10+3\sqrt{11})^n + (10-3\sqrt{11})^n$ is rational and integral and $= a+b+b$; $\therefore b+b$ is an integral, but each being less than 1 we have $b+b = 1$, or $b = 1-b$; $\therefore (a+b)(1-b) = (10+3\sqrt{11})^n (10-3\sqrt{11})^n = 1^n = 1$.

3. (a) If the roots of $ax^2+2bx+c=0$ be imaginary, what relations subsist between the co-efficients of the equation?

(b) If x be real determine the limits between which $\frac{x^2+5x+4}{x^2+5x}$ can have no real value.

(c) Find the condition that $y^2+axy+bx^2+cy+dx+e=0$ may be resolved into two rational factors of the first degree.

3. (a) Book work.

(b) Let $\frac{x^2+5x+4}{x^2+5x} = k$; $\therefore (1-k)x^2 + 5(1-k)x + 4 = 0$.

The condition that x is real is expressed by the relation $25(1-k)^2 \geq 16(1-k)$, or $(1-k)(9-25k) \geq 0$;

∴ k must be greater than 1 or less than $\frac{2}{3}$;

∴ The expression $\frac{x^2 + 5x + 4}{x^2 + 5x}$ cannot lie between 1 and $\frac{2}{3}$.

(c) Solving for y we have

$$y^2 + (ax + c)y + bx^2 + dx + c = 0;$$

$$\text{or } \left\{ y + \frac{ax + c}{2} \right\}^2$$

$$= \frac{(a^2 - 4b)x^2 + 2(ac - ed)x + (c^2 - 4e)}{4}.$$

In order that this value of y may be rational in x the dexter side must be a perfect square in x ; ∴ $(ac - ed)^2 = (a^2 - 4b)(c^2 - 4e)$.

CLASSICS.

J. FLETCHER, B.A., Toronto, M. A. OXON, Editor.

QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR—BOOK II.

Translate chapter 6.

1. Exemplify from the chapter as many different uses of the ablative as you can.

2. Construction of *millia*, *nulli*, *legati*.

3. Account for the change of construction from *in murum* to *in muro*.

4. Account for the change of voice from *coeperunt* to *coepti sunt*.

5. Write an explanatory note on *testudine facta*.

6. What difference between Latin and English idiom is illustrated by the sentence, *Quod tum facile fiebat*.

7. What syntactical peculiarity in the sentence beginning with *Nam*?

8. Conjugate *jaci* and *consistendi*, and compare *aegre*, *facile*, *diutius*.

9. Distinguish *jacēret* and *jacēret*; *oppugnare* and *expugnare*; *murus* and *moenia*.

10. Express the message in the last sentence in *oratio recta*.

Translate, chapter 10: *Hostes ubi . . . non poterat*.

1. Parse *optimum*, *quemque*, *quorum*, *uterentur*.

2. Is *transeundo* a gerund or gerundive? Why?

3. Mention any peculiarity in meaning, inflection or construction of *locum*, *coepit*, *domum*, *reverti*, *auxilium*.

4. Why not *Hi non poterant* in the last sentence?

5. From what simple words are *fumine*, *iniquiorem*, *ratio*, *alienis*, *sententiam*, *auxilium* respectively formed?

Translate, chapter 7: *His rebus . . . non audent*.

1. *His rebus cognitis*. Give three ways of translating other than the literal one; also two equivalent Latin expressions.

2. *Cæsarem secuti*. Why not *Cæsare secuto*? Mention any other cases in which the ablative absolute cannot be, or is not commonly used.

