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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
AND SCHOOL CHRONICLE.

APRIL, 1879.

THE BASES OF EDUCATION.*

BY WILLIAM D. LE SUEUR, B.A., OTTAWA.

MAN'S intellectual superiority consists in his recognition of law; and therefore to make that recognition more complete should be the great end of intellectual education. It is by alternately knowing and not knowing, attaining certainty and grappling with doubt, that the mind is kept in motion and that its faculties are developed. Had there been no law in nature, there could have been no form of organization at all. Had natural laws been intermittently or arbitrarily administered there might possibly have been animal life, but there could not have been intellectual life. It is by successive recognitions of fixed facts, of uniform sequences, in nature that thought acquires definiteness, that man is enabled to say, "I know," and that he gains a solid foundation for such efforts as he may desire to make in his own behalf. We see this principle illustrated in the case of every child whose mental growth we have an opportunity of

watching. From the first there is sensation, but attention, perception, recognition, expectation, are subsequently developed. And how? By the constancy of recurrence of certain phenomena. To the infant mind all is chaos, a confused medley of impressions; little by little a certain order of occurrence amongst the impressions is perceived, and people begin to say that the child "notices." This noticing is simply attention given to an object as having been seen before. By frequently creating the same impression, a given object makes a way for itself, so to speak, in the child's brain, and becomes to the child what it was not before — an individual thing. It is so much rescued from the general chaos of the object world. This is an immense step gained, and it is very proper that it should be regarded by nurses and parents as a matter of extraordinary interest. From this time the child's education advances rapidly; object after object

*Portion of a Presidential Address delivered before the Literary and Scientific Society of Ottawa.

detaches itself from the maze of undistinguished things; and by and by a stage is reached when things begin to excite attention by their *unfamiliarity*, when a strange face, for example, will even make the child cry. Everyone, I am well aware, understands all this after a fashion, but the practical lesson which it is designed to teach is in general but feebly realised. That lesson, I take it, is this, that the great business of the mind is to watch for, and take note of, the uniformities of nature, and that any education that does not promote this habit is useless, or worse than useless, for intellectual purposes. How far our systems of education have been from keeping this great principle steadily in view, may be judged from the fact that the majority of people, instead of loving especially to dwell on the uniformities of nature, instead of wishing to narrow the realm of chaos, and extend that of ordered knowledge, show tastes and dispositions of a precisely opposite kind. They run after the marvellous; they love to hear of an effect produced without a cause, or of a cause that failed to produce its effect. The more extraordinary the story you tell them the less exacting they seem to be in the matter of evidence. One would think that the human race had an interest in escaping from the reign of law, and making chance, or some arbitrary inscrutable will, the controller of its destinies. From one point of view all this is very ridiculous; but from another it is nothing less than sad. Here is nature, the great nurse and teacher, to whose fostering care and incessant monitions we owe our whole physical and mental development, and who offers us every hour and every day the true bread of life; and yet we turn from her with impatience to pursue the unholy charms of some lawless mystery. Can we do this without hurt to ourselves? Never; in some way

or other we are sure to suffer for the despite done to the truth of nature. Perhaps the fancy we are pursuing is one that seems to entail no practical consequences of any kind; but if we are pursuing it out of simple love of the marvellous, or in a spirit of antagonism to law, we pervert our own understanding, and, in some unlucky moment, we shall reap the reward of our folly. We see one another's errors better than we do our own; and I need hardly ask whether we are not all cognizant of lives that have been shadowed, of careers that have been spoilt, of infinite mischief that has been wrought, as the result of intellectual infirmity, as the result, we may say, in one word, of some want of respect for law.

I say, therefore, and I say it with all possible emphasis and earnestness, that whatever we teach we should try and plant the feet of youth on the everlasting foundation of natural law. Whatever they may do, they are environed by law, and cannot escape its action. Surely, therefore, no duty can be more obvious than that of opening their eyes to a recognition of their true position. Once take cognizance of these laws, and resolve to have them on your side, and not against you, and the chances of life, if chances they may still be called, are all in your favour. But remain ignorant of them, or, perceiving them, flatter yourself that they were not made for you, that, by a little finessing, you can at least gain the odd trick in the game of life; and your position is a most perilous one. In modern life there is an enormous deal too much of this gamester spirit; and what its results are the newspapers are every day telling us. It is a terrible thing to cast away the sure methods of nature and to make chance your ally and dependence. Could so many do this if the same amount of energy which is now expended in teaching various matters of

minor importance, or of no importance at all, had been devoted to representing nature and law in general as the steadfast friend of man, a friend which, as Matthew Arnold has expressed it, never "promised aught it did not give," and which stands ever ready to second every effort made in a right direction. The eminent writer, whose name I have just mentioned, has told us much, but not too much, about "a power that makes for righteousness." That such a power does reside in the very constitution of things is abundantly capable of proof, and—we may rejoice to think—is being proved in the daily experience of thousands. Who does not recall those wonderful lines of Wordsworth's, in his "Ode to Duty?"—

"Stern Law-giver! yet thou dost wear
The Godhead's most benignant grace,
Nor know we anything so fair
As is the smile upon thy face;
Flowers laugh before thee on their beds;
And fragrance in thy footing treads;
Thou dost preserve the stars from wrong;
And the most ancient heavens through thee
are fresh and strong!"

Then follows the earnest personal appeal:

I myself commend
Unto thy guidance from this hour;
Oh let my weakness have an end!
Give unto me, made lowly wise,
The spirit of self-sacrifice,
The confidence of reason give;
And in the light of truth thy bondman let
me live!

It is a bold figure of speech which represents duty as "preserving the stars from wrong," but the meaning of the poet, I need hardly explain, is that the starry heavens exemplify the law and order of which duty is simply the expression in the moral sphere.

If it be asked by what special course of training men may best be brought to feel the force and recognize the essential beneficence of natural law, I would answer that, in the first place, we must avail ourselves of the teach-

ing which nature itself every day affords to those who will open their eyes to see and their ears to hear. We cannot too early teach children the properties of objects and the necessary results of certain actions. This kind of teaching, not calling for any exercise of abstract thought, but depending almost wholly on direct sense-impressions, will not overstrain their minds. It is the kind—as of course we might expect—which they most readily assimilate, and which indeed they are in one way or another always pursuing themselves. Children "want to know" a great many things about the world around them; but I never yet met the child who wanted to know—that is to say as a matter of spontaneous desire—whether a certain word was an adverb or a preposition, or what were the boundaries of the kingdom of Timbuctoo. In saying this I do not wish to disparage the study of grammar or of political geography; I only wish to call attention to the difference between two kinds of knowledge, one of which has a natural affinity for the human mind, while the other is only secondarily, or, so to speak, artificially, a matter of human interest at all. As to the extent to which natural science need be pursued in any general system of education much diversity of opinion exists. A competent teacher might convert a very little natural knowledge into an invaluable instrument of education, while another might go through a considerable course of science with his pupils, and leave them, so far as his efforts were concerned, but little better than he found them. Love is at all times the great interpreter; and no one is a worthy interpreter or commentator of nature who is not in love with nature, who does not rejoice in the idea of law. Let the idea of law be at the base of education, and very useful results may be obtained from any

course of instruction not altogether frivolous. It is sometimes thought that there is an antagonism between the study of science and the study of language or literature; no opinion however could be more unfounded. Language, and even the niceties of language, may be studied in a thoroughly scientific way; and we must indeed study language with very close attention if we would place at the disposal of science such an instrument as it requires in the pursuit of its investigations and the exposition of its discoveries.

"Cognition" however, as Mr. Spencer says, "does not produce action." If we would influence conduct favourably we must stimulate the higher feelings with greater activity. What are the higher feelings? Surely those social sympathies of which we were speaking a few moments ago. Can these be affected by education? Undoubtedly they can, but on one condition—that educators of the right kind are forthcoming. We are what we are by virtue of the relations of mutual dependence which we sustain towards one another. There is a feeling shared by the most ordinary characters that every man stands more or less in need of his neighbour's sympathy and assistance, and speaking generally, men do not refuse one another those good offices which each knows he may at any moment require for himself. This is the point we have gained in modern society; but that such a measure of social development is still compatible with many and great evils is visible at a glance. Men who would not openly disoblige one another in small matters, will over-reach one another in business transactions, and in regard to the community at large, the State, will allow themselves to act with still less regard to equity. How can this be remedied, or rather—for this is the most practical question with which we have to deal—how can

we aid, in the case of the rising generation, the somewhat slow process by which nature moulds men to social conditions? I answer by first of all trying to impress ourselves, and then trying to impress our children with a sense of the benefits which we and they owe to society, with the high and really inestimable advantages of the social state, by calling out their admiration for every beneficial course of conduct, every course of conduct that tends to strengthen the bonds of unity between man and man, and so to render social intercourse purer and happier, by representing the organized forces of society, such as national, local, and civic governments as beneficent in their nature, and as deserving of the cordial support of all good citizens; finally by showing an example of reasonableness, equity and good-will in our own dealings with our fellow-men. It should not be difficult to bring home to any average mind some sense of what we owe to those who have gone before us, and so to create a certain reverence, or, at the very least, a certain affectionate regard for the idea of humanity. When we think what strange forms human devotion has taken in times past—what strange forms it assumes even in our own day; when we think how much passion has been drawn forth by symbols and creeds which we can scarcely imagine to have ever had any significance, when we think of the fervour of loyalty that very unworthy persons and causes have excited; when we think of the patient cherishing by whole nations, generation after generation, of delusive faiths and ideals; when we see what a wealth of feeling, of enthusiasm mankind have lavished upon successive creations of their imagination, is it too much to hope that, some day, these streams of moral and social energy may be directed to thoroughly rational and worthy conceptions and objects?

The history of civilization is a history full of interest and pathos, if it be but rightly told; and it is one to which we should as often as possible direct the thoughts of youth. But in order that we may do this effectually we must, of course, realize ourselves all that we would have them realize. It is the glory of the Positivist school to be working unceasingly to bring these thoughts home to the minds of all men; and I can safely say that few more eloquent pages have been written in this generation than some which Mr. Frederick Harrison has consecrated to this theme: "Do you not think," he asks, "this collective power of man's life is itself a majestic object of contemplation? Does not our imagination stir when we think of its immensity? Does not our intelligence triumph in its achievements? Do not our souls melt to remember its heroism and its sufferings? Are we not dust in comparison with that myriad-legged world of human lives which made us what we are? Every thinker who ever wore out his life, like Simon, on his lonely column of thought, was dreaming for us. Every artist who ever lifted himself into the beautiful lifted us also. Nor was ever mother who loved her child in toil, tears and pain, but was wrung for us. Each drop of sweat that ever fell from the brow of a worker has fattened the earth which we enjoy. Martyrs, heroes, poets, teachers, toilers, all contribute their share. . . . There were Nazarenes in many ages and in many climes, and Calvaries have been the land-marks of each succeeding phase of human story. Moses, Buddha, Confucius, St. Paul, Mahomet, the ideals and authors of every creed, have been but some of the Messiahs of the human race. The history of every religion is but an episode in the history of humanity. Nor has any creed its noble army of martyrs which can compare with that

of MAN." In another place the same writer has said: "There is nothing new in this conception of humanity. From age to age it has been gathering into fresh distinctness and completeness. It was forming in the mind of St. Paul, when the Apostle to the Gentiles first conceived a religion that might embrace all mankind; to Augustine too, in some sense, when he saw the vision of the City of God. It has been growing in clearness in the minds of great thinkers and great natures of every age and every faith. It inspired the Catholic reformers, and the greatest of the Protestant reformers alike, St. Bernard, St. Francis, Pascal, Fenelon had some unconscious presentiment of it along with Zuingli, Fox and Wesley. It filled the air in that strange exaltation of hope which preceded the revolutionary storm. In the midst of the crisis it rose suddenly to the distinctness of a religious conception; and, in the absence of all other faith or conviction, it formed the real force of the highest spirits of the Revolution,—of Condorcet, Carnot and Hoche. Since then it has formed the practical unconscious religion of our time; it forms the unuttered hope of all earnest reformers and teachers, and at this hour it profoundly colours the current theology around us."

When, therefore, it is asked, as it so often is, whether culture can suffice for the direction of life, let us clearly understand in what sense the word is used. According to the views which I have been attempting to express, the only true and adequate culture is that which, first of all, trains the intellectual faculties to the recognition of law, and so places the individual in a natural relation to the forces and agencies, natural and human, by which he is surrounded, and, secondly, presents human history and society in such an aspect before the mind as to stimulate the social sympathies to

as high a degree of activity as they are capable of. For culture, so understood, it seems to me that a great deal might be said. If it be objected that culture in this sense is not within reach of all, or indeed of more than a small minority of the community, I answer that the highest blessings of civilization have never been within the reach of more than a small minority,—that the highest blessings of Christianity itself have never been brought home to more than a small minority. All good causes must advance as best they may. What we are just now concerned with is the probable effect upon individual happiness and public morality of such a culture as has been hinted at, seconding the teachings of nature and of circumstances. The logic of facts is often persuasive when other logic fails, and what I have now in view is a system of education which would aim at anticipating the logic of facts, so as always to be confirmed by the latter.

