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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1891.

DRAWING IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES OF ONTARIO. — II.

BY COLIN A. SCOTT, B.A., OTTAWA.

IF the readers of THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY will purchase for themselves the October number of *Scribner's Magazine* they will obtain possession of an exceedingly clever and artistic series of drawings by Ettore Tito, and will at the same time be able to follow the course of this article. In the last number of THE MONTHLY I attempted to indicate, by means of a little sketch (which was unfortunately spoiled in the reproduction), how the artistic qualities of a picture might be taught to pupils such as attend our Secondary Schools. We will have a better opportunity to exemplify these principles from the pages of *Scribner's*, both because the reproduction and printing is perfect, and because we have before us the work of an undoubted master, famous throughout the world for the excellence of his artistic draughtsmanship.

We will consider first the drawing on page 408. I will make no attempt to divide rigidly into subjective and objective qualities. That which is objective is so thoroughly assimilated,

so transfused with spirit and permeated with the organizing power which makes the artist that it seems of comparatively little importance. And yet this man is a realist, whose whole aim is nature; while his work shows that knowing it or not he is also the truest idealist.

First, the grouping. How beautifully arranged to form unity within unity. The whole group divides first into two. The group to the left forming one mass, the single figure of the man opposed and complementing. From the point of view of character, that is of life, the left hand group is concentrated around the middle aged woman in the centre. Nothing of the lounging about her. You can read her history in her face and action. How industriously, with her whole soul concentrated in her work, she tears apart the object in her hands. The others lazily interested in her activity lean towards her. What a foil to this is the indifference of the figure on the right. The lazy beggar! See how he pulls up the stocking which he is

too careless to tie. Following this arrangement the lines forming the composition of the left hand group run together around the woman. The lines of the man are opposed to this group. So matter is subordinated to spirit, and our artist gets the unity of his composition out of a dramatic play of character. The left hand group itself may be further dissected into one and a group, which is the watchword of the whole arrangement. And is this not the way in which the world itself is arranged? The very constitution of the mind and heart, internally, and in relationship to others, is modelled after no other plan. Tito is a true poet. He offers us a criticism of life.

To leave the grouping and study the figures more in detail. First, the woman in the centre. How much you can see in her face. She looks about forty-five years old. She has had a hard life, and is perhaps a little younger than she looks. She is ignorant and coarse-minded, but she has courage and perhaps a temper. She is no sensualist like the lazy fellow to the right—all this and more expressed by a few irregular pen scratches on a piece of paper no bigger than a child's fingernail. Only a stroke for the eye with its contracted eyebrow. The sunlight falls strongly on the face. You can see the exact shape of the cast-shadow from the eyebrow as it falls upon the cheek. Study the cast-shadows all over the picture. Sometimes a full black blot, sometimes a delicate set of parallel lines, sometimes as in the case of the standing boy left out altogether. All with a purpose, all expressive to the last degree, even to the shadow that is left out. How could the camera do anything of that kind? It can never do anything more than give you a bit of raw material, very raw usually. Notice the different textures. How straight

and harsh the old woman's hair looks. Compare it with the softness of the hair in the standing boy. There is yet another quality of hair in the man's beard. And all how simply told. The complex and difficult continually simplified and yet without losing any of its complexity—a continual resolution of the impossible. You begin to enjoy the free and daring spirit of the man. Notice the drawing of the woman's right hand. You could count the lines, but every finger is in its place. The forefinger raised up more perpendicularly than the others catches more sunlight on the upper joint, while the lower is thrown into shade. The upper joint has no boundary line on its upper edge, yet there is no difficulty. The finger looks as if it had a boundary and stands out quite well from the dress behind. The absence of the line only helps to express the sunlight.

See the texture of the basket and how it is drawn; it is wicker-work—rather old and out of shape. Here would have been a grand opportunity for the inferior artist to get in his work. How he would have battened himself on that basket. He would have shown every upright and the interlacing of every willow, repeating himself a dozen times. But Tito tells the story once and passes on to other and more important themes. He gives us the essence, especially as it is related to the hard working, weather-beaten woman at its side. It is the same way with the object which the woman is tearing apart. He has not condescended to draw it as a recognizable article. It might be a fish or it might be anything. But whatever it is it is not essential to the action and character of the woman. As Schiller says: "The master of style is known as much by what he leaves out as by what he puts in." Notice the modelling of the pillar against which the boy is leaning. You can

see it looks rounded near the boy. But lower down where it is not important, Tito has neglected the scribbling on the left hand side which would be needed to complete the effect. Judged from a purely objective stand-point this might be regarded as a fault. But how valuable subjectively! How much of Tito did it show! We sympathize with such faults. We see the impatience of a genius which is always reaching after something higher. If he falls behind in the lesser, perhaps for that very reason he succeeds in grasping the greater things.

From the point of view of colour, notice the white posts and pillars (probably limestone) as compared with the deeper colour of the figures. The difference between the colour of the man's beard and that of the hair of his head. The woman's face appears tanned as compared with the face of the little child. The dark face of the young woman is of course not due to colour, but to shade; her face being turned downward. These are a few points expressed by this exquisite little sketch. Many more would doubtless reward a deeper investigation. Enough, however, has been done to show how instinct with the highest intelligence, and therefore how suitable for the purpose of teaching, is the work of a genuine artist.

Let us turn for a few moments to the sketch on page 416. Notice how expressive are the blots. The flat blot under the rim of the hat, and merging into the curly hair, appears to come right out over the face and sink back at the under part of the clumps of hair. Those two irregular spots of white near the centre of the clump on the right side of the boy's head have a great deal to do with this magical effect as well as a little lightening of the blot over the right temple. Half close the eyes, and you can see that the face has a deeper colour than the neckerchief which appears to

be white. Look at the picture with one eye for a little while and use your imagination—notice how the cheek runs back and how the nose stands out. How solidly and yet how delicately modelled. The boy's head is a little turned, and as he is rather chubby the flesh of the right cheek hangs down, thus increasing what is, perhaps, a natural or permanent symmetry. Compare with these drawings of Tito's any of Frost's—say the one on page 449. Of what use is the tree stem in the foreground with its eruption of branches? A nightmare of branches! they are all over the picture. The elk's horns were surely enough without the dead pine-trees—so many of them—and the fallen trunks. The black blot under the hind leg of the elk to the left fails to express the drawing as Tito's does. Examine in this way any of the pictures in the whole magazine, you will find none of them to compare with Tito's—an artist who for his breadth and subtlety, his dash and refinement will be hard to equal throughout the world. To come into contact with such men, to feel with them, to think with them, would not that be an education for the youth of our Secondary Schools? How much better to attempt to train the seeing eye and the understanding mind than to disgust our pupils by the monotonous drudgery of copying a motley collection of drawings from the flat. We do not want to educate artists in our Secondary Schools, we want to educate an appreciative public. The training should be general and expressive, not special and technical. Not that all efforts with the pencil should be dropped. The pupil will better understand the poetry of the graphic arts for knowing something of their grammar. But everything in its place, poetry first, grammar afterwards; not as it is at present, grammar first and poetry not at all.

A DAY IN OLD FRANKFORT—LEAVES FROM A DIARY.

BY LEILA TAYLOR.

FROM Wiesbaden to Frankfort-on-the Main is but a short distance, and after an hour's ride through brilliant red poppies and the blue corn flowers of Germany, we alighted in the large and magnificent Frankfort station. This city is, like many ancient places, divided into old and new town—the modern part built up with broad streets, handsome villas and shops, and plentifully supplied with parks and gardens.

We preferred, however, to wander off towards old Frankfort, so associated with early German history and full of recollections of their idolized poet Gœthe. In the Gœthe Platz—one of the fine squares of the city—is a magnificent monument to his memory, and his birthplace is not far off, in the Hirschgraben. We strolled off (happily guideless) to find it, and after traversing a few crooked streets and going around a great many corners came to the quaint looking building where the poet first saw the light. It is a square, well-built house, with a great many windows and gables, and bearing over the door this inscription,

In Diesem Hause
wurde
Johann Wolfgang Gœthe
am 28 Aug. 1749
Geboren.

Directly opposite, in an old fashioned inn, we lunched under the shadow of its portals, happy in the thought that Gœthe as a boy may have visited this same place.

Then we wandered off again into the oldest part of Frankfort, and lost ourselves in the labyrinth of crooked little streets, so narrow and dirty, with high odd buildings toppling over

with age; and such queer little shops, in nearly all of which are displayed the famous Frankfort sausages, or the long rolls of black bread so plentiful in Germany. Sometimes we see what looks like one of these giant loaves coming down the narrow street by itself, but on looking around it there is a curly yellow head, two bright blue eyes, and a pair of sturdy little arms belonging to some Hans or Gretchen who evidently enjoys black bread as much as we do white. Another comical sight to us Canadians is the milk carts drawn by large dogs. Sometimes they are harnessed underneath, and only do part of the work, but more often they are in front of it, while the Frau in her short blue frock and white head-dress walks beside.

A curious part of the town is the Judengasse (Jew's street) where formerly all the Jews were compelled to reside—indeed, at nights and on Sundays, the gates of this street were closed and no one allowed out. Civilization has crept in here and replaced most of the Jew's quarters with modern buildings, but Rothschild's house and old banking offices are still to be seen. The next point of interest that our wanderings brought us to was the Römerberg—the old market-place of Frankfort. It is a very quaint, interesting looking square, surrounded by some of the oldest houses in the city. Here the people used to go wild with rejoicings over the coronation of the Emperor. On such joyful occasions oxen were roasted whole in the square, and the fountain, still standing in the centre, ran with wine during the ceremony. Fronting the Römerberg is the Römer, or town hall, a curious

old gabled building — perhaps the most interesting in Frankfort for its age and history, which has seen many Emperors crowned, and within whose walls have been held many a gay occasion and festivity. We ascended its ancient staircase to the kaisersaal where the state banquets used to be celebrated. The immense room looks very gloomy and shabby; life size portraits of all the Emperors from Charlemagne's time frowned down at us from the walls, and some stately worn-out plush chairs that once were gorgeous seemed to be wondering what we were doing there disturbing their peace and quietness. It was from the balcony of this room that the newly-elected emperor spoke to the people in the square. The balcony is not there now—age has carried it and the gilding and frescoes away, and the three high gables are the only adornment it can boast of. When we emerged from under its broad-pointed old doorway and found our way to modern streets full of busy 19th century people, it seemed quite like another world. The contrast is so very great between the

cramped-up habitations of their ancestors and the comfort and cleanliness of the Germans of to-day.

Frankfort holds no low position in the artistic world. The "Stadelisches Kunstmuseum" or "Stadel Art Institute" is well worth a visit, being one of the most important collections in Germany. It is across the river, and to reach it we took advantage of one of the handsome bridges that span the Main. We had a good view of some very old buildings that front the water, picturesque towers and ancient gateways that are all that are left of the fortifications that formerly surrounded the city. There is an old bridge here from 1300 that Goethe, as a boy, used to wander over to seek his favourite walks outside the city. To know and enjoy Frankfort, to follow its history down through the long line of Emperors, and to search out the poet's haunts and wanderings would be a matter of days and weeks, and we left the city with many regrets, grateful for the pleasant hours we had spent within its old walls.

Sept. 15th 1891.

OUR SCHOOLS AND THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES.

EVEN a casual reader of the daily news must be alarmed at the evidences of increase in juvenile crime. What is the cause? What agencies may be employed to stay its course? Wherein does our system of education fail in its professed purpose?

1. We must distinguish between the occasion and the cause of crime. The former is a weak spot in the dyke—result of sudden passion or temporary dethronement of reason under alcoholic stimulants; the latter is the natural flow from some fountain often quite remote from the

breach in the dyke. Causes are primary and secondary. The primary cause is our rapid increase in population. Secondary causes, flowing naturally from the primary cause, are:

(a) A lowered sense of individual responsibility as the unit is the more easily hidden in the mass.

(b) Loss of regard for the rights of neighbours, consequent upon a less intimate acquaintance.

(c) The increased complexity of social life, which turns the thought into selfish channels.

(d) Luxurious habits of living prevalent in urban society which are

beyond the means of youth starting in life, but the influence of which the young cannot easily overcome through fear of losing caste.

(e) The formation of social classes; with a growing disregard of those who are upon the manual labour side of the line of distinction.

(f) The thoughts of parents tending more to social success for their children than to character, the latter are allowed greater freedom in their movements, are encouraged in their separation from home influences at a time when such influences are most needed.

(g) The attractions of a city life, with the seductive wiles of evil associates, and the extinction of all home feeling and loss of interest in home affairs as the young man lives in chambers and boards at restaurants or at clubs; as the poorly paid young woman is subjected to a boarding-house life far removed from the home surroundings she once enjoyed.

(h) The rapid increase in the number of unskilled labourers whose services machinery has relegated to the coarser forms of manual labour.

These seem to me to be the chief secondary causes of youthful crime, growing in intensity as population increases in density and especially as the increase tends toward cities. What agencies are employed to counteract the tendencies evidently strong and rapidly growing stronger? My thought turns toward three fundamental and organic agencies for the preservation of social order—the home, the church, the school.