3. To what class of verbs does *auderent* belong? Name and conjugate any others you know of the same class.

4. Distinguish *impedimenta* and *sarcinae*; *reliquæ* and *reliqui*; *post*, *postea*, and *postquam*.

5. Write brief explanatory notes on the composition of the *legio* and the form and arrangement of the *castra*.

Translate into good idiomatic English:

1. *Dat negotium Senonibus reliquisque Gallis qui finitimi. Belgis erant uti ea quæ apud eos gerantur, cognoscant seque de his rebus certiorum faciant.*

2. *Docet quanto opere reipublicæ communisque salutis intersit manus hostium distineri, ne cum tanta multitudine uno tempore configendum sit.*

3. *Quod si fecerit, Æduorum auctoritatem apud omnes Belgas amplificaturum: quorum auxiliis atque opibus si qua bella inciderint, sustentare consuerint.*

Translate into idiomatic Latin:

1. He informed Cæsar that the Gauls were hurling javelins at our men.

2. Learning that the Belgæ had collected all their forces in this place he hastened towards them with his entire army.

3. The officer who was in charge of the smaller camp warned his men not to make an attack on the enemy before the messenger whom he had sent to Cæsar returned.

4. Alarmed by the approach of the Roman legions the chiefs of all these states promised to give hostages and do all that Cæsar ordered.

5. At daylight word was brought by one of the scouts whom he had sent forward to learn in what direction the enemy had marched that they had crossed the river.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Editors { H. I. STRANG, B.A., Goderich.
W. H. FRASER, B.A., Toronto.

EXERCISES IN ENGLISH.

1. Substitute phrases for the italicized words.

- (a) It was *universally* known by this name.
- (b) Instead of *advancing*, his horse made a *lateral* movement.
- (c) It was *undoubtedly* a *perilous* undertaking.
- (d) His *horror-stricken* companions were unable to help him.
- (e) He had come upon them *unawares*.

2. Substitute words for the italicized phrases.

- (a) He acted *like a despot*.
- (b) He was wounded *by an accident*.
- (c) Did he do that *in the presence of the teacher*?
- (d) He received them *with courtesy*.
- (e) To escape now is simply *out of our power*.

3. Expand first into compound, then into complex sentences :

- (a) Having full confidence in his judgment I gave my consent.
- (b) On looking at it again he saw his mistake.
- (c) They were too tired to go any farther.
- (d) He evidently knows all about it.
- (e) I let him have it on his promising to take good care of it.

4. Contract into simple sentences :

- (a) As winter approaches they seek a warmer climate.
- (b) They all predicted that the attempt would be certain to fail.
- (c) It's better that I should go alone.
- (d) The snow was so deep that it was impossible to proceed.
- (e) When they found that this was the case they decided that they wait no longer.

5. Rewrite, changing the voice of the finite verbs :

- (a) The shareholders were deceived by the statements he made.
- (b) The services he has rendered entitle him to some recompense.

(c) They have agreed to return the money that was collected.

(d) The company that he left in charge of the fort was composed chiefly of recruits.

(e) Next day it was reported that he had been seen in Toronto.

6. Rewrite in as many ways as possible without changing either the words or the sense.

- (a) This at first I opposed stoutly.
- (b) The trot became a gallop soon, in spite of curb and rein.
- (c) I shall never forget one instance of this.
- (d) For days he lay in burning fever on his bed.
- (e) Then comes your time for resting.

7. Change from compound to complex, or vice versa.

(a) I have no faith in it, but still I am willing to try it.

(b) He may have done so, but I scarcely think it.

(c) Its loss is the more to be regretted, as we cannot get another.

(d) Only two of those that tried the third question answered it correctly.

(e) I haven't a copy of it or I would lend it to you.

8. Express the meaning in different form and language.

(a) Spiders are also a favourite repast with them.

(b) The cost of erecting it is almost incredible.

(c) I was reduced to the necessity of imploring his assistance.

(d) The extent of his injuries could not be ascertained.

(e) It became necessary to devise some means of replenishing their rapidly diminishing store of provisions.

9. Change to indirect narrative :

"It is true that I was afraid of the Turks, but I fear more being called a coward. So I bit my lips firmly, and determined to find my drumsticks, which I soon did, amongst the snow; and I said to myself, They may beat me, but I'll beat the drum first."

10. Change to direct narrative :

Fontaine said he would never abandon the

place while Madeline remained in it. The latter replied that she would never abandon it; she would rather die than abandon it to the enemy.