I am well aware that this question of education, considered especially in its moral and social aspects is one which many persons are pondering, with not interest only, but anxiety. Youth is ever hard to control, but possibly the youth of to-day is paying even less heed than might, in the light of past experience, be expected to the counsels of the elder generation. If we are to trust what is being said on every side, the problem what to do with boys is becoming a more difficult and embarrassing one day by day. Why should this be so? There is only one possible cause that I can suggest; and that is a decline in moral authority on the part of parents and instructors. But why such a decline? Simply—if I must give an answer—because the present age is one, as has been said, of “weak convictions.”—Before we can teach we must believe. Make-believe will not do; it may impose upon ourselves, but its weak-

ness will come out when we try to make it a ground-work for influencing others. Nor shall we be any better off by trying to strike a safe average between extreme opinions; belief is not to be got at in any such fashion; and nothing but belief can give the intellectual and moral momentum required for swaying the mind of youth. We must have a system to work on, and one not arbitrarily chosen as a matter of convenience, but one to which we give a full, sincere and involuntary adhesion. A defective system earnestly believed in will prove vastly more efficacious than a more advanced and rational one, which is but indolently accepted and languidly held. It was the stern Roman mother that made the heroic and virtuous Roman citizen; but the sternness in this case—as in all cases where sternness has been useful—was not mere hardness of nature, but the natural temperament of a mind at one with itself and holding to certain views of life and duty, with inflexible grasp. In our more favoured day there may perhaps be similar mental unity, with less severity of temper; but we must, before all things, know our own minds, before we can successfully undertake to guide the minds of others. Nor will our methods be satisfactory until we can feel ourselves working hand in hand with nature, not striving to keep up an artificial system, nor letting sentiment usurp the place of reason, but speaking and acting at all times the thing that is true. How many children are brought up without any preparation at all for the struggle that awaits them in life? How many are allowed to contract habits of indolence and self-indulgence which wholly unfit them for manful exertions,—which perhaps blast their careers at the very outset? How many youths are allowed—pardon me an expressive vulgarity—to “loaf around” for

months or years, waiting for some employment to turn up which it may besit their dignity to accept, and meantime losing that highest dignity that comes of self-helpfulness and independence? Am I speaking now of a few exceptional cases, or do I point to a really sore evil in modern society as we all know it? Well, culture as I understand it, would remedy all this by looking facts straight in the face and devising courses of action adapted to, and based on, the facts, by abandoning all worship of appearances and getting down to the "hardpan" of the true and the necessary. There is a great deal of worship, it seems to me, in a cheerful and, as it were loyal, acceptance of facts as we find them, on the understanding, of course, that we shall improve them if we can. The man who is perpetually grumbling at the conditions of his life is a man upon whom the best lessons of life have been lost, whose feelings have never been kindled into gratitude nor chastened into submission, nor disciplined into unity and strength.

If then we can agree as to the general principles on which education should be conducted, there can be little doubt in any of our minds as to the ideal of society which the system we have in view contemplates, and which it would tend to realize. Manifestly an education directed to perfecting men and women physically, to training their intellects into happy conformity with the order of nature, and to awakening, strengthening and disciplining their social sympathies, would in the long run, and perhaps in no very long time, rid society of idlers. It was a capital page that the socialist reformer, St. Simon, wrote one day when he was particularly impressed with the very different value to society of the real producers, whether in the realm of industry, of art, or of science, and the mere wearers of titles and

devourers of revenues. Let me read you a translation of it:—"Suppose that France were to lose suddenly its fifty foremost physicians, its fifty greatest poets, and the fifty most distinguished and ablest men in every useful profession and craft, say in all the three thousand most eminent savans, artists and artizans that it possessed. As these men are all producers in the very highest sense, those whose works present the most imposing character, those who direct the labours that are of most utility to the nation, and who render the community prolific of works of art and industry, they are really the flower of French society; they are the Frenchmen who are most useful to their country, who gain for it the most glory and do most to hasten its civilization and prosperity. It would take France a generation at least to repair this disaster; for the men who distinguish themselves in pursuits of positive utility are real anomalies; and nature is not prodigal of anomalies—particularly of this kind.

"Pass now to another supposition. Let France preserve all the men of genius she possesses in the sciences, the fine arts, and in all industrial occupations, but suppose that she has the misfortune to lose, in one day, Monsieur the brother of the King, Monseigneur the Duke of Angoulême, Monseigneur the Duke of Orleans, Monseigneur the Duke of Berry, Monseigneur the Duke of Bourbon, Madame the Duchess of Angoulême, Madame the Duchess of Berry, Madame the Duchess of Orleans, Madame the Duchess of Bourbon, and Mademoiselle de Condé.

"Then let the country lose, at the same time, all the great officers of the Crown, all the *maitres de requêtes*, all the marshals, all the cardinals, archbishops, bishops, grand-vicars, and canons, all the prefects and sub-prefects, all the employés in the public

departments, all the judges, and in addition to all these, the ten thousand richest proprietors amongst those who live like gentlemen.

"Such an accident would certainly afflict the French, because they are good-hearted, and because they could not view with indifference the sudden disappearance of so large a number of their compatriots. But this loss of thirty thousand individuals reputed the most important in the State, would be a cause of sorrow in one way only, that is to say, on sentimental grounds, because no evil would really result to the State.

"For, to begin with, nothing would be easier than to fill the places which had thus become vacant. There exist a great number of Frenchmen able to perform the functions of brother to the King quite as well as Monsieur himself; many, too, are capable of occupying the position of the Princes of the blood royal quite as well as Monseigneur the Duke of Angoulême, Monseigneur the Duke of Orleans and the rest.

"The ante-chambers of the palace are full of courtiers ready to jump into the places of the great officers of the Crown; the army possesses any number of officers who would make quite as good commanders as our marshals. How many clerks are quite as competent as the ministers? How many administrators better fitted to be prefects and sub-prefects than the present holders of those offices? How many lawyers as good jurisconsults as our judges? How many curés as capable as our cardinals, our archbishops, our bishops, our grand-vicars, and our canons! As to the 10,000 proprietors, their heirs would need no apprenticeship to do the honours of their drawing-rooms quite as well as themselves."

There is some exaggeration and perhaps some injustice mingled with the very dry humour of this compari-

son; but it is far from destitute of substantial truth. Remember that the picture is drawn from the France of the Restoration, where, in the filling of public offices, privilege and favouritism reigned supreme. We can, however, draw a lesson from it suited to our own time and country. The time is coming when it will be a dishonour to a man in the full possession of his energies not to be actively engaged in some useful work, when it will take as much hardihood for a man to avow that he lives only for his own amusement, as it would take now to avow that he lives by scheming and trickery. The public sentiment of today already makes the position of a fashionable idler a somewhat questionable one, and we cannot doubt that the public sentiment of a generation hence will erect a higher standard still of social duty. Of course there are always some who remain blind, up to the last moment, to coming changes: and what Carlyle calls "Joe Manton dilettanteisms," still make considerable show in the world: but they are doomed to disappear just as surely as the inferior civilizations give way before the superior.

It would take more time than it would be proper for me to occupy to trace, even in outline, the changes which might be expected to flow from a thoroughly rational system of education, or in other words, from the establishment of a perfect *entente cordiale* between man and nature. Suffice it to say that new value and dignity would be lent to life; we should have a sense of proprietorship in the world and the forces of nature such as we never had before; our best energies would be thrown into the work of improving our great inheritance, and common men would find how sweet it was to lose the sense of self in the sense of kindred and of oneness with humanity at large. The family, in modern times has reached

a high point of development, but can we claim as yet to have established society? I know well to what charges one lays himself open who breathes a word against unrestricted individualism; yet I do not hesitate to say that the law of competition has not given, is not giving, and never will give us, a perfected society. So long as we daily pass in the streets hundreds of people whose lives, as compared with our own, are joyless, hopeless, and all but worthless, so long as there are outcasts at every corner, while gripping poverty lurks in every by-way, and all this while capital is accumulating in idle hands, and luxury is every day learning some new art, so long as this is the case we must not claim the name "society" for the system under which such things are possible. That name belongs properly to something higher, something towards which we must work, if civilization itself is not to decay. In a true society every man should have his place, and only the

wrong-doer should suffer. In a true society there could be no such paralysis of human industry as we have witnessed for some years past, when idleness has been tried as the only remedy for poverty; but full proof would be made of the productive powers of nature; and it would then be seen how bounteously she provides for her children. "Can such things be?" many will be prompted to ask. Most assuredly they can. Let us but once settle it in our minds that such a reorganization is desirable, and the belief in its possibility will soon follow. The wish is not only father to the thought; it is quite as often father to the power that brings its realization. Education, I hold, should have a decidedly social aim. Unless it has, it will only tend to the accentuation of personal desires and motives, and will give us a generation of hard calculators, whose calculations, shrewd though they be, may some day be thrown into terrible confusion.

"That the study of foreign languages is a necessary part of a liberal education is a proposition which few intelligent persons will at this day dispute. The records of thought and knowledge are many-tongued; and, therefore, as a means of encyclopædic culture—of that thorough intellectual equipment which is so imperiously demanded of every scholar, and even thinker, at the present day—a knowledge of foreign literature, both ancient and modern, is absolutely indispensable. * * * Your first duty, however, is to acquaint yourself with the learning and literature of your own and the mother country. Our English granaries will, of themselves, feed a long life. When

you have mastered the giants who wrote in your mother-tongue—when the great works of Chaucer, Shakespeare, Hooker, Bacon, Milton, Swift, Wordsworth, Byron, Mill, Tennyson, and all our other representative authors, have passed like the iron atoms of the blood into your mental constitution, it will be time to go abroad after "fresh fields and pastures new." But do not, we beg of you, indulge the foolish ambition of becoming a polyglot when you cannot write a grammatical letter in your mother-tongue, and have never read a page in half of its best writers." — *From Mathews' "Hours with Men and Books."*

LETTERS ON THE EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

BY AGNODICE.

LETTER I.

DEAR CLYTE,

I HAVE not forgotten my promise to commence a correspondence with you on my return from abroad. Yes! your Agnodice (for I still keep the old name you gave me at school) is at home again with her brother and sister.

My brother has already settled down to his books and his studies, and his good, kind wife is immersed once more in her housekeeping affairs. To him, whether or no his last work will be favourable reviewed, is the most important consideration in the world; to her, the rise and fall of eggs or butter is the topic of the utmost importance. As for myself, I am still, dear Clyte, revolving in my mind the idea of following some profession. I know you are orthodox enough to be shocked at this, even in the face of the advanced views of the present day, but I shall meet your arguments, and I hope conquer them.

I am young, strong and determined. No one has a claim on my time as your delicate mother has on yours. Why should I be obliged to give up to Society, to whom, as yet, I owe nothing, the most active and vigorous part of my life? Is the aim of my education only to be accomplished by a constant round of garden-parties, balls, and receptions,—if so, why have I been taught anything else, but to read, write, dance, enter a room

gracefully, and chirp a feeble song to a wandering and uncertain accompaniment? These acquirements would have been enough to have given me a footing in what is called Society. No! I cannot submit to that kind of thing; I must have a purpose, a life-work, a determined end in what I undertake. Such a purpose my sister sets before me in marriage! It is no wonder marriages are so unhappy, when they are put before girls as the end, the thing to be achieved, "the one thing needful" in their lives. When we struggle for a thing, when we fight for a prize, at least we expect, with reason, that the thing shall be worth the winning. If, in archery, we gain a golden arrow, we have a right to be disgusted if the prize turn out to be of counterfeit metal, and the arrow cannot expect to be treated with the admiration and respect that would be given it if it were genuine. This is truly the way our future husbands are held up to us, and the result must often, of course, be disappointment and despair.

Oh! the shamefulness of those odious expressions—"playing her cards well," "*making a good match*," "*setting her cap*," &c. I burn with anger and indignation as I write them. Do you remember what John Stuart Mills says?—"What marriage may be in the case of two persons of cultivated faculties, identical in opinions and purposes, between whom there exists the best kind of equality, sim-

ilarity of powers and capacities with reciprocal superiority in them, so that each can enjoy the luxury of looking up to the other, and can have alternately the pleasure of leading and of being led in the path of development—I will not attempt to describe. To those who can conceive it there is no need; to those who cannot, it would appear the dream of the enthusiast. But I maintain, with the profoundest conviction, that this, and this only, is the ideal of marriage; and that all opinions, customs and institutions which favour any other notion of it, or turn the conceptions and aspirations connected with it into any other direction, by whatever pretences they may be coloured, are relics of primitive barbarism."

So with these opinions you will not be surprised when I tell you I seriously intend studying for a profession, and I think I have chosen the medical. I am of course aware that at present women are not admitted to degrees, and that when they practice, it can be only as quacks, but I shall go through with the regular curriculum, as so many have done, in the hope that by the time I have passed all my examinations, these disabilities will have been removed.

Now for your arguments; I believe I know them already, for how often have we discussed kindred subjects in our school-days, and I see before me now your sweet, grave, earnest face, much more persuasive than your judicious, but excuse me, not very convincing arguments.