Of the homes so called, how many fail to meet the purpose of their organization. There are some where evil influences are positive, where example and precept lead to criminal practices; there are others where indifference results in negative encouragement of crime, whose members act after their own will without coun-

sel or restraint, the parents seeming so be the happiest when they know least of the lives of their offspring; there are others where, with the purest intentions, time is wanting for any other thought than the ever pressing demands for food and clothing; there are still others, where, with time at command, knowledge requisite for proper training of children is lacking. Still further must we go in this process of exclusion, as we see homes where time, means and knowledge are at command, but where social customs decree the abnormal management of children by nurses and governesses not always wisely chosen. Can the homes that remain be relied upon to stem the tide of evil without help? But there is help in the church. Unfortunately, the majority of those who most need such help, do not avail themselves of it. The good homes use the help of the church most frequently. While the church cultivates the noble view of the worth of the individual, she does not reach enough hearts to make sure that her teachings are accepted in their entirety. A half truth is as dangerous as an entire error. When the doctrine of individual worth is not accompanied by the practical acknowledgment of individual responsibility, but half the truth appears.

If the home and the church, noble allies, prove insufficient, society must secure for herself a supplemental agency. Both home and church have recognized the need of such an agency and have agreed upon the school. It is to this organized agency I would turn for help. The ideal school, whether private or public, may do much in arrest of the prevalent tendency to crime. From its peculiar structure and patronage, it will not be found difficult to emphasize influences which go to the building of a virtuous character, the foundation of social order. Following not very

closely the order of causes enumerated above in sketching the cures :

1. We need to check the tendency to loss of responsibility which the hiding of the individual in the mass creates. The school steps in with its requirements, its restraints, and puts each pupil upon his individual merits. He must be punctual, attentive, orderly, obedient of himself and for himself. The general average of his class will not suffice. His personal attendance is noted each day. His recitations show the degree of his attention to his daily study. His conduct is observed in all his personal relations to his fellows and to his teachers. His faithful performance of tasks and his derelictions in duty are recorded against his name. He is one of many, and not one in many. He cannot shirk duty without personal reproof. To his teacher he bears a distinct personality. His personality is so constantly, and in so many ways impressed upon his mind, that he grows into the habit of assuming personal responsibility. Motives to its acceptance and exercise are drawn from his relations to his fellows, to his teachers, to his parents and to his Creator, for the true teacher can not fail to guide the thoughts of the child upward to a power above his own source of his life and of his blessings. The relation of the creature to the Creator, both home and church expect the school to teach, while they reserve to themselves the right to indoctrinate the child after their own forms of faith.

2. While the school emphasizes individual duties it presents also the self-hood which imparts good in distinction from that which seeks good. Every movement of the child must be made in accord with those of his mates, for in no other way can peace prevail. His disposition to be talkative is counteracted by the inner command to be silent, which the

presence of others enforces. If he would study aloud, he finds that the same practice on the part of others interferes with his progress. At every turn he is compelled to recognize the rights of his neighbours, and to find in a measure of restraint his true liberty.

3. The true democracy of the school permits no superiority of right. On the play-ground equality of right is recognized in a peculiar manner. Enjoyment there depends upon harmony, even a selfish motive may induce to such a result. Distinctions in social rank are forgotten in the main. Knowledge of real merit obtained in the class-room goes far to check any tendency to social exclusion on the play-ground. Exclusiveness is not natural to a child. Near the home of my boyhood dwelt a man of some wealth, who at his death bequeathed all to two grown up sons. In the property was a double house. The families of the sons moved in, and by reason of unfortunate differences, built a high board fence from between the doors to the street, that they might be spared the sight of each other as much as possible. It was not long, however, before their children's knives made small openings in the fence through which they could see and converse with each other.

4. It is the distinctive province, especially of the public school to Americanize our entire population. No agency has been more potent in this direction. Its distinctions are in the line of intellect, not of blood. Its opportunities are free to all. Its prizes are awarded without regard to birth. The offer of a free education, opening the avenue to social and civil preferment, is the strongest incentive possible to one who has all his life been weighted with social exclusion, to enter heartily into the support of American institutions. Bringing the child of foreign parentage into inti-

mate acquaintance with his native neighbour upon the plane of mental culture, its effect will be seen in more neighbourly ways. Mutual regard is strengthened as mutual acquaintance is extended. Attempted separation brings distrust, cultivates race prejudice, embitters social relations. Classification upon the basis of nativity surely brings trouble; this the public school avoids. It is within my observation that a school classification upon the colour line made police protection necessary for both teachers and pupils of the school organized for the less numerous race, and that after the wall of separation was broken down, the stoners and the stoned under the old regime became apparently the happiest associates upon the playground under the new order of things.

5. The extremes of social classes which appear in a false aristocracy and an illiterate mass—the suddenly wealthy and the persistently poor—the apes of fashion and the reckless horde—furnish criminals in a large measure. The one extreme constantly excites the envy, the jealousy, the hatred of the other. Display of a professed superiority which really has no basis in character, only irritates those equally worthy, but lacking the means to make a similar display. The one class despises the workman, the other class hates the work. Labour is considered ignoble by both, but the one class is compelled to submit and to feel the degradation which the other class so constantly impresses upon them. To the entire removal of these distinctions the school, properly conducted, sets itself with resolute purpose.

In the above conditions, my mind has dwelt upon the ideal school. Can the ideal be realized? Starting anew may I suggest what I consider needful to its realization.

1. Reduction in the number of pupils assigned to one teacher is pre-

requisite to the personal attention desired. Private schools have a large advantage over public schools in this respect quite generally. Classes are smaller, individual instruction is more easily attained. The massing of pupils under the prevalent system of gradation in public schools may be of value in an economic sense, since larger numbers may be profitably taught; but it is at the expense of personal acquaintance with the inner life of each child, and the adapting of moral forces to individual needs is but imperfectly attained. To a class of sixty pupils in a grade for one year, there are less than twelve hundred hours of school time, or less than twenty hours to each pupil, if individual influence is to be attempted. The lack of personal acquaintance is the result of large classes, it is the weakest link in the chain of moral influences, which is in many cases made weaker by denying to the teacher the privilege of a discreet use of the most important help attainable, the unequalled collection of moral precepts found in "The Book."

2. In the absence of proper parental control, in the presence of avarice which deems the slender earnings of a child of greater worth than his education, and in the indifference which throws off parental responsibility when the child has been started for school, will be found the necessity for some form of compulsory enactments, which shall make it certain that those due at school are found regularly under its restraints. For the factory, the shop, the farm, the store, where youth are properly employed, restrictions are stringent and enforced by penalties of a pecuniary character, which are recognized as consistent with true liberty. Why should the school be denied the right of control of time and attendance of those enrolled therein for purposes of education equally important?

3. One accusation brought against the public school is that it educates children away from their sphere in life. If this charge is in any sense tenable, it is due to a perversion of the purpose of the school under the stress of that portion of society which flaunts itself in public and attempts leadership. The school which accepts such leadership will soon find itself deprived of the support of the stronger and more quiet element. It is the glory of the free school that the poor can reap its advantages and thus improve their condition in life. It should be an added glory that the rich can nowhere purchase better opportunities. If the public school fails to meet its possibilities in the building up of the conservative elements of society, the system of instruction is at fault. It is what we fail to teach that makes the school amenable to the charge stated above. Our system of instruction must be so modified as to instil into the minds of children respect for labour, and to awaken in them the purpose to dignify the sphere in which they live, by improving the implements of labour, and by bettering the fruits of labour. No people are more careful of the habits of their children than are the Jews. They always act upon the principle—"He who brings up a child without a trade adds one more to the list of criminals." If all families are not equally careful, the school must supplement as far as possible home neglect. It is not possible to introduce instruction in all trades, but some fundamental work may be done in training the eye and the hand. Above all, since it takes the child for a part of the day only from the home, the public school must encourage home industries and give frequent occasion for the display of skill in homely (homelike) labours, rather than in the display of finery upon "exhibition days." There is a dignity

given to labour which ensures self-respect in the little workers. Schools for the people must emphasize those features of an education which will be most helpful to the people, which take hold of their daily life to its strengthening and its sweetening. First and foremost in all grades of advancement must come the useful, with enough of the ornamental to make the useful attractive.

In the proper development of self-hood which looks to an increase in means of self-elevation, and which results in the elevation of others brought under its influence, the school must look to the most prominent needs of the child. For persuasion, he needs a control of his own language, an understanding of the use and the power of words, a self-poise which will ensure a ready and a right utterance at the right time, ability to think upon his feet, and a store of knowledge upon which to draw at will. For practical power he needs to know of men in their various relations, how men have acted under certain conditions, what men have succeeded and by what means, how nature's forces may be utilized, in what directions he may best use his own physical powers through their strengthening and their preservation, how each may secure the best results in the application of acquired intellectual power to the industries in which he must engage, how his sphere of influence may be enlarged through the application of the highest moral forces. In this commercial age the child must not be left in ignorance of the wide world so narrowed by advance of science as to give pungency to the adage "Nothing human is foreign to me." With this community of interest, competition arises which will demand the closest calculation, the clearest head, the firmest principles, the most thorough knowledge of the forces at command and of their most effective use.

The man that is to be therefore needs a grounding in the language of his country, facility in processes of reasoning, familiarity with the forces of nature and of methods of their control, knowledge of other peoples, of the course and the laws of trade.

The child who has been taught to utter tersely and with clearness his own thoughts, who has acquired the habits of close and critical observation of the common things about him, who can control his muscular movements within the lines of their highest efficiency, who realizes as he climbs the hill of knowledge that his horizon rapidly recedes and is by reason of this made more humble—the child so taught and trained can never be educated out of his sphere in life, but will on the other hand be educated for it. Enough has been said to indicate the fundamental topics in a proper course of study. They should be such as to call into exercise the faculties of sight, speech and manual skill.

4. The old time apprenticeships are no more, the home industries are so largely carried on by machinery, that the "chores" which kept youth busy and out of mischief occupy but little time. If the child can use his spare time in the handling of simple tools and bring out little articles of use or of ornament for the home he will be freed from temptations to idleness and to vicious indulgencies, and will be saved from crime. The articles of adornment of my home which I prize most highly are the product of child labour; they are not expensive articles but I can see in them the saving of expense to parents as their children grow into manhood and womanhood. While at work with needle and scissors and scroll-saw and lathe and plane and pencil, the enemy of mankind can find no resting place in their young minds. Something by way of encouragement to manual

labour may be found in every school, more in the higher grades of city schools. If the school encouragement find home alliances there will be less tendency to juvenile crime.

5. The incidental helps toward the formation of a virtuous character just hinted at in what has been written are after all only preparatory to the time of seed sowing.

They are but the plow and the harrow which make the soil ready for the seed. Their work is essential but it may be fruitless. If continued till the proper time for harvest they do no more than keep down the weeds. In the human soil spontaneous germination of good seed rarely occurs.

No amount of incidental instruction or influence can take the place of positive precept. Goodish talks about the "impoliteness" of profanity, the "meanness" of lying, the "injury" done the victim of lust, the "filthiness" of tobacco chewing, the "policy" of honesty, the "inconvenience" to which the sufferer by a broken promise is subjected, the "shame" attached to a discovered thief, the thousand platitudes awakening only a momentary purpose which yields to the first temptation—such talks, good in themselves, fail to reach the root of wrong-doing. Fruit depends more upon the condition of the root than upon the form or the foliage of the tree. He who knows what is in man and how best to develop a true character has said "Thou shalt not."

Until this right to command is recognized, and His commands are heeded, we may look in vain for a check upon juvenile crime.

The church has as its special mission the presentation of divine truth, the home is the fittest place for the lodgment of the truth, the best adapted to hide the leaven. As stated above, the church reaches only a limited

number, who come voluntarily within its precincts; the home by perversion, by indifference, by ignorance, by lack of time, has turned its children over to the influences of the school, or it may be of the street.

Unless the school be permitted to emphasize the power of a religious

life under the sanction of God's authority, and in the use of precepts drawn from God's word without the intermixture of human interpretation, it must fail to reach its purpose as a means of safety and perpetuity to the Republic.—*J. L. Pickard, in Education.*

THOUGHTS AND SAYINGS OF EDWARD THRING ON TEACHING AND TEACHERS.

IT may be of advantage to us, as teachers, sometimes to test our work and thoughts with the work and thoughts of someone more gifted and of wider experience than ourselves. Such a one is the late Edward Thring, head-master of Uppingham School—a head-master who more than any other teacher, with one grand exception, helped to change the scholastic life of the great English schools. Yet he is little known even among those of his own profession, but to those who came under his influence he was revered and beloved, and his memory is cherished as a sacred trust.

On some other occasion, if you so desire it, I may give you a sketch of his life and school work. Now I am only going to quote a few of his sayings about teaching and teachers.