11. Combine into simple sentences :

(a) A lieutenant arrived. It was during the night. He had been sent by the governor. He brought a reinforcement of forty men.

(b) They pulled themselves up by branches. They held on by tufts of grass. They reached the top of the precipice. They had not attracted the attention of the garrison.

12. Combine into complex sentences :

(a) Strange noises were heard. Strange sights were seen. A young officer was quartered in a neighbouring house. He resolved to investigate the cause of these.

(b) Richard had a dislike for business. Edmund knew this. His brother might have enlisted in the army. He thought this probable.

13. Combine into compound sentences :

(a) He overheard this remark. He went to his room. He took the letter from his pocket. He carefully concealed it.

(b) They were alarmed by this discovery. They kept watch. They took turns. The night passed. They were not disturbed.

14. Combine into mixed (compound, complex) sentences :

(a) The next morning they left the inn. None of the household were astir. They hastened towards the frontier. It was only a few miles distant.

(b) He might have profited by his misfortunes. His subjects hoped so. They restored him to his throne. Their hopes were vain. He was perfidious and ungrateful. He had made solemn promises. He soon broke them all.

15. Break up into a series of short simple sentences :

(a) In the parcel which she gave me I found a note from my friend, in which he explained why he had not been able to keep the promise that he had made.

(b) I was so startled by their sudden appearance that I gazed in silence on the group till one of them approached, and pulling me

by the leathern strap with which my arms were bound, gave me to understand by signs that I was to rise.

16. Substitute equivalent words and phrases for those italicized :

(a) On *ascertaining* this he *immediately despatched couriers* to *summon assistance*.

(b) He *assumed an attitude* of total *indifference*.

(c) It will be long before the *melancholy occurrences* of that day will be *erased* from their *recollection*.

CLASS-ROOM.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ONTARIO.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS. 1891.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

Senior Leaving and Honour Matriculation.

Examiners: W. J. Alexander, Ph.D.; T. C. L. Armstrong, M.A., LL.B.; John E. Bryant, M.A.

Write an essay on any one, but on one only, of the subjects suggested in the following :

1. "Westward the course of empire takes its way."

2. "For woman is not undeveloped man, Like perfect music unto noble words."

3. Narrate the imaginary life and adventures of Prospero and Miranda from the time of their being sent adrift in the boat until the time of the opening of *The Tempest*.

4. Write in detail a story on which the following poem might have been based :

"Why weep ye by the tide, ladie?

Why weep ye by the tide?

I'll wed ye to my youngest son,

And ye shall be his bride :

And ye shall be his bride, ladie,

Sae comely to be seen"—

But aye she loot the tears down fa'

For Jock of Hazledean.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC.

Primary.

NOTE.—Candidates may take questions four and five, or questions seven and eight, but must take all the rest of the paper.

A.

It cannot be denied, however, that his piety was mingled with superstition, and

darkened by the bigotry of the age. He evidently concurred in the opinion, that *all nations which did not acknowledge* the Christian faith were *destitute* of natural rights; that the sternest measures might be used for their conversion, and the severest punishments *inflicted upon their obstinacy* in unbelief. In this spirit of bigotry he considered himself *justified* in making captives of the Indians, and transporting them to Spain to have them taught the doctrines of Christianity, and in selling them for slaves if they *pretended* to resist his invasions. In so doing he sinned against the natural goodness of his character, and against the feelings which he had originally entertained and expressed towards this gentle and hospitable people; but he was goaded on by the mercenary impatience of the crown and by the sneers of his enemies at the unprofitable result of his enterprises. It is but justice to his character to observe, that the enslavement of the Indians *thus taken in battle* was at first openly *countenanced* by the crown and that when the question of right came to be discussed at the entreaty of the queen, several of the most distinguished jurists and theologians advocated the practice; so that the question was finally settled in favour of the Indians solely by the humanity of Isabella. As the venerable Bishop Las Casas observes, where *the most learned men* have doubted, it is not surprising that an unlearned mariner should err.