Strong-minded, independent women are perfectly horrid, you say; they wear queer clothes, and cut their hair short, and their boots are so very, very large and thick, and they talk loudly, and stand with their hands behind them, and are altogether most objectionable. Yes! some of them are I must own, and they do a great deal of harm to the much larger class

of women whose only desire, as one of them has said, is "to use the reason God has given them to form a just opinion on the circumstances around them," by exciting a prejudice against what are the supposed attributes of every thinking woman.

But you must remember that whenever there is a re-action, there will be found fanatics. It is unfair to call all Scotch clergymen Philistines, spoilers and mistaken zealots, because John Knox defaced altars, and mutilated carvings in his intemperate, yet withal lofty, because unselfish, passion for Reform. And it is equally unfair to ascribe to all earnest women who desire to work and not to talk, the rabid phraseology, such as the wish for the "painless extinction of man," &c., frequently indulged in by these *soi disant* strong-minded women.

When I was at a ball in Paris, I met a specimen of this class; she was a practising physician with a foreign diploma. She was dressed as much like the "abhorred race" as was possible. She wished to dance, but alas! there arose a difficulty in the minds of all present whether her partner should be a lady or a gentleman! This kind of thing is horrible and no one feels more strongly on the point than the true asserter of Women's rights. I must not however forget to mention that the lady in question was spoken of as *Monsieur la docteur*!

Pray believe that a woman may study any or all of the sciences, may deliver lectures and write books, and may even enter professional life, and yet may be undetected in the streets by any peculiarity in her dress or walk; she may speak and act like a lady, and even, most astonishing to relate, may order a dinner, and dispense with grace the rites of hospitality.

I see you prime your mouth now for all the world as if "prunes and

prisms" were coming, but you murmur instead—womanly modesty, womanly virtue. Can a woman keep these divine attributes when she goes out into the world to fight her way and to win fame and position? I ask, why not? Are seamstresses and charwomen less virtuous and modest than their neighbours, because they have to fight their way and win their fame (such fame as it is) in the struggle for bread? Are the Turkish women, veiled and secluded as they are kept, more virtuous than those of European nations? Are we the worse for going out for a walk, when we are told to "put our virtuous indignation in our pockets," and submit to be regarded as pictures on exhibition? Are we the worse for reading, our Bibles or our Shakespeares, or must these and all books written before this ultra-delicate nineteenth century be Bowdlerized before being placed in our hands? Is our innate modesty so small a thing, of so frail a material, that it will bear no contact with externals? If you admit it is, I answer that I deny that a woman possesses either virtue or honour who cannot without harm read and live and work as good and holy men have read and lived and worked. Bear in mind, too, that the women who enter into public competition with men, go armed with a higher education, mental, moral and physical, than those have whose thoughts never soar above the contemplation of a comfortable home and plenty of excitement.

You think the movement is a new-fangled idea, interesting to me, perhaps, because of its novelty. Are you aware that our old friend Plato calls upon "both sexes indifferently to associate in all studies, exercises, offices and professions, military and civil, in his republic?" This is even rather farther than we go, for at present (whatever the future may give us) our physique is hardly capable of un-

dergoing the hardships of a soldier's or a sailor's life. Montaigne affirms "that males and females are cast in the same mould; and that education and custom excepted, the difference between them is not great," and a modern poet sings,—

"Female and male God made the man:
His Image is the whole, not half;
And, in our love, we dimly scan
The love which is between Himself."

It is ridiculous to hear people exclaiming, do you want to see women in parliament? do you want to have women as judges? and the like.

We want to fit ourselves for any office; whether we shall be called upon to fill those positions is quite another question, and one thing is quite certain, that no woman is likely to be raised to any high office unless she is eminently fitted for the place. At present what women have to do is to cause their standard of education to be raised. When this has been done for some generations, then will be the time under the new *régime* to inquire what posts of importance they are capable of filling. We do not demand of a boy the strength and power of a man, or wonder why with all his potentiality of force he cannot rival at once the wisdom of an ancient, and yet the question is constantly put (with the belief that women expect all this of and for themselves), whether they do not desire *now* and *at once* to undertake work requiring intimate knowledge of the laws of political and social economy? You think, perhaps, I underrate the education of to-day. When I see hundreds of women who might vote and who do not, who might work and who do not, who have talents but hide them in a napkin, and candles, but bury them under a bushel; women who do not want to be represented in the parliament of their country, who are perfectly indifferent under the discussion of the most cry-

ing evils demanding social reform, I think I do not exaggerate the need of a higher and wider scope of thought.

Women think by their indifference and feigned humility they win admiration and affection, which is all many of them seem to require. They are not conscious of the intense selfishness that makes them shut their eyes and seek only to live and let live. For it is undoubtedly selfishness and indolence that oblige them to forget how many hundreds of women are struggling for maintenance. They call them sisters—the family likeness is not very great—and these “sisters” have their bread to earn, but also nothing to earn it with, they have been brought up to no profession, apprenticed to no trade, yet they are bound “somehow,” and few care how, to rough it in the dreariest sense of the word and to support themselves and often their families.

And yet we are told there is no need for women to adopt any calling!

Does it not show that reform is much needed when so many of us are determined to face opposition, and to shock society by entering the professions?

It is not nice and pleasant to shock people, as some seem to think it is. On the contrary, it is very disagreeable, and a woman requires to be quite confident that she is doing not only a right and good thing, but *the* only right and good thing under the cir-

cumstances. It is far from pleasant to be called names, and to be treated with contempt, and it is still more trying for others to think that we hold ourselves superior to all around us. We do not consider ourselves justly open to this charge; true, we are forced by the very condition of things to be self-assertive, but we do not wish to be conceited.

Others who do not care to march abreast with us in our movement, may have as great or greater stores of learning, but I must say that such knowledge is of very little value unless it is made use of. It seems to me time thrown away to study sciences and arts assiduously, but never to make any account of them, and I have often wondered at men and women whom I have been told have read a great deal, and yet talk nothing but the veriest small talk. What have they done with all this acquired knowledge, I ask? But that is never discovered, till one cannot help solving the riddle by being tempted to believe that their researches have begun and ended with the titles of the books.

I shall wait impatiently for your next letter, after which I have more to say on this subject.

Till then digest this sentence from Montaigne, *à propos* of what I have just now said:—“Learning is in some hands a sceptre, in others a rattle.”

Your old school-fellow,

AGNODICE.

THE TEACHER'S WORK IN THE UNIVERSITY AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.*

BY THE REV. SAM'L S. NELLES, D.D., LL.D., PRESIDENT VICTORIA UNIVERSITY, COBOURG.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN
OF THE CONVENTION:—

I HAVE yielded to your earnest request to offer some remarks on this occasion, chiefly from a desire to show my sympathy with you in the common work in which we are engaged. For the work of higher education and that of intermediate and elementary training is one. The Universities are not only fed by the schools below, but in a manner tethered to them, dependent for their progress and power upon the preparation which has already been made for the wider and more finished culture. If the work of the schools be poorly done, or turned in bad directions, the entrance examinations of the Universities will be proportionately poor, and the subsequent academic career made to suffer. The schools must rise to touch the Universities, or the Universities must descend to reach the schools. It is but a few years since John Stuart Mill had to use the following language: "But schools of a still higher description have been, even in Scotland, so few and inadequate, that the Universities have had to perform largely the functions which ought to be performed by schools. Every Scottish University is not a University only, but a high school, to supply the

deficiency of other schools. And if the English Universities do not do the same, it is not because the same need does not exist, but because it is disregarded. Youths come to the Scottish Universities ignorant and are there taught. The majority of those who come to the English Universities come still more ignorant, and ignorant they go away." Complaints are often made of the low standard in the American Universities, but our American neighbours have made good progress with the materials in hand, and all premature attempts to build beyond the time have failed. Dissatisfied with the ordinary type of American Universities, some notable efforts have been made to establish something more imposing, something to vie with the German Universities, but it has usually been discovered that Harvard and Yale, Princeton and Amherst, are still in keeping with the national needs. The German University is only made possible by the German Gymnasium, and to over-leap the latter and grasp at the former, is to climb without a ladder, "to leap at stars and fasten in the mud." The best impetus and power of advancement that has been given to Canadian Universities during the last few years, must be accredited to the improvement that has taken place in our

* This Address, which was delivered extemporaneously to the teachers of Northumberland County at their late Convention, has been greatly condensed and almost mutilated in writing it out, so as to bring it within reasonable limits for publication in these pages. Only the urgent request of others could have induced the writer to furnish, in this form, what was prepared very hastily, and was only intended as a word of encouragement to the teachers assembled at the time.—S. S. N.

elementary schools, and especially to the increased efficiency of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

On the other hand, there is a similar dependence of elementary and intermediate education upon the work of the Universities, and in fact upon all higher learning. This holds good both of the *matter* and the *methods* of instruction, although the fact is one that the mass of people seldom recognize. It is assumed that the colleges need the schools, but that the schools could do well enough without the colleges. Never was there a greater mistake. Quite recently a public complaint was put forth by one of our most efficient and prominent educators against the endowment of a national University in Ontario, on the ground that the general wants of the community are sufficiently provided for by the preparatory schools, and that the University, being chiefly of service to professional men, should be supported by those who reap the advantages. This is hardly sound doctrine, and I hope it will not spread. Doubtless the endowment by the State of one single college is a very one-sided policy (what, by way of legitimating the common phrase, we may call a "one-horse" policy), and inflicts serious disadvantages and injustice upon the other outlying Colleges, but for all that, even a member of an outlying College may be permitted to deprecate the state-abandonment of higher learning. The public good would appear rather to call for the support of several Colleges than the disendowment of the one. However this may be, it is all-important to remember the inestimable benefits conferred by these higher institutions, and by all men of science, not merely upon the professional classes, but upon the people at large, and especially upon the work of the intermediate and elementary schools. The schools indeed teach only rudi-

mentary knowledge, but what is elementary now was not always elementary, nay rather, it is the simplified and popular statement of what was once scarcely known at all, or known only to men of profound thought, and discovered by them after many years of laborious investigation. Nor would their laborious researches have been crowned with success, but for the tentative efforts and frequent failures of a long line of predecessors. The torch to be handed on must be kept always burning. The rotundity of the earth, the Copernican astronomy, the law of gravitation, the circulation of the blood, the existence of an American continent: these are all elementary matters now, and more or less inculcated in our common school-books, and implied in the ordinary speech of the common people, but they were once hidden in darkness, and were only made visible by the light of intense thought, focalized long and earnestly in the distant watch-towers where men of genius have stood through the chilly hours watching for the dawn. Euclid and Kepler, Copernicus, Newton and Faraday, these are the men who have snatched from heaven the immortal flame that burns so brightly where our busy youth first grow warm with intellectual life. And we are not to suppose that this great law of intellectual heritage is abrogated. The hills still water the plains, and far up the cold mountain side may be now rising the rill, that, by and by, as a majestic river, is to sweep grandly on across the continent, with its curves of beauty and its fertilizing power. In the endowed halls of science, or in the heroic exploring expedition, still toil the men who are to make new discoveries "for the relief of man's estate." It was no sordid aim that sent Livingstone and Stanley to open up the recesses of Africa, but already the merchant scents from afar

the fragrance of new fields of commerce. Nor do studies which yield the quickest return always yield the largest. The manifold relations and ultimate effects of the great secrets of nature are seldom obvious even to the man of genius, and what seems purely speculative or matter of idle curiosity, has often been found pregnant with vast results, both for the convenience and the ornament of life. Here also the promise holds good, he that seeketh findeth, but oftimes findeth better than his hope. Saul, seeking asses, found a kingdom, and the alchemists seeking gold sometimes made discoveries more precious than gold. The so-called practical man has doubtless his uses, but one of his uses is to eat, at the bottom of the tree, the fruit which the man of genius and high culture hands him from the sunlit boughs beyond his reach. The Baconian clamour for "fruit," which Macaulay has so partially interpreted, is a natural cry, but is, after all, the cry of a helpless babe, to which only mother-wit of a very rare order can give the answer, otherwise the babe remains empty-handed and empty-mouthed,

"And with no language but a cry."

Let those then who value the common schools and the common weal, learn also to value all higher learning, and not look grudgingly on money expended for Colleges and Universities. The teacher that was wont to stand uncovered before his pupils, seeing their future greatness in the dormant capacity, was touched with a genuine and far-seeing gift of reverence, but the mechanic, or farmer, or sailor, who should always uncover in view of a college dome or magnetic observatory, would have an equally commendable sense of "the eternal fitness of things." To such minds these things may seem cold and distant as the clouds, but the distant

clouds that seem to go drifting coldly and idly by, will in due time fall in refreshing floods to quicken the growing harvest and to swell the autumn fruit.

As regards *methods* of instruction, there is the same law of dependence. Dr. Johnson indeed declared that no further light could be shed on systems of education, and that the subject was as well understood as it ever would be. But Dr. Johnson, being a great man, sometimes made great blunders, and this is one of them. Against such high authority we have the authority of a host of modern educators, together with the fact of many educational improvements introduced since the time of Dr. Johnson. There is scarcely any branch of learning that may not be made to throw light on educational methods. Physiology, psychology, ethics, æsthetics, political economy, history, each one comes laden with a contribution. Nearer, therefore, to the truth than this dictum of the great lexicographer, would it be to say that education is an inexhaustible science, limited in its developments only by the intuitions of genius and the progress of the race.