But, it may be asked, what experience had this man to warrant his speaking with some authority to us? Listen to his own account of himself to the Educational Society:

"I am one of yourselves to the backbone. I come before you as a working-man, as a fellow-worker, as one who has worked up through an experience of the most varied kind, who began very low down, and feels strongly with all struggling workers with weary hand, and weary head, and weary heart. My first acquaintance with school began at eight years

in an old-fashioned private school of the flog flog, milk-and-water-at-breakfast type. All my life long the good and evil of that place has been on me; its snatches of joy, its painful but honest work, grim, but grimly in earnest, and its prison morality of discipline. The most lasting lesson of my life was the failure of suspicion and severity to get inside the boy world. Three long years were spent there. Then came nearly nine years at Eton, and I passed from Eton as captain of the school to King's College, Cambridge. Those nine years, with all their chequered feeling, did not leave me in ignorance of the good and evil of a great public school. Six years of work at Cambridge followed—now heavy with labour, now buoyant with hope, with much balancing of right and wrong, much anxious weighing of the value of education and life, and their true use. And then, best of all, the very pivot of all after time, my curate life in Gloucester. Six years were passed in this way. Lastly, after this, thirty-one years as head master of Uppingham. But the curate life was the foundation of it all in practice. Never shall I forget it, with its teaching work almost daily in National schools. Everything I most value of teaching thought, and teaching practice, and teaching experience, came from that.

Never shall I forget those schools, with their solemn problem—no more difficult one in the world—how on earth the Cambridge honour man, with his success and his brain world, was to get at the minds of those little labourers' sons, with their unfurnished heads, and no time to give.

"They had to be got at, or—I had failed. They tried all my patience, called every power into play, and visited me with much searchings of heart if they did not do well. Never shall I cease to be grateful to those impracticable other world boys, and that world of theirs which had to be got into.

"They bred in me a supreme contempt for knowledge-lumps, and for emptying out knowledge-lumps in a heap, like stones at the roadside, and calling it teaching.

"They made me hate the long array of fine words, which lesson-hearers ask, and pupils answer.

"They taught me how different knowing is from being able to make others know. Nay, they taught me the more valuable lesson still, how different knowledge which can be produced to an examiner is from knowledge which knows itself, and understands its own life and growth."

It was about this time that the grand movement for a wider and more enlightened education of the English people took place.

"Everything," says Thring, "seemed possible in that dawn of liberty to work, that breaking up of the tyranny of knowledge. If there was to be no time for piling up knowledge, there were minds to be trained, and lives to be set free. And education might rise—a resurrection, indeed—from the folio sepulchre in which it had been so long entombed.

"How strange it seems to look back on all this! The cold dead hand of authority came in and sent Lazarus back to his grave again."

It was also about this time that Edward Thring became master of Uppingham, a small unknown foundation school in Rutlandshire, with 25 boys to begin with. He died in the Autumn of 1887, and left Uppingham in some respects second to no other school in England.

Has this man, this true teaching workman, any words of wisdom or of warning for us? I think he has.

My quotations shall be chiefly taken from a small volume of addresses published after his death—addresses delivered under a variety of circumstances, and to audiences as varied; one before the Education Society, another to lady teachers, another to the State teachers of far-off Minnesota, and so on, seven in all, including "A Workman's Hints on Teaching Work," delivered at Cambridge University only a few months before his death. His work on the "Theory and Practice of Teaching" has been a revelation to many a teacher.

Where everything said is excellent, it is somewhat difficult to choose. Difficult also to catch the full meaning of a passage when wrenched away from its context. By culling here and there, I shall try and give you some of his best and most powerful utterances; some of them very terse and to the point; all of them having the genuine ring of honesty and truth.

In one lecture, referring to the sympathy of his audience, he says:—"Yet, I pray you be patient with me. Strong as I may feel our sympathy to be, I may, nevertheless, say unpleasant things, which may grate on your ears. But give them a hearing, for they are of life. I am no amateur, floating aerial brightnesses to catch your eyes, but a workman, fresh from his workshop and his forge." Talking of "brain-spun gauze," he tells them that "they must be contented

with thicker stuff, woven of tough fibre, coarse, if you like to think so—the tough-coarse texture of daily toil, of many a victory, of many a defeat; aye, many a defeat, and the years of trial that kill, or—make strong.”

“What,” asks Thring, “are the conditions which meet the teacher—which meet the taught? A mass of knowledge that no man can master, a mass of knowledge which pushes all thought out of the area. There is no time for thought. Break down and smash up the knowledge idol.

“We need to arrive at some conclusion on the subject of ignorance—necessary ignorance. A clear perception of necessary ignorance is the very foundation stone of true education. Directly any subject is proposed for the programme, the question arises—What is to be kicked out to make room for it? Answer that before taking up a new thing. Why, not a Cabinet Minister speaks but he tosses into the school cauldron some half-dozen new indispensable subjects. Even in the matter of knowledge, which is greatly over-rated, a teacher’s object is to enable the pupil to get knowledge for himself. Socrates imparted no knowledge at all. Examinations have knowledge as their work and aim. Socrates would be nowhere in an examiner’s specimen-list; he would starve in this enlightened nineteenth century as a teacher; there is no room for teachers. Socrates, the teacher, applied so subtle an instrument of mind by his questions to all he met that he forced them to sift and arrange their ideas. He sent new longings, and new capacities for satisfying longings, into his disciples, not new knowledge in the modern sense. So it came to pass that Socrates, who taught nothing, produced disciples that learnt everything.

There can be no teachers unless teaching is possible. Teachers do not grow by merely sprinkling about

a few minutes (or regulations) like mustard or cress in a bottle. Teaching is not possible if an inspector is coming round to count the number of bricks made to order. Where examinations reign every novelty in training, every new method of dealing with mind, becomes at once simply impossible. It is outside the prescribed area, and it does not pay.”

“Minds cannot be inspected. The minds of a class cannot be produced as specimens on a board, with a pin stuck through them like beetles.”

“Shoving in the regulation quantity is one thing, clearing the stuff out of the bewildered brain and strengthening the mind is another—and these two are foes. Thought is what is wanted. The mind must be made to think.”

The Government system, with its “Noah’s Ark assortment of examination,” is a “modern version of the fools of our ancestors, clothed in modern motley; a dab of language here, a dab of mathematics there; a bit of this, and a shred of that, all stitched together without a pattern or order; parti-coloured and patchy manuals and date cards, and a pitiable want of any texture sufficiently thick to let the victim ‘sit in the belfry and warm his five wits’ like the owl—if, indeed, he has any wits left to warm, and they have not all departed under this patchwork process, and left nothing behind but a firm persuasion that he cannot learn—which is only too true.”

Under this system the schoolmaster becomes “a mere hammerer-in of lessons, an elaborate parrot master, a knowledge hack, the keeper of a knowledge shop,” making his pupils merely “knowledge receptacles.”

“The lesson-hearer examines his pupils on the facts, and puts at the top of his class the boy who writes them down most accurately. Well,

what has he written down? An auctioneer's catalogue; a clerk's invoice."

"Do the Government want memory or mind? Is a goods station, with a clerk ticketing off the loaded trucks, the ideal?"

"The goods station, with a clerk ticketing off the loaded trucks, is a fascinating display of busy order. And busy order, statistics and neat columns of figures are dear to the official eye. They are so neat, they are so infallible, they are so unanswerable: if only figures are wanted. But, producing power is one thing, truck-work is another."

"Under the truck-work system a question is asked. The unhappy victim tries to remember, as he calls it. But there is no memory; it is simply a vacuum. Now, it is not possible to pull anything out of nothing. Cheques drawn on the Bank of Emptiness are empty. Nevertheless, three-fourths of the work, so called, are frantic attempts to draw cheques on vacuum. The beginning of this is the effort made to pour into a reluctant mind some intelligible bit of knowledge, and to cork it down with punishment. The taskmaster believes it is all right, because of the trouble he took to put it in. But it isn't there for all that."

"Does the carting into the mind a few bushels of facts to be peddled out again, make the owner more of a man? What is dropped in can be dropped out again. The whole theory and practice amounts to nothing more than a pouring out of knowledge on to the heads underneath. It is useless pumping on a kettle with the lid on. Pump, pump, pump. The pump handle goes vigorously, the water pours, and a virtuous glow of satisfaction and sweat beams on the countenance of the pumper, but the kettle remains empty, and will remain empty till the end of time,

barring a drop or two, which finds its way in unwillingly through the spout."

"Few stop to consider what knowledge is. It is only secondhand information; the sum of the facts collected, noted, and laid up by the labour and research of those who have gone before us. Supposing the knowledge all got, it may drown you, as the gold did the returning colonist in the *Royal Charter*. But, as a fact, it is not got. To the majority it is administered like physic to a dog, half shoved down his throat, and then his mouth held, if you can do it for his biting, till he has gulped it down; some, at all events, from sheer inability to get rid of it."

"The kind of teaching that is more and more coming up over the land is sufficiently indicated by the number of manuals, which, like the frogs in Egypt, come up and swarm, yea even in the very bed chambers, covering the tables, and littering the floors. These are the natural literature of class-rooms where the demand for a producible article prevails, and has turned the individual in charge of the class into a kind of clerk of works, whose main business is to make the workers tie up little packets of rules, label them neatly, docket them, and pack them into the pigeon-holes of memory, to be brought out whenever asked for, pat."

"Oh, the deadly paralysis of words, words; words—minds suffocated under a heap of words. Knowledge without feeling has cursed the world long enough. Let us apply a bit of familiar knowledge. At the battle of Wörth, at the beginning of the Franco-German war, 17,000 men were killed. Why don't you burst into tears at this vast presence of desolation, agony, death, pain, ruin? Simply because it is not present. The figures are present. They are an arithmetical fact, all pat for an examination paper. But we don't weep for an examination

paper, unless, indeed, we have to answer it. These many thousand deaths move you not. But I, for my part, agree with the old general, who is said to have locked himself in his room every Sunday to read Mrs. Ewing's story of 'Jackanapes' unseen. I could not trust myself to read it in public, or her 'Story of a Short Life,' and her 'Six to Sixteen.' Yet these are fictions, and only three, set against those many thousands of real sufferers. But the fiction is real, because it is thought in shape; the reality is unreal because it is fact in cipher, no nearer the heart than any other bit of arithmetic."

"What is examination? On what principle is it to be conducted? Does any one know? But one thing is certain. Examination and inspection proceed on the hypothesis that the work is known, and the process of working perfect. The examiner, from the height of superior knowledge, only has to see whether the school follows out successfully a known and perfect method. A government examination and inspection, with its overwhelming power of authority, runs all the work of all the schools before long into one mould; since anything original is outside the inspector's range, any new method absent from his plan, any discovery wasted time in his court."

"Can the State through any agency whatever award praise and blame year by year, and judge decrees of merit in schools without dishonesty? Or can it only judge whether they are cut to the State pattern? How

ought the schoolmasters to be treated? Should they be made subject to their inferiors, and their skilled work placed under non-workmen? How can those who never taught a child be authorities on teaching? Is teaching the only subject in which ignorance is knowledge? The further question arises whether, if the teacher suffers, a system which requires martyrs to work it truly, does not in the second generation get worked by cheats."

"Again, most examiners are young, and are sent fresh from their books and their laurels, to pass judgment on what they have not been accustomed to, and tabulate the life-long labours of men who, having been their equals in intellectual honours 20, 30, 40 years before, have added since the experience of successful work during those years to their early success in book-work."

Thring concludes one of his lectures with these words:—"The most pitiable sight in the world is the slow, good boy, laboriously kneading himself into stupidity, because he is good."

"Oh, teachers of England, if there is any hope, strive for liberty to teach. Have mercy on the slow, the ignorant, the weak. Their lives are at stake. Let there be liberty to improve. Let there be some liberty."

"But let me finish by begging your pardon for having broken silence in a lost cause."

True teaching a lost cause! So thought Edward Thring. — *James Smith, in the Australasian Schoolmaster.*

THE following facts respecting the various collections in the British Museum are of public and general interest. The number of volumes supplied to readers during the last year amounts to 1,226,126; while the number of readers has been 197,823, giving an average of about 652 daily. Respecting the Newspaper Room, it seems that 15,216 readers

have consulted no fewer than 51,097 volumes of newspapers published in London alone. The number of sets of newspapers published in the United Kingdom, has been 2,472, comprising 170,838 single numbers. Of these, 647 were published in London and suburbs, 1,420 in England and Wales and the Channel Isles, 232 in Scotland, and 173 in Ireland.

OVER-ESTIMATION AN OBSTACLE.

IT is unquestionable that a too high estimate is placed upon what the youth gets at school. The parents think he will be enabled at once to earn money, or to exhibit unusual talents; the student himself thinks he will be able to take the world by storm, that the world is fairly standing still for him. As we come away from the evergreen-decked hall, as the last plaudits are bestowed upon the valedictorian, we admit that we are under something of a spell. How earnestly the parents gazed upon their child as he endeavoured to do his part! They felt that somehow this scene was only preliminary to another one of reality; the teacher looked upon the band of graduates and felt that the one who had recited so well would surely make his mark as he entered on life's stern duties; the pupil felt that he had made a success hitherto, and what was there to hinder him henceforth.