These remarks in palliation of the conduct of Columbus, are required by candour. It is *proper* to show him in connection with the age in which he lived, lest the errors of *the times* should be considered as his individual faults. It is not the intention of the author, however, to justify Columbus on a point where it is inexcusable to err. Let *it* remain a blot on his illustrious name and let others *derive* a lesson from it.

1. What is the main theme and the topic sentence of each of these paragraphs? How is the relation of each paragraph to what has gone before shown? What is gained by making two paragraphs here?

2. Examine the first paragraph showing

the main theme, the nature and intention of each sentence and its relation to the main theme. Point out also the various means employed to maintain explicit reference.

3. Briefly examine each sentence in the first paragraph as to the merits of the direct and indirect order employed, and as to the use or omission of connectives.

4. Criticize and explain the use of the pronoun "it," wherever used throughout both paragraphs, and rewrite each clause containing it, without using this pronoun.

5. Discuss the correctness of the italicized passages, correcting where you think a change advisable, giving your reasons.

B.

Columbus was a man of quick sensibility, liable to great excitement, to sudden and strong impressions and powerful impulses. He was naturally irritable and impetuous, and keenly sensible to injury and injustice; yet the quickness of his temper was counteracted by the benevolence and generosity of his heart. The magnanimity of his nature shone forth through all the troubles of his stormy career. Though continually outraged in his dignity, and braved in the exercise of his command; though foiled in his plans, and endangered in his person by the seditions of turbulent and worthless men, and that too at times when suffering under anxiety of mind and anguish of body sufficient to exasperate the most patient, yet he restrained his valiant and indignant spirit by the strong powers of his mind, and brought himself to forbear, and reason, and even to supplicate.

6. Point out briefly the peculiarities of style in the foregoing sentences.

7. Rewrite the passage, substituting English words or phrases for those of Latin origin.

8. Distinguish impetuous and impulsive; sensible and sensitive; irritable and excitable; benevolence and generosity; continually and continuously; exasperate and aggravate; suffering and anguish; restrained and restricted; valiant and brave; sufficient and enough.

COMPOSITION.

NOTE.—The letter and the essay are both required, and will constitute 66 per cent. of the value of the paper. Candidates will not sign their names to the letter.

1. Write a letter, of at least thirty lines, from Toronto, dated July 1st, to a former school fellow who has been residing for the past year in Edinburgh.

2. Write an essay, of at least sixty lines, on any one of the following subjects :

- (a) The Crusaders.
- (b) England in the time of Richard I.
- (c) Trial by combat.
- (d) The reading of novels.

1

THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICA
ACT—DECENNIAL CENSUS.

PETER McEACHERN, B.A.

The representation for Quebec in the House of Commons is fixed at 65 members. After the census is taken the population of Quebec is divided by 65 to find the unit of representation for the other provinces. For 1892 the unit is $1,488,586 \div 65 = 22,901\frac{1}{2}$ nearly. After the re-adjustment that is to be provided for during the present session, Ontario will as before have 92 members. Should the population of any other province fail to keep pace with that of Quebec during the interval between 1881 and 1891 such province is liable to have its representation reduced. Such a reduction may not be made unless

$$\frac{\text{population of Province in 1881}}{\text{population of Dominion in 1881}} < \frac{\text{population of Province in 1891}}{\text{population of Dominion in 1891}} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

The Standard for increasing the representation of a province in the commons is the ratio of the population of that province to the population of Quebec. The standard

for diminishing the representation of a province, other than Quebec, is the ratio of the population of such province to that of Canada as determined by two consecutive censuses.

Within certain limits, the representation in the Senate of new provinces west of Ontario depends on population.

A part of the annual subsidies, given by the Dominion Government to the provinces, consists of a grant of 80 cents per head of the population by the census of 1861. The B. N. A. provides that, for New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, this rate shall continue until the population of each shall reach 400,000. Although the subsidies to some provinces have been increased since 1867, such increases were evidently not contemplated in B. N. A., 1867, sec. 118.