And now, Mr. President, I may refer to another bond of union or point of agreement between us, and that is the somewhat galling bond of poverty. It does seem a little strange that we teachers, who stand so high as public benefactors, should stand so low in point of remuneration. The chief waiter of a large hotel receives higher pay than a Head Master of a High School, or perhaps, a University Professor. We learn on high authority that the most lucrative office in the University of Oxford is that of College Head—with the exception of the cook! This disposes one to exclaim with Carlyle, "On cookery let us build our stronghold, brandishing our frying-pan as a censor." It is indeed not easy to be a cook, and cater to the

fastidious palates of a variety of guests, but it is just as hard to provide mental pabulum for slow-digesting pupils; and at the same time please the ill-instructed fancies and niggardly dispositions of trustees, parents and rate-payers. Let us console ourselves with the recollection of the nobleness of our work, and the excellence of our company. All the world's greatest benefactors have found that the reward of virtue is not bread. But it is nobler to diffuse knowledge among the people than it is to wear soft clothing in king's palaces. Let, then, the school-teacher, like the preacher and the poet, rejoice in the high honour of representing that which, being more precious than rubies, is not to be rewarded by secular emoluments.

Let no one wonder that I have named the teacher along with the preacher. They are as closely allied in their work as in the scantiness of their remuneration. We may differ as to the prominence to be given to religion in the school-room, but no Protestant Christian can doubt that popular education is indispensable to a pure and progressive Christianity. "No savage," says Whately, "can be a Christian." It is certain that no Christian can long remain a savage, and equally certain that an ignorant people will always tend more or less to narrow and adulterate the purest religious faith. The sacred element will take the hue and the flavour of the vessel in which it is lodged. *Quicquid recipitur, recipitur ad modum recipientis.* Pulpit and pew, church and school, theology and literature, act and react upon each other in a thousand ways. We cannot, indeed, affirm that culture and refinement will heal the leprosy of the soul, but they will hold in check the demon of superstition, and afford the most natural and proper alliance for the religion of Him "in whom lie hid all the treasures of wisdom and know-

ledge." We shall find our security for the State, not of necessity in combining within the same place and person the two-fold office of spiritual teacher and secular, but in providing both in due efficiency for all classes of the people:—

"Nor heed the skeptic's puny hands,
While near the school the church-spire
stands,
Nor fear the blinded bigot's rule,
While near the church-spire stands the
school."

I think the time has come when we Canadians must feel more than ever how deeply urgent is the need for calling into fullest play the intellectual energies of our people. Great questions are upon us. Sometimes within a few hours we are called upon to give our verdict upon controversies affecting the highest interests of the State. Only a thoughtful, well-informed people can govern themselves, as we are called to do. It is the schoolmaster alone that can make self-government possible, or infuse something like rational method into the madness of universal suffrage. "All glories," says Macaulay, "fade before the glory of the statesman," but when statesmen (or rulers at any rate) are made and unmade by the voice of the crowd, there is danger lest the glory of the statesman should fade before the glory of him who knows best

"To fool the crowd with glorious lies."

It is the schoolmaster that gives the true statesman power to save the State. Let the marble monument proclaim in every land the glory of the statesman, but let the people tread lightly, too, upon the green sod that wraps the grave of the village schoolmaster. All honour to the patriot who falls in the fight for freedom, but history teaches only too well how little avail the victories of the battle-field, without intelligence and virtue to preserve what battles have won. It is chiefly

from within that nations perish, and in the humble school-house Canadians must build the bulwark to guard the precious heritage of constitutional freedom, which statesmen have matured, and for which heroes have died. Nor is heroism altogether wanting from the teacher's life. There are many kinds of heroism, and not the least to be admired is that which lies back in the quiet and obscure places. Nay, it is often easier to die amid the blare of trumpets, the waving of banners, and the high enthusiasm of war, than to toil and suffer bravely on through the long years of poverty and neglect. Wherever true work is done, wherever pure motives prevail, wherever, amid circumstances of trial, privation, and discouragement, the heart and hand fail not, but with self-sacrificing fortitude struggle patiently on to the required end; there always is heroism. Such a lot is often laid upon the teacher, but let him labour in faith and hope as one who builds more grandly than they who shaped the Parthenon, or piled the Pyramids. Of all the fabrics reared by man, what can rival his in beauty, in value, or in imperishability? Who else on this earth can build above the storms? Mutation and decay sweep round the globe. History itself is but a kind of epitaph. While we build we die, and our buildings crumble upon our graves, Pictures fade, statues are broken, or buried, philosophies shift and reshape themselves like the visions of a kaleidoscope, cities and civilizations break into dust, and if the Pyramids still raise their massive forms above the Nile, it is only to mark the vanity of kings and the pride of power—the melancholy remains of a departed glory,—a memorial, but a tomb. And what is gone comes not again. Hannibal and Cæsar may indeed have a resurrection, but the cerements of

old Carthage and Rome shall never be burst asunder. But within the immortal spirit of man, where the teacher carves his lines and moulds the character, the winds and the floods have no power. The teacher does indeed build above the storms, and may defy the pitiless pelting of the rains. His marble temple shall never be "moss-grown nor frost-flung." Goth nor Vandal shall mutilate the stones; the drifting sands of the desert shall not cover them; but, all untouched by "Time's effacing fingers," shall they abide from age to age, taking on ever-new grandeur of outline, and ever-new light of beauty. The familiar illustration of Addison, in which he likens the work of the educator to that of the sculptor on the marble, will never lose its aptness or value, but how far short after all it falls of doing justice to the teacher's mission. It is counted high praise to say of the sculptor that he can "*almost* make the marble speak." He gives us the simulation of a man; but how much greater and nobler to give us by education the man in reality! To evoke from the rude mind the power to think, to feel, to imagine, to enable it "to borrow splendour from all that is fair, to subordinate to itself all that is great, and to sit enthroned on the riches of the universe!" The well-shaped statue lifted to a niche in some palace or famous abbey preserves the memory of the dead, and gives immortal fame to the sculptor; the living spirit, endowed with illimitable powers of development, chiselled by a finer touch, and fashioned by an inward growth, is raised to a sphere beyond the palaces and galleries of earth, to be radiant forever with a celestial light, vocal forever with a celestial song, and employed for ever

"In such great offices as suit
The full-grown energies of heaven."

VIRGIL FOR THE ENGLISH STUDENT.

BY THE REV. C. P. MULVANY, M.A., CARRYING PLACE.

THE phase of classical culture which has obtained of late years has made Greek and Latin more unapproachable than ever to other than University Students. For the classical languages are now studied more for their form than their matter—more for grammatical and philological criticism than for the appreciative culture of the literature itself. Yet surely the latter at least ought not to be neglected. Its refining influence is the most permanent benefit to be derived from the classical part of a College course. And it would enable those whose education is for commercial or other purposes, confined to what can be read in English, to obtain at least this part of the advantage of a University training, if adequate representatives of the great monuments of classical culture were within their reach. Mr. Matthew Arnold has pleaded in his lucid and appreciative essay on Translations of Homer, for a version of the Iliad in the measure of the original. To his arguments may surely be added the advantage to the purely English student of seeing the movement of the Greek poetry represented in a measure like that of the original.

All that has been said of Homer applies, of course, to Virgil's great epic. The latter, indeed, is perhaps more easily appreciated. It has contributed important influences to European thought, and Christian popular eschatology (as it is called) is under

no slight obligations to the description of the descent into Hades of the hero of Virgil's poem.

Such a work as I desiderate would be published in cheap form. It would commence with a brief popular sketch of the Poet, of his position in classical literature and that of the Christian decadence. It would not puzzle the student with dactyls, spondees or cæsuras—even the word "hexameter" should be eschewed. It would simply be stated that the versification was a rhythm, identical as far as possible with that of the original, and that the order and literal force of the words were given as nearly as might be.

Explanation should be added of the localities, and of the chief oft-recurring names for Greek or Trojan. Some of the more striking portions of the entire poem, as the adventures of Æneas, might be then given in one book at least, to be rendered from beginning to end. For this purpose the second might well be chosen—its subject, the destruction of Troy by fire, stands complete as a picture, apart from the rest of Virgil's poem, and the growing force of the tremendous catastrophe increases in interest from the time that the midnight spectre announces to the son of Venus that all is lost, and through the hurry to and fro of midnight battle, to the tragic dignity of Priam's death; till at last the hero, undaunted by mortal arms, shrinks in terror from the vision, like that of the young Læan "whose eyes Elisha opened"

in Hebrew story—of the terrible powers of Heaven hostile to Troy. I venture on a few specimens of the manner in which this might be done, so as to bring the force and flow of the original before the mind of the English student, and it might be hoped be of use to the classical student in our Canadian Universities in the endeavour to translate the Latin into literal, and at the same time not slovenly or inelegant English. I commence with the passage in the second book, when Æneas, startled from sleep by the ghost of Hector, realizes the fact that all is lost:

Meanwhile with manifold noise the walls of
the city are mingled.
Nearer and nearer, altho' the home of my
Father Anchises
Stood retired from the street, and screened
by shrubberies round it,
The loud sounds grew clear, and the clashing
of arms is apparent.
Out of my sleep I start, and up to the roof
of the building,
Climb by a stair, and stand with ears that
eagerly listen—
As, when amid the corn, a flame, by the furious
south wind
Falls in a rapid stream in torrent force from
the mountain,
Floods the fields, the blooming crops and
toils of the oxen—
Sweeping the woods in its way, and the
startled shepherd, beholding,
Stands overwhelmed at the crash from the
lofty cliff as he hears it.

—Or, take the passage where Æneas has roused a body of Trojans to engage in resistance to the victors—

Madness came with my words, then wild as a
herd of the war-wolves
Wrapped in a cloud of the night, whose
bellies cruelest hunger
Stings in their mad career, whose whelps in
their dens that expect them,
Wait with dry lips at home, just as through
arrows,
Wend we to certain death, and, in the midst
of the conflict, through armies
Hold our way which night with sable wings
o'ershadows.

Or, when after a first success, their ranks are disorganized by the attempt to rescue Cassandra—

Lo! by her loose hair haled, the virgin
daughter of Priam,
See we Cassandra dragged from fane and
shrine of Minerva,
Raising in vain appeal her ardent eyes to the
heavens.
Only her eyes, her delicate hands the cords
were confining.
This was a sight that Coræbus could not
bear in his passion,
And on their midmost array he fell, deter-
mined on dying,
All follow on; we charge mid foes that
thicken around us.

The most desperate fighting goes on around the Palace of Priam. Then a minute description is given of the Roman method of storming a wall held by the enemy:

See we the gate beset by shielded stress of
the stormers—
Ladders cling to the walls, are close prest in
to the door posts.
Climb they on steps, their shield with the
left hand turned to the missiles.
Thus secured, with the right they grasp the
battlements' summit.
Then do the Trojans in turn the towers and
tops of the houses
Hurl on the foe, with these as they see the
ruin impending
In the despair of death they seek the means
of resistance.
Beams adorned with gold, ancestral heir looms
of honour
Roll they down.

But Pyrrhus or Neoptolemus, son of Achilles, leads the Greek.

Hard by the outer porch and the very thresh-
hold is Pyrrhus,
Proud in his bright array of weapons and
glittering armour,
As when the viper on venom fed, comes into
the sunshine
Whom in swollen sleep cold winter long
was concealing,
Now having cast its skin, renewed in youth as
in beauty,
Writhing its scaly back, it rolls with crest that
is lifted
Nigh to the genial sun with three-forked
tongue as it flickers.

Then when the palace is taken and Priam slain, comes one of the most striking passages of the poem, in which, by the aid of Heaven, the hero

has his eyes opened to the agency of superhuman powers of evil.

Then I look back and see what force is left to support me.

All had gone, worn out, or with a bound from the ramparts

Cast their wearied limbs, or to the fires had resigned them.

Now I alone was left, when, by the temple of Vesta,

Silently lurking hid in a secret seat for asylum, Helen I saw—for now the flames to my wandering footsteps

Give bright light, as I cast my eyes on all that is round me—

She who the Trojans feared her foes for Troy that is captured,

Nor with less cause the Greek, and wrath of the lord she had injured,

Hid herself there and, hated thing, sat close to the Altar.

Flashed the fire in my soul, and anger prompts in a moment

Vengeance for fatherland and fit reward for the guilty—

—Goes she to Sparta safe, to her native home at Mycenæ,

Then like a Queen, to move in royal grace to a triumph,

Husband and home, and sons and parents there to revisit,

Girt with Trojan girls and Phrygian slaves to attend her.

Priam be slain with the sword, and Troy be sunk into ashes!

Shores of the Dardan land be soaked with blood, and so often!

Never! altho' it gain scant praise to punish a woman,

Nor is there ought of fame to win where this is the conquest,

Yet shall it be to my praise to have crushed the thing that is evil,

Giving to guilt its meed, and sating fatherland's ashes.

So I exclaimed, and still with maddened mind was borne onward—

When to my gaze, before not seen, so beautiful ever

Shone amid cloudless light my goddess mother before me.

All-divine she seemed, and as to the dwellers in Heaven,

Such and so fair revealed, and with her hand as she held me

Stayed she my steps, while thus with roseate lips she addressed me :

S ! what grief can prompt in thee such measureless anger,

No fit mark for thy hate the fatal beauty of Helen.