A graduate of one of the colleges said last winter at a banquet, "I came to this city a few months after graduation expecting to employ my classical knowledge; I found I must take off my coat and labour with an earnestness of which I had no conception before." He had over-estimated the good of his college course. Thousands are disappointed that they can make no use of the mathematics, the classics, and the literature they have so closely packed away in their brains. They are set to add columns of figures, to read and reply to letters, to manage mercantile, financial, or landed interests; they are to help on farms, in factories, or in stores. In all these places they cannot bring to bear the ideas that they sprung upon the audience when they were gradu-

ated. And there the work is so different; ... the class-room they were merely asked to give the opinion of others; they were not asked to have any of their own. Now it is very possible that whatever course might have been pursued there would have been disappointment; it does not follow that the course the student has been pursuing is a wrong one because he is disappointed when he buffets with life. But it is certain that the reaction from the brilliant expectation to the real state of the case, whether in the parent or the child, becomes an obstacle. A cooper was elected on a board of education in a town of five or six thousand inhabitants and at once proposed to abolish the high school course, claiming that his oldest son had been through the course and that he was totally unfit to work in the shop; though the change was not made, the cooper declared that his other sons should not go through the high school course.

The teacher has felt that his patrons were disappointed in very many cases, after the most pains-taking labour on his part. He has seen that it has arisen from an over-estimate of the effects of the training given in the school-room. The education that comes from books is but a part of the training the young man needs. Pestalozzi felt this and so he determined to cause his pupils to do manual work, and work of the kind that ministered to the need of others. In his judgment house work is an educative means of great power.

It ought to be set before the graduate that he is not supposed to be fitted to cope with the trained men of the world, but only to learn how it

may be done. He ought to go out quite modest, certain that what he has learned will be beneficial in aiding to acquire knowledge of another kind; while eager to obtain different kinds of knowledge he must not despise those in the new field who have not heard of Plato, Homer, or Hegel. And then, too, he should be told at the outset, and all the way along, that the object of mind-training is not immediate money-getting.

Parents implant the idea in the children's minds, during the first years of school, that study is to enable them to "get a living," and they grow up unconsciously putting all study to the test of its promise for money getting. The public press in well-meant editorials bewails the want of the practical in common school education, and the boy becomes a surface student, with little idea of the real use of study.—*School Journal*.

AS A STUDENT.

A YOUNG man had graduated at a college, had immediately taken up the study of the plants in his native town, finally extending it to the country, had been called back to the college as a tutor, had been chosen to a professorship and still possessing the student spirit had undertaken to lecture to the teachers holding their annual institute. He tells us his experience in an article that appeared some years ago in the *Popular Science Monthly*. "I gave them a talk about literature, but saw they were unacquainted with the masterpieces and hence unable to appreciate any just criticism; I brought in some of the common flowers and showed on the blackboard the structure they possessed, but I saw this was an unknown field; then I brought in some beetles, grasshoppers, snails, and angle-worms, but these seemed to excite disgust; then I wrote a sentence from "Pope's Essay on Man" to arouse some philosophical thought—but I found they were only interested in parsing it—yes, they could parse!"

The writer goes on to say that he felt the poverty of these teachers most keenly; they went into the school-room so empty headed that he did not wonder the children shouted

with glee when they were let out at night. He turned his attention to arousing the student spirit in his hearers; he felt that the greatest thing for the teachers was to arouse a love for study, for knowing. Lessing says, "all life is for the broadening of thought; we start with a narrow circle as when the stone is dropped in the water; life means a broader circle outside of the narrow one." The student teacher will have pupils who live after this pattern.

The important thing for the teacher is to have a true spirit of acquisition; there is an idea in the minds of very many who enter the school-room that their days of study are happily over! "I have a certificate, what lack I yet?" And they may say: "As I have only to teach little children how to read, to add numbers and subtract them, why should I trouble myself about the stars, the flowers, the birds, and the insects." More important than the positive knowledge is the spirit that seeks knowledge.

A child must be looked at broadly; he is a seeker after truth; any work that forgets this leaves the educative line. It is easy to do perfunctory teaching; probably two thirds of the teaching done this day is perfunctory;

the course of study is followed but not the course of nature. Nature says, "examine me; find out all you can about me." She makes students. She rewards those that seek her. But the pupil is turned aside at an early age, the symbols of knowledge occupy so large a place that he never gets at that.

Symbols must be learned; to overcome the deadening influence they exert, the teacher must possess a truth seeking spirit; and it has become a subject of remark that five times as many teachers have bought books on natural science within the past ten years than during the preceding ten years. Many teachers know something of the flowers laid on their desks although they do not have classes in botany. In other words the student spirit is entering the teachers' ranks. And teachers who are not to teach microscopy or geology are studying these subjects.

A primary teacher who is a student is far abler to teach reading to a class of beginners than one who is not.

The demand for "all around teaching" is greater every year, and teachers who are students are able to engage in such work. It is useless to demand that a teacher shall do "all around teaching" who has not been all around the circle herself. So there are two great reasons why the teacher should be a student—for the spirit and power she will carry into the school room.

A single line of explanation is needed. "Why do you say she instead of he?" will be asked. It is supposed that most of the young men who are teaching are college graduates, and hence, have become students; still this is not absolute it is assumed. It is true that the bulk of the primary teaching is done by women and so we point the moral.—*School Journal*, N.Y.

HOW TO STUDY THE PSYCHOLOGY OF CHILDHOOD IN KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL.

BY C. H. M'GREW, M. PH., SAN JOSE, CAL.

THE season for the summer school and normal institute is over, and the book psychologist has been abroad to many of these teachers' gatherings. It is a rare exception if he has not missed the great subject of mind growth entirely, and fired his dry husks, dead formulas, and logical speculations in the air. And perhaps I should apologize for using the word psychologist to designate this class of crammed, stuffed, self-inflated, would be wise persons who are as blind as they are conceited and who affect to find wisdom and guidance in the speculative formulas of the page which they do not comprehend. But I use

the term in the same sense as in speaking of a book geologist, and a book scientist, and as a protest against slavery to the text-book. The broadest minded, clearest headed, and ablest thinkers of our profession have for a quarter of a century or more declared that psychology is the basis of all scientific pedagogy. And the book psychologist, all on the alert for position and power, has in recent years been increasing in numbers in normal school, college, and university. It is surprising how quickly some of these develop, and from what low educational planes they evolve, almost in the twinkling of an eye. In

fact, the evolution of the book psychologist is an exception to the law that develops specialists. This variety of the *genus pedagogus* is a special creation, usually of some political ignorance, called trustees. In a number of catalogues before me I find one of these book psychologists created out of a teacher of arithmetic; another out of a teacher of grammar, another out of a professor of Greek and Latin; still another out of a professor of history; and perhaps the most remarkable creation of all is the making of a college president and a professor of psychology out of a common secretary of a state agricultural society, and this too for a state institution. Now in all these cases I have watched the development of these institutions, and know what the material was before it was so wonderfully and fearfully transformed by the hand of the politician. I readily see there is something in common between all these subjects of study and psychology, but I am unable to see and believe that a true teacher of psychology can be made in this way. Perhaps there is some good comes from the effort and pretensions of these book psychologists; and I am certain there is much misunderstanding, disgust and error. But this crude condition cannot exist long. Psychology is now, as it is generally taught, passing rapidly through the same bookish stages that all the natural sciences have done in the last twenty years. And where there is one true teacher of the science, comprehending the methods to be used and the ends to be accomplished, there are a score who follow in the same field, repeating formulas and high sounding phrases and abstractions.

Yes, the book psychologist has been abroad, and I am sure he has failed to study the living book of psychology, the developing mind of

the child. It is, therefore, a good time to call the attention of teachers to the methods of studying children and their unfolding minds. These are all simple and easily applied. It will be seen at a glance some are more scientific than others, but each has its advantages in gaining information of the child mind and life, and they all should be used. The principle of observation is the basis of each method.

1. *Study children through their parents and friends.*—The parent or friend of a child, with the desire to benefit the child and aid the teacher, can, in a five minutes' talk, often give the teacher information of the child's disposition, peculiarities, and habits of life that might take her years to find out alone, and indeed that she may never get.

As a rule the better the teacher understands the home life of the child and the nearer she gets to him in thought and sympathy, the better will she teach him. This knowledge of the child's home life and relations is all-important, and the fuller the information the more successful will be the management of the school. The character of the parent, the circumstances calling out the information, the motives prompting it and in play at the time, must all be taken into consideration where the teacher estimates the value of the information. The true teacher will seek occasions to obtain such information direct from the parent under favourable circumstances, and not wait until an emergency arises and there is discord in the air, generally from her lack of such knowledge.

2. *Study children through other children, their associates and companions.*—Few teachers understand their children as well as they instinctively understand each other. It is a very wise teacher who knows as much of the social life and forces playing in

her community, in school and on the play-ground, as the bright eyed boy. There is a subtle atmosphere of the social life and child sympathy in the school no adult can enter and understand so readily as a child. It seems to be a kind of secret free masonry of ir.structive and emotional intelligence, which every child understands more or less quickly. I have seen some teachers forbidden to enter this atmosphere, while the children made others most welcome. Then I have seen some schools that walled themselves in against every teacher, and only the most skilful and tactful teacher could enter this little social world. Now the successful teacher must enter this miniature social world, and understand and interpret this subtle play of instincts and feelings consciously and unconsciously present in all the acts, conduct, and life of the child. She must put herself in open, frank, dignified, simple, honest relations to this little social world. To do so it will call from her often her best thought, her best intuition, and highest endeavours. She must be sincere, honest, conscientious, and appeal to the simple, natural and pure in child life. In this spirit she cannot fail to enter their social life as a whole, and once in she is mistress, is leader. In this spirit she will be able to make confidential relations with a single child, and draw from him impressions, feelings, thoughts, and facts about himself and others. This should be done in a quiet way, avoiding all appearances of pumping the child or wishing him to inform on his fellows. It tactfully used the wise teacher will at odd times be able to draw information from those little heads that will surprise her, and that she may never get otherwise. Such information may not all be scientific, but it will contain much truth.

3. *Study children by close personal association in work and teaching.*—Let

the teacher put herself in congenial sympathy with the spirit, thoughts, and feelings of her class or school as a whole. In this subtle psychic relation she can influence in a remarkable manner the social, moral, and mental life of her children; and through her instincts and emotions interpret and understand those subtle forces constantly playing in the child's mind and life. This close relation is all-important in true teaching, and there comes to the teacher spontaneously a clear and subtle knowledge of the child soul, that can be gained in no other way. It is this knowledge that enables the teacher to do unconscious and intuitive teaching, the highest kind of teaching; and that can no more be analyzed and done by rule than laughing, smiling, frowning, etc. It is a natural, soulful process and is intuitive in character. In such a close and beautiful relation, the teacher learns to understand the child socially, morally, and mentally and measure his mental life and activity. In a word, she gets the dynamic effect or strength of his mind and its rapidity of action in contrast with those of his fellows. This true teaching is informal, intuitive, largely unconscious and the amount of genuine pleasure it gives both teacher and pupil is its highest test. In no other way than in true teaching can this subtle and intuitive knowledge of the child's mind be gained. It cannot be gained from any process of analysis, synthesis, or introspection. Contact of living mind with mind alone gives it.

4. *Observe children systematically, with blanks and records.*—I believe the great Frœbel was the first to suggest such a study of children; and as far as I know Dr. G. Stanley Hall in this country is the originator of the idea of studying children systematically on blanks in the kindergarten school, normal school, and training

college. It is so simple and so practical the wonder is it was not thought of years ago when the systematic study of botany, zoology, and physical science were begun in colleges and universities. Every scientific man will concede the value of such study in the sciences as a means of gaining knowledge first hand and as a discipline. In fact it is universally considered the method to be used at first in the study of all science; the only one that brings the student in contact with nature, where he gets his facts at first hand, and thus keeps the science in a growing, progressive condition. And if important in the study of plant and the lower animal life, how much more important in the study of child life where the changes and manipulations, in both the outer and inner life, are a thousand fold greater and richer than in these lower forms.

In this systematic study of the child's unfolding life, almost everything depends upon the observer and the condition under which the observation is made, as well as the use to which the facts are put and the general conclusions drawn from them. For an observation to be of special value it must be accurately made and recorded, unconscious to the child observed, and the facts carefully studied in relation to the conditions, and the conclusions wisely drawn. In fact, there is no phenomena so difficult to interpret as human conduct, where there is a crossing of hereditary tendencies, and where the forces of environment and education and human motives all come in play.

The blank to be used is important. Care should be taken not to make it too complicated. I have before me one which I have designed for use in the kindergarten and school. The general heading is, "The Study of Children and Psychology of Child-

hood." The first set of conditions to be recorded, and all of which it will be seen at a glance are important, are: "The date, name of child observed, age, sex, nationality, name of the observer, occupation of observer, and relation to the child." Then in the body of the blank the following general headings, with ample spaces for writing, are found: "Record of Observation," "Power Exercised," "Observation, on Child's Heredity, Environment, and Condition," "Remarks and Conclusion." Now I have these blanks printed on paper of legal cap size, and in three different colours. One colour, say white, is for "Original Observation," and so printed at the top; another, say pink, for "Remembered Observations;" and the third, say purple, for "Reported and Gleaned Observations." This classifies the entire field of observations on children. After the observations are made, the greatest good to be derived is to study and compare them in committee or class, as the case may be, and make records and draw general conclusions from them as guides in teaching. Every normal school and training college should make such a study of children, and every kindergarten and teacher should make at least one observation a day on her pupils. In observing a single child for a period, the best results will be secured by observing as many of her powers and mental manifestations as possible. In observing a class or school, better results will be secured by taking some one power for a period, say sight; than hearing; then memory, etc.