Executive Power, Section 9 :

“The Executive Government and Authority of and over Canada is hereby declared to continue and be vested in the Queen.”

“The Executive Government and Authority” here mentioned is generally exercised by the Governor-General acting by and with the advice of the Queen’s Privy Council for Canada which means the Dominion Cabinet.

The chief functions of the executive are summoning, proroguing and dissolving Parliament; administering the oaths of allegiance and office; transmission by the Governor-General to the Imperial Government of copies of all laws assented to by him, or reserved for royal consideration; pardoning of criminals; appointment and removal of public officers; and the command-in-chief of all military and naval forces in Canada.

The duties of the Governor-General are now, for the most part, defined in the royal commission issued to him and in letters patent and instructions sent to him by the Imperial Government.

(To be continued.)

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

UNPUBLISHED letters of Andrew Jackson are in the February *Overland*.

Littell's Living Age for February 13 contains an excellent short story entitled "A Trim Exploit," from *Longmans*. Milton's "MacBeth," from the *Nineteenth Century*, is a notable article.

AN article on the labour question begins the February *Popular Science Monthly*. It is entitled "Personal Liberty." "An Experiment in Education" by Mrs. Aber is concluded. "Homely Gymnastics" is a valuable paper by Miss Tweedy. Other papers are by M. E. Blanchard, Daniel Spillane and others.

THE second paper on "American Illustrations of To-day" is given in the February *Scribner's*. The examples of work given are numerous and beautiful. The short stories are by Octave Thanet, E. C. Martin and Bliss Perry. "The Wrecker" continues in interest and mystery. "Station Life in Australia," by Sidney Dickinson, is an especially interesting paper.

"JOHANNA," by Mary E. Wilkins, is the opening story in the *Youth's Companion* of February 18th. "How to see Famous Cities." Paris is by Louise Imogin Guirey. There is a paper by Sir Morell MacKenzie of special interest now since the author rests from his labours. A Canadian, E. W. Thompson, has lately become one of the editors of the *Youth's Companion*.

THE *Review of Reviews* has selected David B. Hill as the most conspicuous American for February. Two character sketches are given, one by Charles A. Collin and the other by an unknown author. Mr. Albert Shaw describes "The Polytechnic and its Chicago Excursion." Russia is freely and ably treated in this month's issue. The illustrations touch on all recent events.

"A GIRL OF THE PERIOD," by Mrs. Oliphant, appears in the February *English Illustrated Magazine*. It is in the author's happiest vein. A portrait of Mr. Balfour is the frontispiece. Henry James contributes

an able and timely article on Mrs. Humphry Ward, also accompanied by a portrait. "Locomotive Works at Crewe" and "How Pianos are Made" are two especially interesting industrial articles.

Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine for January opens with an interesting article by Mr. W. M. Davis on "The Ancient Shore Lines of Lake Bonneville" (Utah.) This magazine is of great value to teachers, and its departments are full of fresh and useful material for class-work. Several of the articles are illustrated.

A Short History of the English People. By John Richard Green. Illustrated edition. Part V. 1s. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)

University of Toronto Examination Papers. 1891. (Toronto: Rowsell & Hutchison.) It has become necessary, owing to the very large number of Examination Papers, to omit the list of graduates and undergraduates, etc., which formerly prefaced this volume and made it valuable as a book of reference. Great is the learning displayed.

Macmillan's Elementary Classics: Tales from Herodotus. Edited by G. S. Farnell, M.A. (London: Macmillan & Co. and New York.) Twenty tales from Herodotus are here presented, arranged suitably for easy Greek reading. Some difficulties, especially dialectical difficulties, have been removed, and the notes are admirably clear, condensed and scholarly. The vocabulary is very good.