Blame not Paris for this; the Gods, the Gods, in their anger

Wrought this ruin, and brought on Troy this terrible ending.

See, for I lift the veil which from the eyes of a mortal

Hides the world unseen, and thou, refuse not obedience

Due to a mother's word, nor scorn to bend to her bidding.

Lo! by the shattered piles, and rocks from rocks that are rifted.

Here where the smoke upcurls with waves of dust intermingled,

Neptune shakes the walls, and deep upheaved with his trident

Smites foundations down, and from its centre the city

Far and wide overthrows. By the Scæan gate in her anger,

Juno sits supreme, and from the ships to the foeman

Girt with the sword she calls.

Said she, and shrouded her form in densest shades of the darkness.

Terrible forms appear, and boding ill to the Trojans

Powers of the mighty Gods!

If in our Universities more stress were laid on the rendering the Greek and Latin authors into not merely literal, but adequate and correct English, much more might be permanently assimilated. Even to the English student access to an English version of Virgil, not translated into the manner of Pope, nor of Chaucer, nor of Scott, but aiming to reproduce the rhythm of the original, and as far as possible the spirit and flow of the original words, will give some flavour of that old wine of the world's culture, of which those who have drank deepest of the new, will avow that "the old is better."

THE STUDY OF HISTORY IN SCHOOLS.

BY J. HENDERSON, M.A., ST. CATHARINES.

AT the present day, when so many subjects of study have been introduced into our School programmes, different opinions will always be formed about their respective merits. There seems, however, to be a consensus of opinion as to the importance of the subject under consideration. If intelligently taught, history ought to form a very important factor in a sound elementary education. We are, however, forced to the conclusion that the study is very imperfectly pursued in the great majority of our schools. This arises from the fact that it is often improperly treated of in the ordinary manuals; but perhaps the chief cause is the tendency to cram under the pressure of examinations. The latter is a complaint universal in its extent in Ontario, and the only remedy will be to remove the inducements given for cram work by educational authorities. The great end and aim of all education is not so much *what is studied* but *how it is studied*. The formation of correct habits of thought is infinitely more valuable to the pupil than the mere knowledge imparted. To induce and foster this accuracy—to train the pupil to think with precision in forming his conclusions—must be the constant care of the instructor of youth; and he who has not secured this is justified in forming the opinion that there is something radically wrong somewhere. There is nothing more to be deplored than the amount of "nebulous"

knowledge that we find prevalent in our schools in nearly all subjects. The vicious habit of indistinct perception is not shaken off when the school-boy throws aside his satchel and steps out into the world to take his place and fight his way for himself. It clings to him often for life, and has a direct tendency to mar his success and hamper all his efforts. A pupil trained, under such circumstances, must unlearn these pernicious habits if ever he aspires to anything worthy of ambition.

In reading over the report of the Sub-Examiners for the Intermediate, we are not at all astonished to find that history is gradually becoming a subject for cram. It would indeed be a miracle were it otherwise. By prescribing for the lower forms of our High Schools so much to be overtaken, *some subjects* will naturally receive undue attention to the detriment of others, and this is directly caused by the amount of work to be gone over in the limited time that most pupils have at their disposal in preparing for an examination. For the Upper School special periods of history are chosen, while the pupils of the Lower School are assigned the whole of English History. If these conditions were reversed, the result would be beneficial to all concerned. With so much placed on their shoulders, the pupils are not to be blamed if examiners complain of the ludicrous jumbling together of facts, dates, and

persons; but the system that perpetuates and directly aids and abets such a state of matters must be censured. The crude and unscientific answers that we often listen to arise from a dim, hazy perception of the subject. With many teachers, the "be all" and the "end all" of history seems to be a dry narrative of events, strung together with as little connection as the buttons on a little girl's magic string. A detailed account of battles and sieges with the exact number of the killed, wounded, missing and prisoners, the paraphernalia of a grand court, are to them matters of most absorbing interest and of the utmost moment, while the real life of a nation is kept in the back ground or left out of the picture altogether. When Macaulay gave to the world his history, and led men to examine life in the cottage of the labourer as well as in the palace, he taught a lesson too often overlooked. The dependence of one class of the community on another must fully be understood in estimating forces whose outcome exhibits itself in battles or sieges. The events which form the great points in history can be properly read only when we have investigated the causes which led to them. A matter apparently of trifling importance often becomes the nucleus of a system that develops into a great principle in history. The fall of an apple, by an ordinary observer passes unnoticed, but it suggested to Newton one of the deepest principles in philosophy. The minutiae of history in the same way form the key-notes of the great problems that arise from them. Our school histories generally are deficient in this respect, that they often treat of as subordinate, matters that ought to occupy the first place in investigating the life of a nation. The part of English history before the reign of Henry VII., under such treatment, is anomalous and perfectly

inexplicable to the casual observer. One would imagine that no one lived then but mail-clad Knights, whose special duty was to kill and rob indiscriminately. The great change that spread over western Europe during his reign and that of his successor, is unaccountable unless we deal with the contemporary history of the period. The fall of Constantinople, by which the Greek literature of the Byzantine Empire was disseminated throughout Europe, was one of the main causes of the great intellectual strides that were then made. But, strange to say, our histories in nearly every instance leaves such facts out of the question. Contemporary history is invaluable as a means of explaining many of the great changes that occur in a nation's career. Again we may also refer to the Crusades as another instance of flagrant omission. The many and varied influences that they had on the national life of England are passed by with a mere reference. Instances of such omissions, which every teacher deplores and laments, might be multiplied without number. Our historians are apt to form theories of their own, which are thoroughly baseless, to explain events, the evident reasons for which, are furnished on merely glancing at the contemporary history of other nations. The isolated character of the nations of the ancient world, or of mediæval Europe, is a thing of the past. Mankind are gradually coming more and more to feel their dependence on each other. The modern inventions of steam and telegraph are assimilating countries that hitherto have been widely different, socially and intellectually. By the great tidal waves of history we gain a comprehensive and enlarged view of the great problems that are being worked in different nations under various circumstances. These are assuredly of much more importance than the death of one king and the accession of another.

As is the case with many other branches of learning, History cannot properly be isolated; it must necessarily encroach on the domain of Physical geography for us to thoroughly understand the influences at work in building up a national character. We must inform ourselves of the climate in which the inhabitants live, the mountain ranges that traverse the country, the rivers that form the avenues of trade, the seas that lave the shores, and last, though not least, the natural products that supply the necessities or the luxuries of life. Without this additional information our knowledge must be cramped and confined; and it is a matter of regret that this subject, evidently so important, has been practically left out of our studies altogether. Physical geography is undoubtedly one of the most important as well as one of the most interesting subjects that can engage the attention of youth, and why it should be practically ignored has always seemed a grievous mistake. The neglect of it often causes the most egregious blunders, and most unscientific notions of important facts. Breadth and accuracy of thought—the great principles of generalization—can be formed only when we obtain a comprehensive view of the dependence of the one subject on the other. A most mistaken idea seems to prevail—that any subject to be treated in a scientific manner demands advanced pupils. There can be no greater mistake. There is a science in teaching the very elements of a subject, and in these very preliminaries of instruction often the greatest skill and discernment of the teacher are required. No one thanks an instructor for the abil-

ity shown by a few clever boys that he may be successful with. Without him these boys would be clever. But the man who builds a sure foundation, whose motto is *lenite festinare*, consistently with solid instruction, fulfils the great end of teaching. The old adage, "Well begun is half done," is of universal application in learning. The great defect in our schools is that there is not enough of this kind of instruction. There would be little difficulty if we had a manual suitable for giving our junior pupils a clear and accurate conception of history—if what may be termed the salient points were selected. It would be a great boon if such a book were introduced, especially into our Public Schools. In these the history labours under this difficulty—the thorough uselessness of our ordinary text-books. If an idea were also given of contemporary history, the skilful teacher would have little difficulty in adding what may have been omitted. At present, the youthful aspirant to a High School course, has to wade through such an amount of matter that he becomes thoroughly bewildered and lost in inextricable mazes. "What is worth doing is worth doing well." The time that a boy spends at school is limited to a few years, in the most of cases, and during that period the best instruction is that which leads him to deal with the leading features of any subject. Instead of becoming the system of Mnemonics, to which it has been reduced, history might become of invaluable worth as a means of mental training and discipline. How far it has become so the Examiners for the "Intermediate" know best.

DEPARTMENTAL REPORTS AND THE INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION.

BY A HEAD MASTER.

HELD for the first time in June, 1876, the "Intermediate" has now been long enough in operation to justify us in accepting the results as at least an indication of the influence it is likely to have on education. We by no means under-estimate the good it has accomplished: the spirit of competition it has engendered amongst our High Schools and the dread of ignominious failure which haunts the less ambitious of the Masters, have, no doubt, had a telling effect on the *quantity* of the work done since its introduction; but, making all allowances for the interruptions its development has met with in the various efforts of the Department to rectify its defects, we by no means look upon it as an unalloyed blessing. It is a remarkable fact that the opinion of the Teaching Profession is almost unanimously against this "inspectional examination," even in the case of those who, for a few years past, have had, in addition to other advantages, a free semi-annual advertisement in the Toronto dailies. One would think that the consensus of the masters would have had before now some weight with the Minister of Education; it is unfortunately too much to expect most of his advisers to give it the consideration it deserves. We willingly give Mr. Crooks credit for having, in most matters that concern his Department, a sincere desire to benefit education and to prove himself no unworthy successor of his predecessor in office; and, if political

associations occasionally fetter his freedom of action, it must be regarded as one of the unfortunate necessities of his position. The frequent changes made by the Department in the conduct of the Intermediate show also that a doubt as to its advisability sometimes occurs to the mind of the Minister. But no such thoughts trouble those to whose discrimination and sagacity he has a right to look for a reliable opinion, and it cannot but be regarded as a misfortune that educational matters have so long been virtually under the control of men who, on the showing of their official superiors, are more remarkable for obstinate self-assertion than sound judgment.

We propose to reproduce some of the opinions expressed by the High School Inspectors in reference to the Intermediate in the last Annual Report. They discuss with characteristic modesty the main objections that have been raised, and, though they by no means do its opponents justice, we shall take their statement of the case:

"Another objection is that the intermediate examination causes the work of both pupils and masters to be done under too great a pressure. As through the diminution of the pecuniary value of Upper School pupils, and through the operation of other causes, the pressure is gradually lessening, this objection is by degrees losing any force it may once have had. It will, of course, always be the case that in consequence of differences of temper-

ament, surroundings, etc., the pressure which in one case operates as a healthy stimulus, may in another be found unbearable; but it is impossible to provide in a system for special cases. We are not of opinion that the pressure of the intermediate examination is now generally found to be too severe."

In the present condition of matters it is unnecessary to demonstrate the unsoundness of this *ipse dixit*. On the recommendation of Prof. Young, who, as stated by Mr. Crooks, has after about three years' rumination come to the conclusion reached by the profession in as many months, "that the pressure of the Intermediate is generally found to be too severe," it has been decided by the Department to hold, in future, but one a year. We only regret, in the interest of sound mental and physical education, that mitigation of the evil and not annihilation has been the result of the deliberations of the Chairman of the Central Committee. That before long the pernicious effects of the unhealthy stimulus to which our High Schools are being subjected will show themselves still more plainly, we do not for a moment doubt; nor do we hesitate to believe that this tardy concession will pave the way to a complete remodelling of the whole scheme. We do not, however, intend to discuss this important modification of the original plan until the details are before the public; but we most decidedly object to the perpetuation of what will now more than ever become a delusive misnomer—the title "Payment by Results."

The second objection noted by the High School Inspectors is the one to which we desire in the meantime to direct particular attention:—

"The objection brought against the intermediate examination that it fosters cramming is one which, if valid, involves in a common condemnation all

written examinations for the purpose of classifying or in any way determining the standing or attainments of candidates. It has great weight with those whose minds are under the dominion, not of ideas, but of words. Cramming may be defined to mean filling the mind with knowledge which is not so thoroughly assimilated as to become a permanent possession. In this sense the Intermediate Examination has absolutely lessened cramming. The knowledge imparted now is far more thoroughly assimilated than that imparted before it was established. There is, of course, still much learned which is soon forgotten. But is it important that every fact memorized or line of reasoning employed in school, should be retained forever? Should not educators aim rather at training the mind than at making it a lumber room for the preservation of that which were better destroyed?"

After the reception their other "opinion" has met with from the Minister of Education and Prof. Young, who, doubtlessly, know how to estimate the capacity of their subordinates, little importance might be attached to the bristling assertions which form the sum and substance of the above paragraph. Any unprejudiced observer will conclude that the unanimous opinion of the High School Masters, based in their case, we may add, on personal observation and experience—that this system does increase the tendency "to cram" even in the restricted sense in which the term is employed above—is worth more consideration than has hitherto been given it. We know that it has been asserted that most of the Masters are so averse to hard work and the employment of methods of teaching that entail additional labour, that they are willing to press any objection likely to aid in restoring them to that land of Lotos-eaters in which they dwelt before 1876. We have no means of estima-

ting the correctness of this statement; but even had we no other verification of the teacher's view of the question at issue, we should be justified in hesitating to accept it. It so happens, however, that the Sub-examiners' Reports, which appear in the Blue Books for 1876 and 1877, are, to our mind corroborative of objections germane to the one we are discussing. These Reports deal with the subject as a whole, and read in connection with the papers set at the examinations, are a fairly reliable indication—not of the ability and faithfulness of the teachers—but of what they are able to do under the new mode of controlling educational work. But, as we have said, these Reports are valuable for more reasons than those which have prompted their publication.