5. *Compare your systematic study with the studies of others recorded in literature.*—Once interested in the study of the child mind, a teacher will not stop with her own observations. She will be anxious to compare her results with those of other teachers, and especially desirous of

comparing her observations with the leading thinkers as recorded in their writings. This will open up to her a fellowship with great minds in this most attractive field of study, and bring to her a new mental life, as well as a new philosophy. Such a book as Preyer's *Child Mind* will have a new charm and a new meaning for her. No man and no woman can

thus enter into the study of the child soul in all its simplicity, in all its purity, in all its freshness and naturalness, but who will be made purer in heart, nobler in thought and feeling and more human and God-like in action. The gospel of childhood is the purest, the sweetest, and the most uplifting of all religions.—*The School Journal.*

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN STATE SCHOOLS.

THE following extract is made from an article in the *Educational Review*, New York :

The atmosphere of religion is the natural medium for the development of character. If we appeal to the sense of duty, we assume belief in God and in the freedom of the will ; if we strive to awaken enthusiasm for the human brotherhood, we imply a divine fatherhood. Accordingly as we accept or reject the doctrines of religion, the sphere of moral action, the nature of the distinction between right and wrong, and the motives of conduct, all change. In the purely secular school only secular morality may be taught, and whatever our opinion of this system of ethics may otherwise be, it is manifestly deficient in the power which appeals to the heart and the conscience. The child lives in a world which imagination creates, where faith, hope, and love beacon to realms of beauty and delight. The spiritual and moral truths which are to become the very life-breath of his soul, he apprehends mystically, not logically. Heaven lies about him ; he lives in wonderland, and feels the thrill of awe as naturally as he looks with wide-open eyes. Do not seek to persuade him by telling him that honesty is the best policy, that poverty overtakes the

drunkard, that lechery breeds disease, that to act for the common welfare is the surest way to get what is good for one's self—for such teaching will not only leave him unimpressed, but it will seem to him profane and almost immoral. He wants to feel that he is the child of God, of the infinitely good and all-wonderful ; that in his father, divine wisdom and strength are revealed, in his mother, divine tenderness and love. He so believes and trusts in God that it is our fault if he knows that men can be base. In nothing does the godlike character of Christ show forth more beautifully than in His reverence for children. Shall we profess to believe in Him and yet forbid His name to be spoken in the houses where we seek to train the little ones whom He loved ? Shall we shut out Him whose example has done more to humanize, ennoble, and uplift the race of man than all the teachings of the philosophers and all the disquisitions of the moralists ? If the thinkers, from Plato and Aristotle to Kant and Pestalozzi, who have dealt with the problems of education have held that virtue is its chief aim and end, shall we thrust from the school the one ideal character, who, for nearly nineteen hundred years, has been the chief inspiration to righteousness and heroism ; to

whose words patriots and reformers have appealed in their struggles for liberty and right, to whose example philanthropists have looked in their labours to alleviate suffering, to whose teaching the modern age owes its faith in the brotherhood of men, by whose courage and sympathy the world has been made conscious that man and woman as individuals have equal rights and should have equal opportunities? We all, and especially the young, are influenced by example more than by precepts and maxims, and it is unjust and unreasonable to exclude from the school-room the living presence of the noblest and best men and women, of those whose words and deeds have created our Christian civilization. In the example of their lives we have truth and justice, goodness and greatness in concrete form; and the young who are brought into contact with these centres of influence will be filled with admiration and enthusiasm, they will be made gentle and reverent, and they will learn to realize the ever-fresh charm and force of personal purity. Teachers who have no moral criteria, no ideals, no counsels of perfection, no devotion to God and godlike men, cannot educate, if the proper meaning of education is the complete unfolding of all man's powers.

The school, of course, is but one of the many agencies by which education is given. We are under the influence of our whole environment—physical, moral, and intellectual; political, social, and religious—and if, in all this, aught were different, we ourselves should be other. The family

is a school and the church is a school, and current American opinion assigns to them the business of moral and religious education. But this implies that conduct and character are of secondary importance; it supposes that the child may be made subject to opposite influences at home and in the school, and not thereby have his finer sense of reverence, truth, and goodness deadened. The subduing of the lower nature, of the outward to the inner man, is a thing so arduous that reason, religion, and law combined often fail to accomplish it. If one should propose to do away with schools altogether and to leave education to the family and the Church, he would be justly considered ridiculous, because the carelessness of parents and the inability of the ministry of the Church would involve the prevalence of illiteracy. Now, to leave moral and religious education to the family and the Churches involves, for similar reasons, the prevalence of indifference, sin, and crime. If illiteracy is a menace to free institutions, vice and irreligion are a greater menace. The corrupt are always bad citizens; the ignorant are not necessarily so. Parents who would not have their children taught to read and write, were there no free schools, will as a rule neglect their religious and moral education. In giving religious instruction to the young the Churches are plainly at a disadvantage, for they have the child but an hour or two in seven days, and they get into their Sunday classes only the children of the more devout.

“LET us beware of the unaccountable mania for neutrality, which will end in destroying in every quarter the idea of right and wrong.” —*Saint-Marc Girardin.*

“A MAN excels, not by resembling more or less every one else, but by realizing the best of which he is capable.”

Saint-Marc Girardin.

SOME USES OF VISIBLE ILLUSTRATIONS.

BY REV. T. W. SHARPE, M.A.

MY object is to impress the value of visible illustrations. When we endeavour to illustrate by verbal explanation the comparative magnitudes of quantities, or the relative values of ideas, or the primary and derivative meanings of words or phrases, we should avail ourselves more frequently than we do of subsidiary illustrations than appeal to some one of the senses—we should encourage a sort of shorthand, or direct appeal to thought apart from words.

It is difficult to overrate, especially with very young scholars, the subsidiary value of such diagrams and pictures. Of course, we all acknowledge the necessity of building all scientific knowledge upon real observation of nature as the only true foundation; and a cultivated habit of observation is, happily, one of the chief ends of our object-lessons in all classes of schools. But this same cultivated habit of observation has a subsidiary purpose in enabling us to bring home to our scholars, by the help especially of the eye, truths that are only half appreciated at first by merely verbal explanation, however lucid the reasoning, and however well chosen the language.

The quiet harvest of the eye is a thing hardly known in this rapidly moving age; quiet contemplation, and the subsequent ingathering of the mind's conclusions, have given place largely to the lecture, which, however valuable as an introduction, should be rather a guide to the voluntary effort of the learner, than the constant companion of the thoughts of a class, which move at very different rates. Indeed, I scarcely can see

how a good habit of observation can be formed, unless a larger amount of silent lessons and of quiet preparation is allowed than is at present possible under the high pressure of the examination craze.

Let me give an illustration of my meaning from a very humble lesson gathered only a short time ago in an infant school. A very pretty game which is intended to cultivate the observation of young children is played by forming a ring; the scholars are told to observe the members of the ring, and then to close their eyes; one of them is then taken away, while the song goes on; when they open their eyes, they are called upon to name the missing member. Now this is only possible for very young scholars if the number is sufficiently small for their limited powers of observation; but it is generally played with so large a number that they have very little chance of detecting the missing scholar, and a very valuable means of exercising their power of observation degenerates into a mechanical piece of guess-work.

The same mistake often occurs in the performance of chemical or electrical experiments. Unless the surrounding circumstances be sufficiently few, the eye, embarrassed by the number of distractions, often fails to catch the very main point of the experiment, and I have often felt inclined to say to a lecturer, Warn me beforehand what I am to see; whereas, if my eye were better trained, a cultivated habit of observation would not need such a warning.

The cultivation of the powers of sight and hearing demands from all of

us much more thought and care than they have hitherto obtained. The expectancy that we notice in the faces of the blind, and the introspective patience of deaf mutes, tell us how much more they gather from the senses they share in common with us; the lighting up of their faces, when information for the sense they possess reaches them, outruns considerably the slower sense-movement of those who possess more senses than they do.

Professor Fawcett, one of the bravest, kindest, happiest of all blind men, after enumerating all the possible ameliorations that the resources of civilization have brought to the blind, could not help adding, at the end of a speech he once delivered on behalf of his fellow-sufferers—"Yet, after all, it is very hard to bear." It shames us to think how little we cultivate the sense which brings most pleasure, and is of the greatest help in learning.

I was once walking in the grounds of the Royal Normal College for the Blind at Norwood, with its brave and cheery Principal, and I expressed my wonder that he knew beforehand whenever he was approaching a flight of steps, any one of which might have been dangerous to a blind man. "How little you sighted people see!" was his answer. "If you had been taught to use your eyes properly, you would have detected with your eyes what I can always detect by my feet, through my sense of touch"—the slight rise in the asphalt pavement which warned him of the approaching danger.

Some years ago the editor of the *Journal of Education* tested the power of observation of a great number of persons (myself included) with a printer's proof, full of errors of the press, misspellings, wrong type, bad punctuation, and we most of us failed to come up to a reasonably good standard of observation.

As to the extent to which our power of sight may be cultivated, I remember when a boy hearing the famous conjurer of the day stating how he had improved his own eyesight and that of his son by a competitive examination, after passing a shop at ordinary walking pace, as to which of the two had noticed the greatest number of articles. I advise every one to test this method of cultivation of the sight for themselves, and they will very soon see how rapidly the power grows.

Nor is it only in the rapid power of noticing, but in the seeing a thing correctly, that we are so deficient; we do not see what we think we see. Berkeley taught us long ago that, when we think we see a solid tree, we really see only a projection of the tree on a plane, and we read into what we see all that comes from our sense of touch, which has taught us that there is some distance between the different sides of the tree.

It is not only in the form of objects that we are greatly mistaken, but in the relative values of colours that we English people make still such terrible failures in our manufactured articles. In the first great International Exhibition of 1851 there was a chamber of horrors, containing a great number of monstrosities of wall-papers, carpets and curtains, all of which erred in form and colour against some of the simplest canons of taste. Any one who has watched an artist begin a sketch is astonished at the exaggerated colour of the object which gives its value to the rest; whereas, as the picture grows the relative value of the first to the other colours takes away all the glaring discord. So also in music, a skilful musician can produce harmony out of chords that in themselves form a discord, by the relational value of the chords that precede or follow it. The eye is certainly more cultivated than the ear; we can all of

us criticize pictures more readily than we can music—not merely that we understand, perhaps, the technique of one better than of the other, but great painters seem to agree that the verdict of a cultivated public is generally just as regards the purpose of a picture, whether of a higher or lower character. And we have lately learnt our lesson, that without cultivation of the eye by good drawing, technical instruction would be comparatively worthless. The use of tools for

manual teaching has often been advocated in England, and it has only lately “caught on” because it was not appreciated for many years that the English artisan must follow the example of his foreign competitor, and be able to draw, in correct plan, elevation, and section, the object he is proposing to himself to construct. The teachers of Sloyd can give us many stories of the inability of a fairly cultivated eye to detect what to them is a gross blunder of form.—*Ed. Times.*