Studies in English Composition. By Harriet L. Keeler and Emma C. Davis. (Boston: Allyn & Bacon.) 80c. "Two obstacles lie in the way of successful composition work. The first and greatest is that the pupils are rarely made to understand how they are to do what is required of them. . . The second obstacle is the self-consciousness of the pupil." . . . We regret that space will not allow us to quote the rest of this paragraph taken from the preface to the "Studies." These lessons form one of the

best books on the teaching of composition that we have yet seen. Young teachers who may come across this book will be fortunate, and there are many who have weekly classes in this subject who will be glad to use this book as an aid in their work.

Heath's Modern Language Series :

Contes de Fées. Edited by Prof. Edward S. Joynes, of South Carolina College. 35c. (Boston : D. C. Heath & Co.) Classic fairy tales possess an inexhaustible charm, and the publishers of an excellent series of modern language texts have included selections from the well known French "Contes de Fées" as one of the series. The notes and vocabulary (including a table of irregular verbs) add much to the practical value of the little book.

Plane Geometry. By G. Irving Hopkins. 75 cents. (Boston : D. C. Heath & Co.) This new Geometry is indeed a complete contrast to the old text-books on the subject. It is on the Heuristic plan; demonstrations are sometimes in part and sometimes wholly expected from the pupil, who is also to construct his own diagrams, and state the converse of the theorems he is about to prove, etc. The division into books has been abandoned. We question if, after all, better mathematicians will be trained by this method. It has yet to be proved.

Macmillan's History Readers. Standard IV. (London and New York : Macmillan & Co.) Stories and biographies from English history conveniently arranged as reading lessons, appear under the above title. The period covered is from 1066 to 1485. Illustrations are given, which, with one or two exceptions, are excellent, and the general plan of the work has much to recommend it.

(1) *English Grammar for Beginners.*

(2) *English Grammar for the Common School.*

(3) *Grammar of the English Sentence and Introduction to Composition.* 40c., 60c., 85c. By Prof. Jonathan Rigdon. (Danville, Ind. : The Indiana Publishing Co.) The publishers consider that these are the "very latest, most improved, best books," and we observe (on consulting the publisher's circu-

lar) that a number of teachers, professors and superintendents agree with them. After examining the books, we can unhesitatingly say that they have many good features, and that the sentences and selections given for illustration and exercises are of more than ordinary value. Sometimes the explanations are rather long, but, on the whole, these works contain a good and complete presentation of the subject and are carefully adapted for use in schools.

Pharaohs, Fellahs, and Explorers. By Amelia B. Edwards. (New York : Harper & Brothers.) \$4.00. "It may be said of some very old places, as of some very old books, that they are destined to be forever new. The nearer we approach them, the more remote they seem; the more we study them, the more we have yet to learn. Time augments rather than diminishes their everlasting novelty, and to our descendants of a thousand years hence it may safely be predicted that they will be even more fascinating than to ourselves." These are the opening sentences of Dr. Amelia B. Edwards' latest book on Egypt, containing, with large additions, notes and references, and with illustrations, the substance of her lectures on "Ancient Egyptian Subjects," delivered in the United States. The work is comprised in eight chapters, devoted respectively to "The Explorer in Egypt," "The Buried Cities of Ancient Egypt," "Portrait-Painting in Ancient Egypt," "The Origin of Portrait Sculpture and the History of the Ka," "Egypt the Birthplace of Greek Decorative Art," "The Literature and Religion of Ancient Egypt," "The Hieroglyphic Writing of the Ancient Egyptians," and "Queen Hatasu, and Her Expedition to the Land of Pun."

The distinguished and learned authoress is one of the few who can make the past live again, can be scientific and yet simple and charming, and can stimulate and satisfy intellectual activity—in the form of a real interest in things and people long long passed away. Good use is made of the work and discoveries of others and widely-differing materials are arranged and utilized in a skilful manner. Altogether the book is one whose fortunate buyer as he becomes better acquainted with its contents will fulfil the words of Scripture: "When he goeth his way, then he boasteth." There is a beautiful photograph and autograph of Dr. Edwards as a frontispiece, and the volume has an exceedingly handsome appearance.