Our readers are, of course, aware that the subjects for the Intermediate are grouped and valued as follows:— I. Arithmetic, 100; Algebra, 100; Geometry, 100. II. English Grammar, 180; English Composition, 75; Dictation, 45. III. English Literature, 100; History, 100; Geography, 100. IV. (a) Latin, 300; (b) French, 300; (c) German, 300; (e) Natural Philosophy, 110; Chemistry, 110; Book-keeping, 80. It must also be borne in mind that the maximum value of the correct answer to each question has been given on every paper since July, 1877,—a circumstance which is important in tracing from year to year the influence of the Intermediate. Both teachers and candidates in this way know not only what subjects and what departments of subjects it will pay to study, but also what method of study or teaching will enable them to secure the minimum for pass; for the Intermediate has the disadvantage of being simply a qualifying examination. In fact with the data provided, it is almost possible to reduce "Passing the In-

termediate" to the conditions of an exact science. Of the subjects prescribed for this examination, some are evidently more useful for *educating* than others. No one will maintain that the candidate who makes 60 per cent. on the Geometry paper, for instance, by doing the book-work alone, has acquired the same amount of mental discipline as the one who has proved himself able to work out deductions. It is equally clear that the candidate who makes a good percentage in the English Grammar group, obtaining 60 or 70 per cent. in English Composition is better educated than the one who makes the same percentage in the group but has made up for his 20 per cent. in English Composition by a large percentage in Grammar. The same remarks will apply with equal force to Geography and the Optional Groups. It is notorious amongst High School Masters that most of the candidates make their calculations in accordance with the following scheme:—

In Group I, Book-work in Geometry—which usually counts 55 or 60 per cent. of the paper—will save the student from a plucking; his English Grammar—a subject easily got up so far as Book-work and Analysis and Parsing are concerned—will carry him through Group II; and so on with Geography in Group III; and Chemistry, and French, Latin, and German translation and Grammar in the Optional Groups. In other words he knows that he may safely treat with comparative neglect the study of those subjects that require the exercise of the higher mental powers, if he is able to cram as he goes on, or towards the end of the course. The teacher is, of course, driven to adopt the same plan, and to sacrifice education for the sake of the money grant. In many cases, indeed, he would be powerless to induce the young man or woman aiming at a second-class certificate to devote

much attention to a subject, or part of a subject, that would not pay. Before the introduction of the Intermediate, Geometry, English Composition, History, Chemistry, and French, Latin and German Composition, might have been taught as they should be taught: as matters now stand it is either impossible or impolitic to do this before the student has passed; for every teacher wishes his pupils to "get through" as soon as possible into the smooth water beyond, where he will be at liberty to teach and not be forced to coach. It is in connection with this subject that the Reports of the Sub-examiners are especially valuable. The importance of the question will justify us in quoting the passages to which we would direct the attention of our readers:—

GROUP I.

Dec. 1876. "In Euclid a fair knowledge of Book-work was shown; the solution of Geometrical Problems, other than Book-work, was not frequently attempted."

June, 1877. "In Euclid the Book-work was well done, but the attempt to solve problems showed little appreciation of the spirit of Geometrical reasoning. However, it is but fair to add that some candidates did remarkably well."

July, 1878. "In Geometry the Book-work was on the whole well done; but there was an almost total failure in the selection of Deductions."

The Reports admit improvement in both Algebra and Arithmetic—particularly in the latter, which is not surprising considering the inordinate amount of attention the schools now devote to the subject. The results also go to show that continued failure in methods of study is now a direct consequence of the system. It will be observed that the efforts at solving Deductions—at independent reasoning—are apparently becoming worse and worse.

GROUP II.

Dec., 1876. "The Compositions were fair: in Grammar the Analysis and Parsing were in general good . . . The criticism of sentences of ambiguous or doubtful construction was scarcely attempted. Spelling exceptionally good."

June, 1877. "Spelling not so good as at last Examination. The Composition was very creditable. In English Grammar the analysis of the selection was well done; the parsing was poor; while the criticisms on the sentences proposed, were as a rule incorrect and pointless."

July, 1878. "Spelling in Dictation paper in general good. Gross errors in Orthography in English Literature. In general the same remarks apply to English Composition as were made at the Christmas Examination. In many of the papers a good deal of knowledge, skill, and taste was displayed; but the spelling was often illiterate, vulgar expressions too frequently occurred, and a want of training was evinced in the first and simplest elements of sentence building. Pupils who displayed no lack of skill in parsing and analysis, seemed unable to apply their knowledge synthetically in the construction of sentences. Your committee would venture to suggest once more that English Composition should go hand in hand and *pari passu* with the study of English Grammar. There seems to be some danger lest under the present system the end should be lost sight of in the means. In English Grammar, the majority of the papers were very creditable. This is one of the subjects which seems most thoroughly taught. Failures were few, but instances of high excellence were rare . . . Three-fourths of the candidates obtained 20 per cent. on Parsing and Analysis alone, but questions demanding thought were weakly handled, and the criticisms were almost invariably failures."

Our readers will observe that in this Group under the operation of the Intermediate—

(1) English Composition from being "fair" and "very creditable" has become so bad as to provoke the strongly worded remonstrances of the Departmental examiners.

(2) In the case of the English Grammar Paper, the large majority of the candidates obtained the minimum to pass, on Analysis and Parsing alone; while their efforts at applying their knowledge of Grammar in the correction and synthesis of sentences have been throughout such miserable failures that the examiners are forced to say that "under the present system there is danger lest the end be lost sight of in the means." In other words there has been "no proper assimilation of grammatical knowledge."—"Questions demanding thought were weakly answered." English Grammar, however,—pure and simple—is one of the subjects which seems most thoroughly taught. And no wonder; for while it is valued at 180, English Composition, of which Grammar and Spelling are merely the ministers, counts but 75.

GROUP III.

Dec., 1876. "One of the most satisfactory Groups examined. In History the questions demanded of the candidates not only a knowledge of particular facts, but a power of generalization, a conception of method, and a faculty of arranging disjointed details (as given in Text-books) in one comprehensive answer. These requirements were evidently possessed by many candidates. In Geography there has been considerable improvement on last year. Some of the maps were drawn with remarkable fidelity."

June, 1877. "Map-drawing and political Geography were very poor, while map Geography was very good. In History candidates exhibited considerable knowledge of facts, but

those questions requiring a faculty for generalization and inference were either misunderstood or imperfectly answered."

July, 1878. "In Geography, physical and political, the candidates manifested a good knowledge, and their familiarity with Canadian Geography, as evinced by their descriptions of the Railroad System of Ontario, was highly creditable. In Mathematical Geography and Map Drawing, the results were very poor; and the candidates' notions of the latitude and longitude of particular places were lamentably vague. The general standard reached in History is much the same as at the Christmas Examination, not higher than 40 per cent.

Questions admitting of one short definite answer were usually well dealt with, to the Examiner's comfort, while questions demanding a power of generalizing, usually elicited a copious and unsatisfactory reply. The answers to the only question on Canadian History have shown great ignorance of the subject."

The Reports speak very favourably of the English Literature. The answers go to show that the candidates generally have been familiar with the Texts, and have caught the spirit of the authors—a result which, it is unnecessary to say, cannot be ascribed to the "Intermediate" *per se*.

It will be noticed in this Group that, (1) Geography, so far as it is capable of being merely memorized, has generally been good, and is still improving; but the ability to use the facts is decreasing.

(2) The study of History has been very seriously affected. Candidates seem to have at first possessed the power of generalization, &c., but to have latterly shown an almost total want of those mental qualifications which it is one of the provinces of the study to develop, and the existence of which a system of cram would either destroy or prevent.

(3) There has been a failure in Canadian History. This is not surprising, and under the present arrangement it will be hard to prevent it. English, Roman, and Canadian History are all on the same paper, the English History generally counting at least two-thirds of the whole. Evidently neither teacher nor pupil has been so impolitic as to devote much attention to a subject which the Department values so little.

OPTIONAL GROUPS.

As to French, Latin, and German, the Examiners invariably remark that "Students who show a fair theoretical knowledge of Composition, are found incapable of applying the simplest rules of Syntax." The Report for July, 1878, is particularly severe. "In translating from Latin into English, keys had evidently been used, begetting a showy and shallow style of performance, which otherwise betrayed itself by ignominious failures in common concords in Latin Composition."

The Reports are not very demonstrative in regard to the Science Group. There seems, however, to be an improvement, particularly in Chemistry—the subject we should have expected to "look up" under the influence of the "Intermediate." The study of Natural Science has heretofore been advocated on the ground that it develops the powers of perception and induction. The attentive observer will fail to discover much evidence of this belief in the Chemistry papers as now constructed. A fair knowledge of the "Rule of Three" and a smattering of facts will bring the candidates through this Examination with flying colors.

A few words in conclusion, and we leave our readers to judge whether the defenders of the "Intermediate" or its opponents "are under the dominion not of ideas, but of words."

By "cramming," it is evidently necessary to explain, is meant not only "filling the mind with knowledge which is not so thoroughly assimilated as to become a permanent possession," but also filling the mind with knowledge which even when remembered, the possessor is unable to use. This, it is unnecessary to say, is by far the more objectionable feature of the defect. The case we have stated above bears us out, we think, in concluding that in both these senses, the "Intermediate" has not only not "lessened the tendency to cram," but is actually increasing it in many of the subjects of study. To summarize:—

(1) It has stimulated the study of those subjects and parts of subjects which may be mastered mainly by an effort of the memory.

(2) It has in many subjects made the possession of facts of more importance to both teacher and student than the ability to use them. In other words, it is strengthening the carrying power of the memory at the expense of other important faculties.

(3) It has deprived of their legitimate value, as a means of education and as results of education, several important subjects on the programme.

(4) It has not tended to develop certain mental habits enumerated above which it is the duty of every educational system to foster.

As our desire is to benefit education, and not simply to defend an opinion, we admit that these conclusions would be safer if based on observations extending over a longer interval than two years and a-half; but we set them, supported by the facts we have quoted and by the consensus of the High School Masters, against the mere "opinion" of three officials, who, in the face of successive modifications of the scheme, have from its very introduction maintained that the Intermediate has no injurious tendencies.

FIRST LESSONS IN ARITHMETIC.

BY JAMES B. GREY, INSPECTOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS, ST. CATHARINES.

IN these days when nearly every county in our Province has its Institute at which the various methods of instruction, in all the branches, are fully and ably discussed by practical men, it seems quite unnecessary to write an article on the above subject, and quite as unnecessary that space should be given to it in *THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY*; but when we consider that at our Teachers' Conventions very little time is spent in the consideration of methods of giving introductory lessons—and that it is these lessons that most severely tax the skill and ingenuity of the teacher, I think the *MONTHLY* would do good service in the cause of education, by occasionally publishing plain and practical articles on Primary School Instruction, written by experienced teachers. As it is most important, in a child's education, that we make a right beginning, and lay a proper foundation for the subsequent superstructure, it is the opinion of the best educators that the successful training of the young requires the greatest skill and the ripest experience. We find, however, in our graded schools that the highest teaching talent is given to the advanced classes, and the only qualification required of a teacher of a primary class is the lowest certificate. Such being the case we have no doubt that many a child's education is marred by the blunders and incompetency of his first teacher. With the view, therefore, of being helpful to the inexper-

enced teacher placed in charge of junior classes, let me make use of the columns of the *MONTHLY* for the following practical observations on teaching Arithmetic to beginners.

Before commencing the study of Arithmetic as a science, it is essential to the pupil's real progress, that he should be conducted through a course of oral instruction, carried on by means of objects. It is a great mistake that some make in placing text books on this subject into the hands of young children, and of requiring them to pursue the study as it is arranged in these books. The skilful teacher will begin his instructions at a point much further back than that at which authors usually commence their works. The foolish and inexcusable method of making a child commit a rule to memory, and then setting him to work with abstract numbers is rightly condemned by all teachers of any ability, and yet with all the advantages of our Institutes held twice a year, and the great number of professional works to which the teacher has access, this is the method pursued in too many instances. I have seen many teachers give a lesson to young pupils in Addition in the following way. They would first put down a few columns of abstract numbers on the blackboard, tell them to draw a line, show them where to begin, what to put down, what to carry, and all about it, and call this a first lesson in addition. If they had studied out a plan by which the facul-

ties of the child's mind would remain undeveloped under instruction they could not have succeeded better. They are performing their duty with about the same intelligence as a parent who, taking his child out for exercise, picks him up in his arms and carries him the whole way. The young teacher, I trust, will seek a more enlightened and natural way of presenting this subject to his class. As little children have no conception of number, apart from objects familiar to them, it is evident that our first operations in Arithmetic should be with concrete numbers. In the introductory course of Arithmetic which we recommend, the numerical ball frame will be found a very serviceable apparatus,—not one of those little frail articles so common in our schools, but one with a substantial frame, four feet high and three feet wide, with strong wires two or three inches apart, and balls at least an inch and a half in diameter. In this preliminary drill the following hints should be observed: The teaching should be entirely oral; applicate numbers alone should be used; no rules or definitions should be given. The course will include simple operations in the four fundamental rules in the tables of Money, Weights and Measures, and in Fractions. Our first lessons would obviously be to teach our pupils to count objects up to one hundred, not further, and to write their signs, but nothing should be said about the theory of the numerical system. Each of the numbers from one to nine inclusive will require a separate lesson, but after this the pupils will be able to master a group of numbers, as from ten to nineteen, from twenty to twenty-nine, &c., at a single exercise.