PRACTICE-TEACHING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

A PRACTICE school is to a normal school what a hospital is to a medical school. It is a place for verifying and illustrating principles. It is an opportunity to reduce theory to practice. The theoretical side of education is never fully understood till it is supplemented by the practical side. Beginners in education, like beginners everywhere else, need to see the truth at first in the concrete. A principle of teaching or of discipline has a new meaning when seen in its application. Then, too, the novice never knows what children really are, till he sees live children in action. The sympathy of numbers, the contagion of intellectual activity, the power of example, the force of public opinion, these and similar factors in a working school must be learned in the school itself. The reciprocal influence of speech and action upon pupil and teacher are manifested only in the school. Power and skill in teaching and governing are developed by teaching and governing. Hence the need of opportunity to practice. Of course, practice can follow the theoretical instruction of the normal school, but the development of skill is more rapid if practice is done under the direction of experts. The acquisition of skill

is less expensive to the children if skill is gained in the practice school. Here blunders are detected at once by the practice teachers, and they may be at once avoided. When the young teacher begins work on his own account, he has no eyes but his own with which to observe himself, and so it happens that many of his worst faults remain undetected and uncorrected for years. As a result of nineteen years' experience in a city normal school and a training school attached, I have arrived at the following conclusions as to the proper organization of a practice department under the conditions by which I am surrounded: (1) The arrangement of classes in the practice school should be the same as it is for the grammar and primary schools of the city where it is located; and, if there are public kindergartens in the city, the practice school should include at least one kindergarten class. This will give the normal students an opportunity to observe all grades of elementary instruction. (2) The course of study should be the same as in the other elementary schools of the city. Some liberty of variation for the sake of experiment should be allowed in the practice school; but in the main the work should be such as

the normal pupils will be required to do when they come to have schools of their own. (3) The teaching force in the practice school should be the same as in other schools of corresponding grades. There should be a principal who is held responsible for the discipline and advancement of the pupils, and at least as many assistants as would be found in other schools of similar grades. The teaching should not be left to the normal pupils exclusively. There must be much teaching by novices, so the children should be protected and guided by a full corps of the best of teachers. (4) The principal of the normal school should have the direction of the observation and practice of the normal pupils, as well as of the methods of instruction employed in the practice school. This is essential to securing harmony of theory and practice in the training of the normal students. Of course the principal of the practice school must be in harmony with the head of the normal school in all important points; but whenever the two disagree, the principal of the normal school must direct the work of the practice school. (5) The teachers in the normal school should perform such service in the practice school as the principal of the normal school may direct. It is important that teachers of theory should be required, at times, to reduce their theories to practice. Then, too, the best way of directing methods is

often by example. (6) The practice school, thus organized, should be used at first as a school of observation. Whenever the methods of teaching any subject, reading for example, are under consideration in the normal school, the normal pupils should be taken to the practice school for a practical demonstration of what they are studying. While this work of observation is going on, the normal pupils should be required to teach their classmates enough to give them some idea of the orderly presentation of subjects, and of the proper sequence of questions in teaching. (7) Later on, the normal students should be required to take charge of the classes in the practice school. This, for a long time, should be done under the immediate direction, supervision, and criticism of the teachers of the practice school. The practice teachers should be responsible for the proper planning and preparation of lessons to be given by the normal student, as well as for the general order of the classes. They should freely criticize, advise, and encourage. Practice work by the normal pupils should be so arranged that only one normal student will be in a room at a time; and she should remain for several successive weeks. Thus no more normal pupils can be trained in the practice school at the same time than there are classes in the practice school.—*Larkin Dunton, in the Educational Review for October.*

DIVINE APPROVAL OF FAMILY AND STATE.

AS nothing in the perfect life of the Son of man was accidental, so His presence at the marriage in Cana had its purpose and its significance. He seems to have gone often to the feasts of His people. From His parables we infer that feasting was a side of their social life that met His hearty approval. He saw in it, more than

in their life generally, an anticipation of that kingdom whose spirit of joyfulness He came to establish in the fellowships of men. So the kingdom is like a feast, like a marriage feast a king made for his son, and the like. The self forgetfulness and the hearty joyfulness of a true feast, and especially the fact that it is a scene of giving

without equivalent, not of earning or of buying, seem to have made Him love those simple and cheerful gatherings with which the people of the East broke the dulness of life.

The funeral of that day had no such proof of His approval as the wedding. The funeral at Nain He met as He entered the city. That of Jairus' daughter He attended to turn the mourners into the street; and in both these cases He turned sorrow into joy. From that of His friend Lazarus He stayed away, just as He required of the new disciple that he should not go to his own father's funeral. The faithless hopelessness of the funerals of His time; the despair of a reunion in the life beyond, of which Sadduceeism was the intellectual expression; and the unrestrained lamentation of the relatives, and even of hired mourners,—must have been repellant to Him. "Let the dead bury their dead" is His comment on it all. "Sorrow not as others, even as those who have no hope," is the Apostle's interpretation of our Lord's attitude.

Cana is the only marriage feast expressly mentioned as blessed with Jesus' presence. But there must have been others, at least in the years before His public ministry. It was especially fitting that He should honour a wedding in this way. No feature of social life has been more depreciated in His name than marriage. Those who hold up His literal example as the supreme rule of Christian living have taught that marriage is a lower and less perfect state than celibacy. It would almost seem as though He had such a perversion of His example in view, when He took the little company of His six disciples with Him to Cana, and wrought there the first sign of the kingdom. The mighty power elsewhere reserved to meet the needs of suffering men is here put forth that the feast may go

on with joy, and to the credit and comfort of the household whose son was entering upon his new life. In His view the occasion must have been one of supreme significance, and worthy of such a display. His act was a "sign" of the kingdom, a token that the new order of human society would accept the world-old institutions of man's social life, but would fill their feasts with a fulness of gladness and rejoicing which only a superhuman power could achieve for them. And the prophecy that lay in the act has been fulfilled in the social life of His people. Marriage has grown to be a more gracious bond, a more helpful fellowship, than the world had ever known. Family life has risen to a level of purity, tenderness, and mutual love, to which there is no parallel outside of Christendom. The Lord's presence has been in our Canas, and His spirit has moulded the lives of the households which confess His name.

As the family, so of the state. The Christian nation is a new creation in the spirit of Christ, and differs in principle from any other form of political life. A tenderer conscience of the rights of others, a more careful guardianship of the weaker and poorer members of society, a deeper sense of the brotherhood in which God has bound the nation,—these are the fruits "for the healing of the nations" which have grown on the trees planted in the new Jerusalem. With them have come at once a greater power to assimilate all the good of the world's history, and a more lasting historic vitality. It is only within the nations of Christendom that Greek art and Roman law equally with Hebrew religion have become the heritage of mankind. Only the Christian nations have shown the power to recover from their own sins and mistakes by a social regeneration. Our motherland stands more full of youth and hope

on the threshold of her second millennium than she did with Alfred at the opening of the first. In ancient history, nations go headlong to their ruin when once they have taken a step on the downward way. To Christian nations, as to individuals, the mercies of recall and renewal are extended.

As the return of the American nation's birthday reminds us of the mercies of the past, we may at times have the hopes of the future overclouded by a sense of the faults of the present. The Christian nation's

hope is in God. He created it; He has protected it; He will deliver it. It is no mere human contrivance for a finite end. It is part of that great order of human life in which family and church stand beside it,—an order created to show forth the divine glory in the highest welfare of men. The true Christian never turns from his public relations as matters of merely secular and earthly character. They are part of his relations to the divine kingdom, and responsibilities entrusted to him by his God.—*Sunday School Times.*

GEOGRAPHY.

THE discovery of new deposits of anthracite coal in the Province of Alberta, comprising a portion of what was formerly known as the Northwest Territory of the Dominion of Canada, will prove, if the reports are correct, highly important not only to Manitoba and British Columbia, but also to the Pacific Coast States of this country, there being no import duty on anthracite coal. It is said that large seams of this coal have been found along the Red Deer River, 40 miles north of Banff. Hitherto, it has been supposed that the only anthracite coal in Canada was at Anthracite, near Banff, from which place the present supply for the western part of the Dominion is taken.—*Engineering and Mining Journal, U.S.*

SOME GENERAL HINTS ON THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY.—1. Rely on maps and outlines, not on the text-book. 2. Assign the lesson by topics, never by pages. 3. Encourage pupils to ask questions and furnish examples within their own experience

of the subject under consideration. 4. Let each pupil give in his own language all the information he has secured on the subject. 5. At the close of a recitation have the pupils tell what has been brought out during the lesson. 6. Emphasize all new facts and connect them with the subject of the lesson. 7. Insist that each pupil keep a note-book. 8. Talk as little during the lesson as possible; let the subject be unfolded and developed by the pupils. 9. Make your questions and answers as you would in conversation; eschew the lecture style of teaching. 10. Have plenty of reference books, use them freely, and encourage your pupils to consult them. 11. Hold this always before your mind—you are to teach your pupils to study a country in the light of its advantages as an abode for man. 12. Begin every lesson with a review of the preceding lesson. Frequently have this review a written exercise. 13. Have progressive maps made, to be filled in as the lessons proceed. 14. Encourage individual work; assign subjects to different

pupils to be reported on at the next lesson. 15. Strive to inculcate in the minds of your pupils a glowing pride in their own country.—*Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine.*

ALUMINUM DEVELOPMENTS.—

Aluminum was known to the Romans as "alumen," and was used for dyeing salts, and in the eighth century of the Christian era was made in Egypt and Asia Minor into "rock alum." In 1758, Macquer stated: "The earth of alum is white, infusible, and, since it changes colour on being heated, I suspect it has some sort of relation with the metallic earths." The first attempt to isolate aluminum was made in 1760; it was a failure. In 1782 a success was made in fusing

aluminum in a charcoal fire fed by oxygen. In 1790 metallic particles were produced, and an analysis obtained without determining the metallization of the clay used. In 1807 Sir Humphrey Davy made experiments to reduce alumina, but failed to secure a pure deposit. In 1802 a success was made by Dr. Hare, of Philadelphia, in fusing the evasive metal into a milk-white enamel. In 1827 a German chemist reached the first solution of the aluminum problem, and obtained a grey metallic powder, but failed to concentrate it in order to obtain its metallic proportions. In 1854 success was made in concentrating the metal, and separating it from platinum and sodium, and producing the metal approximately pure.—*St. Louis Age of Steel.*

PUBLIC OPINION.

THE HON. G. J. GOSCHEN, recalling the memories of his old Head Master at Rugby, writes: "I think that of Dr. Tait it may be truly said that he had energy without passion, earnestness without bigotry, and authority without imperiousness. May the memory of his ripe wisdom, of his great patience, and of his great good humour, long survive his death."

THE necessity of "toning down" American children is not half enough considered or appreciated by American teachers. The self assertiveness that surrounds our children, like an atmosphere, is a blemish that may not be perceived because it is seen through eyes that are blurred with the same quality of mistiness. Dr. Channing, in addressing the recent American Social Science Convention

at Saratoga, gave as his opinion that American children have "become unduly egotistic in our times and are so full of egotism that educational influences are often insufficient to overcome or even sensibly modify it." The doctor is right. Modest, unassuming Americanism is a contradiction in its very phraseology. The American boy who will not wear his cap, or whistle, or give a yell, in the presence of older people, and in places calling for quiet deference, is an exception—and a rare one at that.—*New York School Journal.*

"THERE are no native American artisans," says the *Chicago Herald*, and "the first cause is the organic defect of American primary grade schooling." There are few native American artisans and the first cause

is the keeping of young men in school beyond the age when boys should be put to a trade if they are to become skilled artisans. There is nothing to be taught in the primary grade schools in the way of preparation for trade-work that cannot be taught much better under the apprentice system. The average native American young man is educated up to a point that disqualifies him for successful trade-work, and he either goes into some thing very much better or into book-keeping and the like. On the whole, he does fairly well as it is, but there is no doubt that sometimes he would have done better if he had acquired a good trade. The idea that manual training in the schools should look to the making of artisans and should have a prominent place in the schools because of that, is open to criticism. If a boy is to be an artisan he should be put to a trade as soon as he has acquired a fair amount of elementary knowledge. This should include instruction as to the use of eyes and hands, but skill he will get with his trade. The manual training in school should be established and sustained because of its general educational

value. It is just as important to children who are not to be artisans as to those who are to be put to a trade, and perhaps more important. It not only develops the power of accurate observation, but it is a profitable break in the purely intellectual work of the school. It is urged that under the trade union tyranny the number of apprentices is limited, and it is difficult, in many cases impossible, to give the boy a chance at a trade. The remedy for this is not to crowd out instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic and history for manual training, but to establish trade schools on a larger scale. A beginning has been made in New York, where hundreds of boys go from the schools at the age of sixteen to learn trades in a practical way, their work actually paying for the support of the school and soon for their own support. Manual training in the schools is a help, but it is clear that it cannot be carried far enough in the lower grades to make a journeyman trade-worker and therefore it cannot correct the fault of the limited apprentice system. — *The Milwaukee Sentinel.*

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

UNIFORMITY is what I dread. Secondary education in many Continental countries is much too rigidly organized. I regard variety of treatment and independence of action on the part of teachers and school managers as most important. — *Dr. Fitch.*

OYSTERS frequently reach a great age. The ridges of water lines on the shell indicate the number of years until they get beyond forty; then the lines are wider and indicate a period of ten

years. An oyster eighty-six years old was caught in Delaware Bay four years ago. — *Australian Schoolmaster.*

OIL FOR FUEL FOR STEAMSHIPS AND LOCOMOTIVES.—Oil is growing in favour as fuel. A given weight of petroleum will produce nearly twice as much steam as the same weight of coal. It must also be noted that a ton of coal occupies about one-eighth more space than a ton of oil residuals. The use of oil, therefore, means the

doubling of the ship's fuel supply. Then the engineer can get steam as he pleases without depending on firemen. Petroleum residuum does not ignite below 350 degrees, and hence is safe to carry and use. Two competitive locomotives were run for five months on the Oroya Railroad in Peru, pulling equal trains alternately over the same ground, and being exactly alike except that one used coal and the other oil for fuel. The consumption of oil per mile was 38 55 pounds; that of coal was 79.3 pounds. As a result, that railroad and one other are using oil for fuel.—*School Journal*, N. Y.

If Mr. Ruskin had not made a name in literature he might have attained to eminence in hydraulic engineering. At any rate it is said that on one occasion, at least, he displayed

remarkable skill in that direction. The inhabitants of Filking, a little village in Sussex, not far from Brighton, had for a long time great difficulty in obtaining an adequate supply of drinking water. All sorts of expedients were adopted, but one after another proved a failure. The villagers at length determined to consult Mr. Ruskin, who was occasionally in the habit of visiting the place. The request was a strange one, but Mr. Ruskin began to think what could be done, and in the end devised a scheme which has given Filking as much water as it can ever hope to consume. The people have not been slow to show their gratitude for the boon thus conferred upon them, and near the well which gives the inhabitants a constant supply they have erected a beautiful marble memorial, bearing a suitable inscription.—*The Publishers' Circular*.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

EXAMINATIONS.

THE examination conducted last July under the joint authority of the Senate of the University of Toronto and the Education Department of Ontario marks a new departure in our annual examinations. It was an attempt by various expedients to provide a workable plan for holding the junior matriculation examination and the examinations for obtaining teachers' certificates of different grades on the same papers and at the same time.

Many hold that the aim of the matriculant and that of the teacher are so different that, in the nature of the case, no one examination can be devised to answer the purpose of both candidates. All educationists recognize the difficulty of the question. All attempts, so far

as tried, have given unsatisfactory results. Last July saw another attempt under different conditions. It is now possible to obtain a second class certificate and matriculate into any of our Canadian Universities on the same examination papers. By this means, and by the arrangement of the programme of studies in our Secondary Schools, the attention of teachers and pupils has been strongly directed towards college studies. All will agree, we think, that members of the learned professions should take advantage of a good course in arts. Whether such a course should be solely composed of "Bread and Butter" subjects or no, we have no desire at present to discuss.

That ministers, teachers, doctors and lawyers should all be well versed in college and university studies admits of no discussion. Still while

writing thus strongly we do not forget that many attend college who are not educated at all, and many are well educated who never attended a single lecture in college or university. There were some mistakes committed in the conduct of the examinations last midsummer which we hope will not be repeated, and which by the exercise of a little forethought can easily be avoided. Ample notice should be given of time and place of holding the pass, honour and scholarship examinations. In the future the short and inadequate notice of 1891 should never be repeated.

In giving these results to the public a totally different method from that of last summer should be adopted. Part of the candidates the Education office is specially concerned with; the results of their examination should be forwarded to the Minister of Education. The other part of the candidates the Senate is specially interested in and the results of their examination should immediately be forwarded to the proper officer of the Senate.

Then let the Education Department and the Senate deal with their respective candidates after the mode which experience has shown to be best. We should remember the admonition "Knowledge comes, wisdom lingers."

We have no desire to criticize adversely some of the examination papers. Mr. Libby in our last issue has dealt

pretty fully with the English papers; profit should come to both examiners and candidates from such thoughtful and friendly notices. We take the liberty of adding that there must have been some peculiarity in the manner of reading the Rhetoric papers of primary candidates. We infer this from the remarks we have heard made on the low standing given to the said candidates by the examiners. These errors in details may be removed, but after all is done the crux of the question remains. The papers upon the whole were better than for some years past, but much remains to be done before we have such examination papers as we ought to have at our annual examinations.

A BALLAD OF THE TREES AND THE MASTER.

Into the woods my Master went
 Clean, forspent, forspent.
 Into the woods my Master came
 Forspent with love and shame.
 But the olives they were not blind to Him,
 The little grey leaves were kind to Him;
 The thorn-tree had a mind to Him
 When into the woods He came.

Out of the woods my Master went,
 And He was well content.
 Out of the woods my Master came,
 Content with death and shame.
 When Death and Shame would woo Him
 last,
 From under the trees they drew Him last
 'Twas on a tree they slew Him—last
 When out of the woods He came
 —SIDNEY LANIER.

"THE greatness of a country depends on the right employment of its activities and forces. But when each year of teaching brings you its legion of certificated capacities—in other words, of ambitions more or less vain—what will you do with them? and what society are you preparing by this universal secondary teaching and this chimæra of equal instruction?"

—Saint Marc Girardin.

THE town hez gut
 A high-school where they teach the Lord
 knows wut;
 Three-story larnin's pop'lar now; I guess
 We thriv' ez wal on jes' two stories less,
 For it strikes me there's such a thing ez
 sinnin'
 By overloadin' children's underpennin'.

—Lowell, *Biglow Papers*,
 Second Series, No. 6.

SCHOOL WORK.

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1891.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

Primary.

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

NOTE.—Only 9 questions in all are to be answered by any candidate: namely, section A, two questions from section B, three questions from section C, and three questions from section D.

A.

1. Give an account of The Constitution and Government of Canada, and show the relations of the Provinces to the Federal Authority and of the Federal Authority to the Home Government, stating definitely the distribution of legislative powers as between the Provinces and the Dominion.

B.

2. Give an account of the passage of The British North America Act, and of the difficulties of which it was intended to be the solution, and of the advantages hoped to be gained from it.

3. Give an account of The Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, and of its effects upon trade between Canada and the United States during the period of its continuance. When and how was the treaty terminated?

4. Give an account of the Montreal Riots of 1849, stating the causes that led to them. What result followed the Riots?

5. Give short accounts of:

(a) The Washington Treaty of 1871.

(b) The Seigniorial Tenure Act.

(c) The Secularization of the Clergy Reserves.

(d) The Ashburton Treaty.

6. Give an account of the passing of The Act of Union of 1841, describing (a) the causes that led to it; (b) its provisions; (c) its effects.

C.

7. Give an account of some of the more important scientific inventions and discoveries which characterize the nineteenth century.

8. State briefly the arguments that were used for and against The Repeal of the Corn Laws (1846). Give an account of the Repeal Agitation and of its results.

9. Give an account of the last war with Napoleon Bonaparte, stating briefly its causes and its results.

10. Describe the causes, progress and results of the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), in so far as American affairs were concerned.

D.

11. Describe the Trade-Winds, giving their localities and their general directions. Describe fully their causes and the causes of their constancy. Give a similar description of the Return Trade Winds.

12. Describe and account for the relation between Vegetation and Climate. Describe in a general way the various Zones of Vegetation into which the earth's surface has been divided.

13. Describe generally the *surface* Physical Features of Canada.

14. Enumerate particularly the various natural resources of the several Provinces of the Dominion, stating as nearly as possible where these are found. Also state in a general way to what extent these natural resources have been already utilized in our industries and trade.

15. Give the geographical position and historical significance of (a) Ridgeway; (b) Kingston; (c) Navy Island; (d) Lundy's Lane; (e) Chateaugay; (f) Moravian Town; (g) Amherstburg; (h) Newark (Niagara); (i) Isle of Orleans; (j) Louisburg.

16. Give an account of Jamaica, its position, physical features, climate, natural resources, commercial products, government and population.

Junior Leaving and Pass Matriculation.

NOTE.—Only 9 questions in all are to be answered by any candidate, namely, section A, 5 questions from section B, 2 from section C and 1 from section D. The two questions marked with an asterisk are for candidates

for the Junior Leaving Examination only, and both the questions must be taken by these candidates.

A.

1. Describe the grievances and complaints of the people of Canada which led to the Constitutional Act of 1791. Describe the provisions of this Act and the hopes of those who promoted it; and show wherein the Act was successful in allaying the discontents of the people and wherein it was not successful.

B.

2. Describe graphically the conflict at Ligny, Quatre Bras and Waterloo.

3. Describe the policy of William Pitt towards Ireland. How far was he successful in carrying out his policy, and in what respects did he fail? What were the causes of his failure and the results of it?

4. Sketch and contrast the respective attitudes of Burke and Pitt towards France during the progress of the French Revolution (1789-1793). State and account for Pitt's final attitude towards the French Government of that time.

5. Give an account of the events in the earlier part of the reign of George III (1763-1792) which were concerned with the development of the freedom of the press and the increase of its influence.

* 6. Sketch the personal character and political career of the elder Pitt (Lord Chatham) stating particularly his efforts

(a) in upholding the honour of the empire abroad;

(b) in promoting the independence of parliament and parliamentary reform;

(c) in preventing the secession of the American Colonies. Mention any other notable efforts which Chatham made to promote the welfare of the kingdom and advance its honour.

7. Enumerate and describe the improvements and advancements made in the technical arts, manufactures, agriculture and commerce of Britain from 1750 to 1790.

8. Describe and account for the religious revival which characterized the middle of the 18th century. Mention some results of that

revival which extended beyond the immediate sphere of its action.

* 9. Give an account of Walpole as a Minister of Finance. What were the principles of his financial policy? How far was he able to carry his principles into effect and wherein did he fail? Describe the influence of his policy as Finance Minister and Premier upon the mercantile prosperity of the nation.

10. Describe the difficulties and obstacles that stood in the way of the union of England and Scotland in the reign of Queen Anne. How were these overcome or removed? What were the provisions of the Act of Union? What have been the practical advantages of the Union?

C.

11. Sketch briefly the political and military career of Julius Cæsar, accounting as far as you can for his success. Give your estimate of Cæsar's character and abilities; also of the influence of his career upon the history of the world.

12. Sketch the career of Philip of Macedon, and give some account of the resistance offered to his ambition by Demosthenes. Give your estimate of the influence of Philip's successes upon the development of political freedom in the ancient world.

13. Sketch the history of the Persian invasion under Xerxes (B.C., 480), describing more particularly the achievements of the Greeks at Thermopylæ and Salamis. Sketch briefly the military operations of the Persians and the Greeks during the next year (B.C., 479), and state your opinion as to the general influence of the invasion upon the subsequent history of the Grecian States.

D.

14. Describe generally the extent and boundaries of the British Possessions in North America:

(a) at the beginning of the Seven Years' War (1756);

(b) at the close of the War of American Independence (1783).

15. Describe briefly the position (using modern names) of the following:

(a) Gallia Transalpina. (b) Gallia Cisalpina. (c) Liguria. (d) Etruria. (e) Latium. (f) Samnium. (g) Apulia. (h) Asia (propria). (i) Cilicia. (j) Bithynia and Pontus. (k) Thracia. (l) Dacia. (m) Africa (propria). (n) Numidia. (o) Mauritania.

Senior Leaving and Honour Matriculation.

NOTE.—Only six questions in all are to be answered, namely: any five questions of section A, and either question of section B.

A.

1. Describe the relations and conduct towards England of William Prince of Orange, prior to the "Invitation."
2. Describe the Act of Uniformity of 1662, the conditions which made it possible, and the consequences that flowed from it.
3. Give some account of the development of physical science and natural philosophy during the 17th century.
4. Contrast the social and religious aspects which England presented before and after the Restoration.
5. Describe the "New Model." Give an account of its political opinions, and sketch briefly its political conduct from the battle of Naseby (1645) to the expulsion of the Forty Members ("Pride's Purge"—December, 1648).
6. Sketch the history of the Long Parliament from its first assemblage to the attempted arrest of the "Five Members."
7. Describe the means made use of by Charles I. to obtain revenues during the years 1629-1640. Illustrate your answer by references to particular acts.
8. (a) Describe the character of a typical puritan English gentleman in the reign of James I.
(b) Describe the influence of the translation of the Bible into English, upon the intellectual, social and moral life of the people.
9. Sketch the character of Elizabeth, illustrating it by reference to her acts as monarch of England.
10. Sketch the career of Thomas Cromwell, with special reference to (a) the power of the throne; (b) the status of the Church; (c) the status of Parliament.

11. Describe briefly the geographical position and historical significance of the following: [NOTE.—Any ten will be considered a full answer.]

(a) Sedgemoor. (b) Dover. (c) Freda. (d) Worcester. (e) Dunbar. (f) Wexford. (g) Drogheda. (h) Oxford (1642-1646). (i) Uxbridge. (j) Bristol (1643-1645). (k) Chalgrove Field. (l) Nottingham and Northampton (1642). (m) York (1640). (n) Berwick. (o) Rhé. (p) Kinsale (1601). (q) Zutphen. (r) Pinkie. (s) Flodden.

12. Give brief geographical accounts of the foreign territories acquired or lost by Britain during the period covered by this examination (1492-1688), and also brief historical accounts of the principal events connected with their acquisition or loss.

LATIN GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

Junior Leaving and Pass Matriculation, 1891.

Examiners: A. J. Bell, M.A., Ph.D.; William Dale, M.A.; John Fletcher, M.A.

NOTE.—Candidates will take sections A and B, and any five questions of section C.

A.

Translate into Latin:

1. He thought that the boy would die, but all the rest thought that he would live.
2. Don't you think that he ought to have forgotten how much they had injured him?
3. I asked him which of his friends was favoured by the king?
4. No one was so cruel as to wish them to be put to the sword.
5. I believe that the government ought to have ascertained the position of the enemy.

B.

6. Translate into Latin:

Elated with this victory he encamped that night upon the field (*locus*) of battle, intending upon the following day to go in pursuit of the enemy who had immediately withdrawn from the neighbourhood (*locus*). At dawn, accordingly, he began the march, but had not advanced far, before ambassadors

from the enemy made their appearance (*appareo*). Flinging themselves at his feet, they implored him with tears in their eyes (*fleo*) to spare their countrymen. They acknowledged that by the injuries they had inflicted upon him they had deserved death; that they hardly dared even to ask for peace. They begged that their offences (*maleficium*) might not prove their ruin (*perniciēs*).