ILLUSTRATION.—Let us say that the lesson is on the number seven. The teacher, with the ball frame in his hand, moves the first ball on the

wire, the class counting "one," then the second ball, the class counting "two," and so on till seven is reached, which number the teacher repeats, the class repeating after him; then count backwards to one, and forward to seven again, going over this process as often as necessary. To make the exercise more interesting the pupils in turn might be asked to count seven marbles, seven buttons, to make seven marks on the board, to hold up seven fingers, &c. The lesson, which should not be continued more than ten minutes, would be concluded by showing what the symbol for seven is, and carefully teaching the proper way of making it. When the pupils are able to count readily any number of objects between one and one hundred, and to write the figures representing them, the next step should be the addition of small numbers. In teaching this rule the following series of exercises are recommended: 1st. Keep the receiving number constant, and vary the added number; 2nd. Keep the added number constant and vary the receiving number; 3rd. Take any number such as nine, and ask for the numbers which when added will make nine; 4th. The adding of more than two numbers.

ILLUSTRATION.—The lesson, say, is adding small numbers to "three." The teacher slides three balls to the extremity of the first wire, and brings up one, asking how many are one and three? "four;" then returning the one ball, brings up two, asking how many are two and three? "five;" then returning the two balls, he brings up four, asking how many are four and three? "seven," &c. Now put the frame aside and go over the same recitation, using other objects. In our schools, even with large children, the habit, when working examples in addition, of counting on the fingers or ticking on the slate is too frequent-

ly formed by the pupil and permitted by the teacher, but exercises of the above description would prevent such objectionable practices.

SUBTRACTION.—Series of exercises: 1st. From any given number take all the numbers below it; 2nd. Take a given number from numbers above it; 3rd. Find the subtrahend; 4th. Find the minuend.

ILLUSTRATION.—Lesson, subtract from ten the numbers below. The teacher takes the frame and sets off ten balls on the first wire; he then separates one ball from the group, and asks how many remain? "nine;" reforms the group, and separates two balls, asking how many remain? "eight;" again reforming the group, he separates three balls, and asks how many remain? "seven," &c. Proceed in the same way with other subjects, also with marks on the black-board. After the class has had sufficient practice in subtraction, it would be advisable to give examples combining Addition with Subtraction.

MULTIPLICATION.—Series of Exercises: 1st. Keep the multiplier constant; 2nd. Vary the multiplier; 3rd. Factoring. This rule should be explained through Addition.

ILLUSTRATION.—Lesson, multiply by two. The teacher uses two wires, and first slides a ball to the extremity of each, and asks how many ones are there? "two;" how many in all? "two;" then two ones or twice one are how many? "two." He next places two balls at the extremity of each wire, and asks how many balls on each? "two;" how many on both? "four;" then two twos or twice two are how many? "four." Next placing three balls at the extremity of each wire, he asks how many threes are there? "two;" how many in all? "six;" then how many are two threes or twice three? "six," &c., &c. The multiplication table should not be committed to memory until the pupil is more advanced.

DIVISION.—Series of Exercises. 1st. Keep the divisor constant. Select the smallest dividend that will contain it evenly and proceed upwards. 2nd. Divide numbers which will leave a remainder. 3rd. Questions involving Multiplication and Division.

ILLUSTRATION.—Lesson dividing by three. The teacher uses three wires of the frame, and first slides a ball to the end of each wire, asking how many balls? "three;" how many threes? "one;" how many threes in three? "one;" divide three by three, "one;" then he slides two balls to the end of each wire, and asks, as before, how many balls? "six;" how many threes? "two;" how many threes in six? "two;" divide six by three, "two." Again he slides three balls to the end of each wire, asking how many balls? "nine;" how many threes? "three;" how many threes in nine? "three;" divide nine by three, "three," &c.

FRACTIONS.—Our exercises in Fractions with young children must necessarily be of the easiest kind, and always performed through the means of objects. The teacher by dividing an apple into halves, quarters and eighths, can give to the child correct ideas of a fraction, and elicit answers to questions similar to the following: What is the difference between one-half and one-fourth? What is two times one-half? How many quarters in two?

REDUCTION is a rule that usually presents great difficulties to the learner. The reason of this is that pupils generally are taught the tables of Money, Weights and Measures, in a very objectionable manner. How often do we find classes of small children repeating these tables, and at the same time they have no understanding of the words they are using. I have known instances of children being able to repeat accurately all the tables, but who being asked what an inch was, could give no answer. Every

school should be supplied with a set of weights and measures, and through these the tables should be learned. Suppose the lesson is on measure of capacity, the teacher, instead of requiring the pupil to commit it to memory, either from the book or as written on the board, proceeds in the following intelligent way: He first exhibits to his class the various measures and allows them to be inspected, next he teaches the names of each, and by actual measurement by the pupils themselves, constructs the table. One pupil takes the pint measure and

finds that he will have to empty it twice to fill the quart, then two pints make a quart. Another takes the quart measure and finds that he will have to empty it four times to fill the gallon, then four quarts make a gallon, &c., &c. Besides the exercise afforded in the construction of the tables, many others interesting and valuable will be suggested to the skilful teacher. If pupils were taught the tables in this rational way, I see no reason why Reduction should present more than the ordinary difficulties of any new rule.

(To be continued.)

SCHOOL-BOOK EDITING AND AUTHORSHIP.

BY THE EDITOR.

NOT the least of the evils which have come of the changes in the text-books in use in the schools of Ontario, since the Central Committee replaced the Council of Public Instruction, is the unchecked development of a system of native school-book editing, trivial as to the extent of the work undertaken and often offensive in the manner in which it is accomplished. In the list of authorized books of one publishing house in our midst, at any rate, scarcely any book, however good in itself, and however satisfactorily it has met the wants of the educator in either the English or the American market, has been considered fit to find its way into Canadian schools without passing through the hands of this editor or that, or without being freighted with the super-additions of those more ambitious than modest in acting as sponsors to the books put upon the authorized list. So preva-

lent has this custom become of subjecting approved school-books to native editing, that we can quite fancy the original author hesitating to give his consent to a Canadian edition of his work, lest it should be disfigured by the puerilities of some pretentious native editor, or be disguised under the "improvements" of a would-be adapter of his labours. However this may be, this, at least, we have knowledge of, that in the case of school-books of American authorship, many of their publishers have assured the present writer that they shudder to learn that any of their copyrights have been introduced into our schools, lest it should lead to the Canadian republication of the books and to the too-often inequitable disregard of the author's rights in the yield from their sales. So alarming, indeed, have been the moral ravages upon the good name of the country by these acts of Canadian publishing houses, that

among the original makers of school books the educational system of the Province has begun to be regarded with grave suspicion, as it has seemed to develop qualities of trade-jockeying and commercial unscrupulousness, in the matter of school books, utterly foreign to the experience and business methods of honourable men. That the Minister of Education has been wholly ignorant of the manner in which the authorized text-books have of late years been manipulated in their presentation to the schools of the Province, it is almost impossible to believe; and it is as difficult to suppose that he has not seen the *motif* for sanctioning the host of adapted books which a favoured house in the trade has managed to get approved by the Central Committee, and understood the intimate bond of union between the latter body and the publishing house referred to. So embarrassing indeed have been the favours which the Minister's advisers have showered upon this firm, that it is with evident difficulty that the house can now tell which of its publications are authorized and which are not, so delightfully confusing has been the luck which recent years, through "friends at court," have brought to the firm. But the matter has a serious aspect for the Minister in the account of his stewardship due to those who, however he may have himself shut his eyes to the intrigues of his subordinates, have not been unobservant spectators of the Committee's acts in the exercise of the judicial functions confidingly entrusted to them. What justification in their behalf the Minister will be prepared to offer, we know not; but those who have the interests of education at heart will demand something more satisfying than the results of a certain impeachment investigation, against the conclusions of which the lists of authorized books published by the firm con-

cerned in the enquiry are a palpable set-off.

Of course, in discussing this matter, it will be understood that we do not hold Mr. Crooks personally accountable for the successes of the firm of publishers to whom we refer, nor do we wish to fasten upon the Minister any responsibility for the character of whatever enterprise has enabled the house in question to flaunt its triumphs in the face of the profession. With such trade-tactics we cheerfully assure ourselves Mr. Crooks has had nothing to do, nor would we readily believe that they are such as commend themselves to his sense of propriety and good taste. There are circumstances, however, which officially identify him with the matter under notice, of which it is hardly possible that he could be unconscious, and concerning which we find ourselves compelled on ethical grounds, as well as in the interest of education and of the profession, to make some further comments. These circumstances particularly point to a seeming default of administrative supervision and authority, which we could have wished the Minister had been careful enough to have exercised. We refer to the intimate commercial relations of the house of which we have been writing with the senior Inspector of the Department whose books the firm has published, and which, despite the fact that they have no official authorization, have been industriously circulated in the schools of the Province—contrary to the edicts of the Department which forbid the use of all unauthorized books. The grave impropriety of Dr. McLellan's pecuniary interest in these books while holding his official position, is a circumstance which cannot be too strongly reprobated; and the perambulatory advertisement by the author of the books in question only adds to the indecorous charac-

ter of the connection, which, as we shall see further on, is unredeemed by any special excellencies in the books themselves.

The further relationship of Dr. McLellan with Mr. Kirkland, a fellow-worker in the profitable mining operations which have been so assiduously developed of late in the Education Department, is an alliance which, considering the pickings in the ore Mr. Kirkland has been invited to make his own, the senior Inspector should have been scrupulous enough, for his own sake at least, to have discouraged. But in the "big Bonanza" which some of the Central Committee have found in the path of their duty, it was perhaps too much to expect any severe repression of the acquisitive faculty, particularly when the cue was given by the Chairman himself, in plain disregard of the proprieties of official position, by contributing to a work which subsequently must have come before him for judicial appraisal prior to official authorization. Says Mr. Kirkland, in the preface to his work on Elementary Statics, "I have to tender my thanks to several friends for suggestions and assistance which have been of the greatest service to me, and particularly to Professor Young for suggesting several important improvements in the work, and for the excellent collection of examination papers in chapter xii., which add much to the value of the book." Comment upon impropriety so grave as this, in one holding the position of Chairman of a trusted body of impartial advisers of the Minister is, we conceive, unnecessary.

With the morality of the trade enterprise that has enabled the favoured book-house to flood the schools with their publications, as we have said, we do not connect the Minister, nor do we unreservedly associate the Central Committee, as a body. The relations of the senior Inspector

with the house cannot be said, however, to have been without its influence, in connection with the diligent self-assertion of the Inspector himself, in advancing the interests of both parties in the sale of the books. That this influence has in many quarters been resisted, is creditable to the independence of the profession, who, rather than bow to the conditions of success in the introduction of the unauthorised books, preferred to conserve their self-respect and maintain the integrity of their own convictions. Nevertheless, the influences have not been inoperative among teachers, and we are not surprised to learn that thousands of copies have been sold within inconceivably limited periods, as the publisher's advertisements declare—a record of success unprecedented in the history of native publishing! The *ad captandum* character of such advertisements may be gathered from the morality which imposes credence upon the profession for the announcement, in catalogue and title-page of book, of the number of editions published of works issued by this enterprising firm of Canadian publishers. One instance will be as good as half-a-dozen, and the reader will find it in the reprint of Mason's "English Grammar," which, in the copy before us, is announced as the *25th Edition*, an issue which adds the two or three Canadian ones to the 22 or 23 editions issued by the English publishers of the work *before the book came into use in Canadian schools!* But these are matters aside from the immediate subject upon which we intend to offer some criticism, though such illustrations of the genius of puffing are but too apt to be travestied among the profession, and to mislead those who think that the prizes of success are to be gained by the persistent force of similar inflated affirmation. How far the Minister of Education, however, can tolerate the

existence of a state of things evidenced by the matters we have brought to light, is an anxious and burdensome thought; but it would be difficult to reconcile continued indifference to the effect of such disclosures upon public morals and the integrity of the profession, with a strict sense of duty and a nice appreciation of propriety, —and if we know Mr. Crooks aright, we feel that we shall not have said this in vain.

But proceeding with our criticism upon the pretentious editing and authorship which some of the books in use in the schools of the Province manifest, let us instance two examples, one as a re-edited and the other as an original work, which present such features of faultiness and pretence as should earn for them the strictures of a trenchant but salutary criticism. Those we shall refer to on the present occasion, are Miller's "Swinton's Language Lessons," and McLellan's "Mental Arithmetic."