C.

7. Write down the nom. sing. of *nautis*, *deabus*, *omine*, *ossis*, *muneri*, *plebi*, *pectore*, *noctis*, *virtute*, *multitudine*.

8. State the gender of nouns in question 7, giving the rule in each case.

9. Parse (giving the principal parts of verbs), *cadet*, *cædet*, *jaciere*, *det*, *ferret*, *quaeratur*, *queretur*, *verere*, *victus*, *vinctus*.

10. Give the principal parts of *veto*, *augeo*, *audeo*, *tego*, *texo*, *vendo*, *veneo*, *meto*, *jaceo*, *tollo*.

11. What verbs take *ut* with subjun. for the English infinitive?

Translate: They will never persuade you not to do it.

12. State the syntax of verbs of "tearing."

Translate: I was afraid that he was not likely to do you much good.

13. State the common forms for the negative imperative.

Translate: Do not lose such an opportunity.

14. What is a dependent question?

Translate: Have you told them the nature of the danger?

LATIN AUTHORS.

Junior Leaving and Pass Matriculation.

Examiners: A. J. Bell, M.A., Ph.D.; William Dale, M.A.; John Fletcher, M.A.

NOTE.—Candidates will take all the translations on the paper and any two of the questions in each of the sections A, B and C.

A.

Translate:

Ariovistus ad postulata . . . pulsas ac superatas esse.—Cæsar de Bello Gallico B I., c. 44.

1. Parse *transiēs*, *arcessitum*, *consuerint*, *oppugnandum* and *puisas*, giving the principal parts in each case.

2. Derive *obsides*, *stipendium*, *bellum*, *imponere* and *civitates*.

3. Rewrite in direct oration from *Transiēsse Rhenum* to *imponere consuerint*.

B.

Translate:

Cæsari omnia uno tempore . . . castris vetuerat.—Cæsar de Bel. Gal. II., 20.

4. Parse all the words in *aggeris petendi causa processerant arcessendi*.

5. Write explanatory notes on *vexillum*, *tuba signum*, *legio* and *legatos*.

6. Give an account of any one of the following events: (a) The defeat of the Helvetii. (b) The conference with Ariovistus. (c) The fate of the Aduatuci.

C.

Translate:

Attulit ipse . . . gurgite remos.—Virgil V., 201-209.

7. Scan the last two verses, marking the caesural pause in each.

8. Show the force of the prefixes in *subarguet*, *concussæ*, *obnixi*, *illisa*, and *expediunt*.

9. Account for the case of *viris*, *animi*, *spatior*, *clamore*, and *cuspidæ*.

D.

Translate the following, writing notes on the italicized words in each:

(a) *Una omnes fecere pedem, pariterque sinistros, Nunc dextros, solvere sinus; una ardua torquent Cornua detorquentque; ferunt sua flamina classem.*

(b) *Victori chlamydem auram, quam purissima circum Purpura Maeanstro duplici Meliboea cucurrit.*

(c) *et primus clamore secundo Hytaciadæ ante omnes exit locus Hippocoantis.*

E.

Translate at sight:

His tunc cognitissimis rebus amici regis, qui propter ætatem eius in curatione erant regni, sive timore adducti, ut postea prædicabant,

solicitato exercitu regio ne Pompeius Alexandriam Aegyptumque occuparet, sive despecta eius fortuna, ut plerumque in calamitate ex amicis inimici existunt, his, qui erant ab eo missi, palam liberaliter respondit et eumque ad regem venire iusserunt, ipsi clam consilio inito Achillam, praefectum regium, singulari hominem audacia, et L. Septimum, tribunum militum, ad interficiendum Pompeium miserunt. Ab his liberaliter ipse appellatus et quadam notitia Septimii productus, quod bello praedonum apud eum ordinem duxerat, naviculam parvulam descendit cum paucis suis: ibi ab Achilla et Septimio interficitur.

solicitare, to tamper with.

liberaliter, courteously.

notitia, knowledge.

praedo, a pirate.

ordinem ducere, to serve as centurion.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY OF GREECE.

PETER MCEACHERN, B.A.

Number in order the maps in the authorized text with the figures 1 and 2. Letter the spaces between the parallels of longitude from left to right with the capitals *A, B, C, . . .*, and the spaces between the parallels of latitude from top to bottom with the small letters *a, b, c, . . .*, in order. When these directions are followed the places marked on

the maps, which are mentioned in the first four chapters of the text, can be found without using an atlas by referring to the accompanying list:—

Achaia 1 C c	Kythera 1 D e
Aegina 1 E d	Krete 2 J f
Aegean 1 G c	Lampsakos 1 H a
Aeolia 1 H b	Lakonia 1 D e
Aetolia 1 C c	Lydia 1 H c
Amphibia 1 C c	Marathon 1 E c
Attika 1 E c	Megara 1 E c
Athens 1 E d	Messana 2 I f
Argos 1 D d	Messenia 1 C d
Arkadia 1 D d	Mykene 1 D d
Aulis 1 E c	Mitylene 1 H i
Boeotia 1 E c	Naxos 1 G d
Chalkis 1 E c	Parnassus 1 D c
Doris 1 D c	Peloponnesus 1 D d
Delphi 1 D c	Persia 2 O g
Elis 1 C d	Rhegium 2 I f
Eira Mt. 1 D d	Rhodes 2 K f
Eretria 1 E c	Salamis 1 E d
Euboea 1 E c	Sigeum 1 H b
Epirus 1 B b	Sparta 1 D d
Helos 1 D e	Stenyklaros 1 D d
Ionnia 1 H c	Targetos 1 D e
Iolkos 1 D b	Tarentum 2 I e
Ithome 1 D d	Thebes 1 E c
Kalydoni C c	Thessaly 1 D b
Kitheron Mts. 1 E c	Troezena 1 E d
Kolonos Mt. 1 E c	Troy 1 H b
Korinth 1 D d	Zankle 2 I f

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

THE illustrated articles in the October *Overland* are on the "Leland Stanford University" and the "Fruit Canning Industry." The poetry is especially good, "Retrospect," and "After Death."

THE *Week* of October 16th contains an able article on "Labour and Wages," by C. A. Boulton. One of the editorial notes deals with the question of teachers' salaries. Nicholas Flood Davin contributes a paper on "The Reorganization of the Cabinet" and Basil Tempest a review of Adam Lindsay Gordon's work

Education for September contains an able article entitled "How to Study," by Prof. A. Reichenbach. An interesting series on Primary Education in New Zealand is begun in this number. There is something to be learnt from New Zealand. Probationary teachers, to whom small salaries are paid, are attached to classes in the city schools.

"LEFT on the Isle of Sands," by Charles G. D. Roberts, is the opening story in the *Youth's Companion*. All boys will be interested in "A Phenomenal Scout," by Gen. O. O. Howard. "Modern Surg-

ery," by John S. Billings, is a capital article. A Lyceum League is proposed for young men. Full particulars will be given later.

"THE Story of a Story," by Brander Matthews in the October *Century*, is a short story of especial interest, a glimpse behind magazine scenes. The portrait of Mr. Kipling and the critical essay on his works by Mr. Gosse will be first turned to by many. "Autobiographies," by Bill Nye, is promised for the coming year. "The Faith Doctor," by Eggleston is concluded.

THE *Sunday School Times*, October 10th, has on the first page an article entitled, "The Religious Value of a Quiet Hour." Thought is much needed in the modern church. J. Macdonald Oxley contributes a paper on "Extracting the Poison from Riches." A more than usually delightful story will be found on the children's page. "The Dejected Beets."

A LONG and fascinating article on the "Boyhood of Hawthorne" appears in the November *Wide Awake*. "Nolan," a spirited ballad by Laura E. Richards, is the opening number. Seasonable short stories, one by Kate Upson Clarke being especially good, are given. We are compelled to bid adieu with regret to the "Five Little Peppers." Elizabeth Cumings' delightful story is also concluded.

THE opening article in *Littell's Living Age*, October 10th, is "St. Paul and the Roman Law," (*Contemporary Review*). Among the poetry will be found a stirring piece from *Good Words* called "The Bridge of a Hundred Spans," founded on a beautiful incident on the C. P. R. which unfortunately never occurred. The short stories of the number are "A Remembrance" (*New Review*), and an Indian story "Heera Nund," from Macmillan's.

English Grammar Primer. By Lewis H. Reid. (New York: A. D. F. Randolph and Co.)

A Brief Spanish Grammar with historical introductions and exercises. By Prof. A. H. Edgren, Ph.D. (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co.)

Turbell's Lessons in Language. Book II. (Boston: Ginn and Co.)

Moffatt's English Grammar. Analysis and parsing. (London: Moffatt and Paige.)

Elementary Classics. Cæsar. Civil War. Book I. Edited by Malcolm Montgomery, M.A. (London: Macmillan and Co., and New York.) 1s. 6d.

History Primers. A short analysis of English History. By Prof. T. F. Tout, M.A., of Victoria University. (London: Macmillan and Co., and New York.)

The Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1890. Sixth year of issue. Published by the Department of Agriculture. Compiled by Sydney C. D. Roper. (Ottawa: Printed by B. Chamberlain.)

Heath's Modern Language Series. *Goethe's Hermann and Dorothea*. Edited with an introduction and notes. By Prof. W. T. Hewett, Ph. D., of Cornell University. (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co.) \$1.00.

(1) *The Taxpayer and the Township System*. (2) *The Teacher as He Should Be*. Addresses delivered before the New York and New Jersey State Teachers' Association. By C. W. Bardeen. (Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.)

Scott's Lay of the Last Minstrel. Cantos I.-VI. 2s. Edited by Profs. Stuart and Elliot. (London: Macmillan and Co., and New York.) The Lay of the Last Minstrel receives appreciative treatment at the hands of the present editors, whose notes, introduction, etc., will be found a great assistance by students.

An Elementary Treatise on Mensuration. By E. J. Henchie. (London: Moffatt and Paige.) Second edition. This is a complete and well arranged work on dealing with the mensuration of Plain Rectilinear figures, curvilinear areas, the circle and solids, while chapters are added on Land Surveying and Gauging, and a collection of upwards of five hundred examples is appended. The reasons for rules and formulæ are presented in such a manner as to require only an elementary knowledge of Algebra and Geometry.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN AND CO. have just issued the first part of an Illustrated Edition of *A Short History of the English People*. By John Richard Green. The illustrations represent pre-historic relics found in graves, such as keys, ornaments, pottery, armour, etc. They are beautiful illustrations and this edition will be the edition of that great work, the *Short History*.

AN excellent German Grammar has just been published by Messrs. Macmillan & Company under the title of "A Short Historical Grammar of the German Language." It is a translation and adaptation of an Elementary Grammar in German, by Prof. Behaghel, which uses recent results in philology and has evidently been prepared with great care. There is a good index. 3s. 6d.

Manual of English Composition. By John Nichol, M.A., Balliol, Oxon, LL.D. (London: Macmillan and Co., and New York.) Prof. Nichol's little book has been reprinted six times since it was first issued in 1878 as one of the series of English Literature Primers under the general editorship of the late John Richard Green. There are few works on composition which contain in short space so much valuable material for class use. The exercises are admirable and sufficient in number.

Plane and Solid Geometry. By Seth T. Stewart. (New York: American Book Co.) \$1.12. One more new Geometry has appeared; this time in ten books, as follows: Plane Geometry, Straight Lines and Angles, Triangles, Quadrilaterals, Circles, Proportion, Mensuration—Plane Figures, Mensuration—Similar Plane Figures.

Solid Geometry: Planes, Solids with Plane Surfaces, Solids with Curved Surfaces.

Great attention, it will be seen, has been paid to judicious grouping and arrangement, and there are many exercises. The execution is excellent, and the book, though somewhat radical, is of undoubted merit.

Elements of Civil Government. By Prof. A. L. Peterman. (New York: American Book Co.) 60c. Beginning with the home and passing from the school, the civil district, the township, or town, the county, the municipal corporation, to the State, the ideas of government, the principles of justice and law, and the rights and duties of citizens are presented to the pupil. The questions given are well conceived and expressed, and will be a help to the use and mastery of the text-book. Chapters are added on Elections, Party Machinery, the Australian Ballot System, etc., and we can only add that teachers in American schools are fortunate in having so good a text-book on this subject.

English Classics:

(1) *Tennyson — Enoch Arden*.
W. T. Webb. 2s.

(2) *Gray — Poems*. John Bradshaw,
LL.D. 1s. 9d.

(3) *Shakespeare—As You Like It*.
K. Deighton. 1s. 9d. (London: Macmillan & Co., and New York.)

The latest issues of the *English Classics* will certainly win for themselves the same favourable consideration as those first published.

"Enoch Arden" contains, besides a general and biographical Introduction, an excellent short study of the poem itself. In (2) we have an essay on the Life and Writings of Gray which adds materially to the importance of the book. The text comprises twenty-five selected poems.

Mr. Deighton's introduction to "As You Like It" is a scholarly account of the play, and gives further evidence of the writer's ability and knowledge of the needs of students.

In all three volumes we find the usual excellent Notes, Index, etc.