Taking them in their order, and dissociating the former from the lavish eulogies and trade puffs which have smoothed its path into the schools, let us first state some facts about the book and the edition of the work which competes with it for professional favour. Here, however, let us be guarded from the suspicion of interesting ourselves in a matter of mere rivalry between the two publishing houses issuing editions of the book, and which, strange to say, have both secured authorization. With the war-clash of competitive publishers, we, of course, have nothing to do, but issuing from such disturbances there often arise matters which interest others than those originally concerned in the fray, and it is such matters that press for consideration at our hands. Delicate the discussion of these questions may be; but the interests of education affected by them are too important

for us to continue to ignore them. Books, moreover, are public property, and the circumstances connected with the authorization of these rival "Swintons," and their use as text-books in the schools, are public questions, with which it is the critic's duty competently and impartially to deal. First then, let us remark that the Miller edition of Swinton's book is a reprint of an American copyright issued without the consent of its author and in violation of his moral claim to protection, or to a percentage of the profits on its circulation, which we are informed he does not receive. In addition to this feature of the case, the author suffers a more positive loss in the interference of this unaccredited edition with one issued by another native house which is published by arrangement with Prof. Swinton, who participates in the profits of the sale. But this is not all; the "Miller book" further injures the author by retaining in use an earlier edition of the work in lieu of the improved and later one which has supplanted it—the issue specially republished by authority of Prof. Swinton, for Canadian schools. To complete the injustice done the author, the Education Department authorizes *both* books, and in the case of the Miller reprint, inexplicably contravenes its own rule that none but editions issued by arrangement with owners of copyright should receive the authorization of the Department. In presence of so serious an evasion of this regulation, the impolicy of the Department's approval of two editions of the same book, dissimilar in their text and leading to manifest confusion and annoyance in the schools, need hardly be discussed. From the point of view of parent and pupil however, this matter calls for more than the conventional official explanation.

But now let us look at the Miller book in its editorial aspects, and see

how much in character with the injustice which has so far been meted out to the book, is the treatment the author receives from its editor and publishers. In the first place the author gets no credit for his labour on the book beyond the incorporation of his name with that of the publishers in the title, "*Miller's Swinton's Language Lessons*"—all the rest is monopolized by the Editor, J. Macmillan, B.A., Ottawa Collegiate Institute, by whom, as the title-page goes on to say, the work is "adapted to the requirements of the Public Schools of Ontario, as an introduction to Mason's Grammar." But this discourtesy to the author is trivial compared with what meets us in the preface on the next page, where Prof. Swinton's name, appended to it in the original, is cut out, the references to himself cancelled, and the use of the personal pronoun *he* changed to *we*, to give colour to the seeming deception that the explanatory introduction is the work of the editor rather than of the author. In a supplementary "Preface to the Fifth Edition," immediately following the author's, this playing off the editor for the author receives additional support by appending the place and date, "Ottawa, Mar. 1878," to the end of the preface. Unexhausted by this labour, the editing proceeds, and with such instances of "adaptation" from the original as the following will indicate. In the author's book we frequently meet with professional hints which Prof. Swinton uniformly entitles *Teacher's Note*. In the Canadian work this as uniformly meets us as *Note to Teachers!* In the original, the author says, "Write the plural of the following nouns;" the reprint says, "Change the number, &c." Prof. Swinton suggests that "the *scholars* will change papers;" Mr. Macmillan prefers that "the *pupils*" shall do this. The author says "W. C. Bryant wrote

'Thalutopsis.'" The editor, in cutting the words out, seems to affirm that he does not believe it. A similar fate meets the statement that "Fulton invented the steamboat," and the "Hatchet Story" is deprived of the opportunity to impress its moral on Canadian youth. A few other phrases in the original are sacrificed on the altar of national sensitiveness, and Bunker's Hill and the Declaration of Independence are wiped out as historic memories in the reprint. A few instances of metamorphosing reveal themselves, of which the following are specimens: Wellington appears for Washington, Pitt for Patrick Henry, the St. Lawrence for the Mississippi, Hamilton for Boston, and London for Chicago, while "The Professor of the University" assumes the place of "The Teacher in our Academy," and "The Sword of the General" is the substitute for "The Bonnet of Mary." The drollery of all this sportive editing, however, is nothing to the fun of despoiling our cousins on the other side the line of their "inalienable right" to consider that "The American Constitution is a monument of political wisdom." In the Canadian reprint the word "British" in the sentence is substituted for the word "American," an instance of forgery in letters for which Mr. Macmillan need not be thanked if it does not seriously complicate the relations of the two countries. As in most instances of this class of crime, the work has been clumsily done, the editor having left, in the words "American and American" following the sentence, those traces of his guilt which he has not been careful to remove. To the English jurist and the historian of the Constitution, the amended phrase will present itself in as comical an aspect as will the educational book-making of Canada.

But leaving these light touches of Mr. Macmillan's editing, let us look for a little at his more serious work,

particularly at the much vaunted improvements it is claimed he has made in substituting the definitions of Mason's Grammar for those of Prof. Swinton. But what is the result? Confessedly only a hodge-podge of two books which is neither Mr. Mason's nor Prof. Swinton's, and which sacrifices the unity and completeness of Prof. Swinton's work to a presumed advantage to the Canadian student, which Mr. Macmillan's jumble of definitions makes the purest phantasy. To illustrate this, let us take chapter 35, on Conjunctions, from which we will quote the three definitions given by Swinton of this part of speech, and contrast them with those given in the Macmillan book, the 1st of which is from Mason's Grammar—the 2nd and 3rd being the same as in Swinton. From Swinton then we quote:

Definition (1), "A Conjunction joins words to words, sentences to sentences, or shows the dependence of one statement upon another."

Definition (2), "Co-ordinate Conjunctions connect words or statements of the same rank in a sentence."

Definition (3), "Subordinate Conjunctions connect a qualifying or dependent statement with a principal statement."

Complete, symmetrical, and intelligible definitions. Now we will quote the definition from Mason's Grammar given in the Macmillan work, in lieu of Swinton's definition, No. 1, as given above, and we call our readers to notice the incongruity of the substitution when ranged with the others, besides its much less lucid meaning to the pupil. The Mason substituted definition reads, "Conjunctions are connective words which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification."

How utterly foreign to the elementary character of Prof. Swinton's work is this imported definition, we need not stop to point out. To pitch-fork

it into line with the other definitions, without a word to explain the mystery of a pronominal signification, to either the pupil or to the teacher, who is not up in the technical language of the abstruse grammarian, seems the height of folly. It may be said in reply to this, however, that Mr. Mason's "pronominal" should be quite as intelligible to the public school pupil as the term "Co-ordinate." Granted, if the editor had explained, which he has not, the imported phrase, as Prof. Swinton has taken care to illustrate what are "Co-ordinate" and "Subordinate" Conjunctions. Of course we admit that it is desirable to familiarize the pupil, at as early a stage as practicable, with the definitions in grammar, which he may be called upon to cram in a subsequent and higher field of study. But we plead that it is only common-sense that the definitions we place before the young, up to a certain stage at any rate, shall be those within their comprehension. Of such patch-work as this of Mr. Macmillan, we feel assured that no good can come to the pupil, if positive harm is not done him, in grafting on to the clear, simple, and sufficing definitions of the Swinton book the stiff, unintelligible philosophizings of Mr. Mason, which can only be comprehended, if at all, by the advanced student. Grammar, at the best, is a fearful muddle to the young, and above all things it should be kept free from any adulteration in definitions, and from the amateur editing that would take the systems of those who have planned out lucid, uniform, and systematic text-books on the subject to make nonsense of them.

But let us take another illustration, where the editor's disregard of Prof. Swinton's theory of building his book, as a progressive structure in view of the pupil, is ruthlessly manifested. Chapter 18, on Adverbs, is an instance to hand. Here the author's simple

plan of citing some examples in the lesson, and leading up from these to illustration, and from illustration to definition, forms a complete whole, which can only be interfered with to spoil the work. We quote from the original book, both however being alike, until we come to the definition, which in the Miller book introduces in lieu of it the Mason one—a definition that quite destroys the happy knack of the author's method, and unmeaningly mutilates what might otherwise be an effective lesson. Here is the instance :

“CHAP. XVIII.—ADVERBS.

- “The big fire burns *brightly*.
 “That book is *exceedingly* dear. }
 “Some birds fly *very* *swiftly*.”

(1) “The word ‘*brightly*’ modifies the meaning of the verb ‘*burns*’; ‘*exceedingly*’ modifies the meaning of the adjective ‘*dear*’; ‘*very*’ modifies the meaning of the adverb ‘*swiftly*.’ ‘*Brightly*,’ ‘*exceedingly*,’ ‘*very*,’ are *adverbs*.”

(2) “DEFINITION.—An adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a verb, of an adjective, or of another adverb.”

Now let us give the Mason definition which appears in the Miller book, in lieu of the above, and which fits its place in the lesson pretty much as does a patch of brown paper on a broken pane of glass :

“An adverb is a word which shows the conditions of place, time, manner, degree, cause, effect, &c., which modify or limit an action or attribute.”

The injustice to Mr. Mason, in putting *him* forward to disregard the unities of “place, time, manner,” &c., in such work as the above, is obviously not the least of the evils of this sort of editing which has had the approval of the Education Department. Fortunately for that gentleman, however,

although the Miller firm have widely paraded the fact that the definitions in their Swinton book have been brought into harmony with those of Mr. Mason, such is limitedly the case. For out of 25 definitions, in all, in the book, 12 of them are Prof. Swinton's; three or four more are of neither author, or are only in part Mason's; the few remaining being Mason's solely.

But were this otherwise, as we have already hinted, the adaptation of Swinton's definitions and classification to those of Mason's Grammar would be of questionable advantage. For the object of such a work as Swinton's is to teach grammar, not theoretically, but practically,—in developing the pupil's power of expression,—and this can best be done by giving directions couched in plain language rather than in the elaborate phraseology of the grammarian. As Prof. Swinton himself says, in the preface to his book :—

“This work is an attempt to bring the subject of language home to children at the age when knowledge is acquired in an objective way, by practise and habit rather than by the study of rules and definitions.

“In pursuance of this plan, the traditional presentation of grammar in a bristling array of classifications, nomenclatures, and paradigms has been discarded. The pupil is brought into contact with the living language itself; he is made to deal with speech, to turn it over in a variety of ways, to handle sentences; so that he is not kept back from the exercise—so profitable and interesting—of *using* language till he has mastered the anatomy of the grammarian. Whatever of technical grammar is here given is *evolved* from work previously *performed* by the pupil.”

These remarks of the author the editor of Miller's Swinton must surely have overlooked. But the harmonizing of the two books claimed by the publishers for the labour of Mr. Macmillan, as will be seen, has fortunately not been done, whatever the editor set out to do; and the citation of a few further in-

stances, if we do not weary the reader will irrefutably prove this.

To begin with the definition of an adjective (p. 28) is adapted from the old edition of Mason, and is quite different in form from that given in the new one. Mason calls *a* or *an* a Quantitative Adjective; in Miller's Swinton, it is called a Demonstrative one. On page 46 we have the statement that there are *two kinds* of phrases, instead of three, and the basis of the classification is not given. On page 52 we have an explanation of "complete" and "incomplete" verbs which, though quite rational, is altogether different from what is found in Mason. The latter author always speaks of verbs of *complete* or *incomplete* predication, and it is desirable that the phraseology, if possible, should have been retained. On page 57 *he, she, and it*, are called demonstrative pronouns, which is in harmony with Mason, but is probably a faulty classification. On page 58 we have the statement that the various *forms* taken by a pronoun are called *its cases*. A pupil would be apt to conclude from this that the pronoun *it* has only *two* cases. Again, on page 68 we have a definition of a "Compound Tense"—which is different altogether from Mason's. Moreover, it does not show what is necessary to make up a compound tense. Mason has nine primary tenses, and three of continued action. Here we have only six. The definitions on p. 75 do not harmonize in form with those of Mason. On page 79 we have the statement that there are three participles in English—the Present, the Past, and the Perfect. On pages 76, 147 they are called Imperfect, Perfect, and Compound Perfect—different names, quite unnecessary to apply to the Participles, and inevitably confusing. The Participles on pp. 69, 73, formed by inflection are indicated as two only, while on p. 79 we find it stated that

there are three. Mason (p. 63) mentions but two. On p. 88 we have the statement, "In the sentence, 'Columbus discovered America,' the simple predicate is *discovered America*." According to Mason, the predicate is *discovered* only. (See Mason, p. 137).—The use of the term *complement* in the book is quite different from that of Mason. (See pp. 89, 91). Finally, on p. 102, the word *mist* is not parsed correctly, according to Mason; (See the latter, on p. 147); and it is even in that authority not correctly parsed.

There are many other points of contrast between the two books, which as strongly tell against the editing attempted in the Miller Swinton as any we have spoken of, but to these it is unnecessary to refer in detail. Some redeeming features are, of course, to be met with in the editor's work, but these are so few as not to invalidate our contention that the claims of excellence for Mr. Macmillan's adaption are insufficiently grounded, and in the interest of education may be said to be reprehensibly misleading. The mechanical dissimilarity of the books, from another point of view, is not the least noticeable feature of difference that strikes the reviewer's eye. Some of the chapters particularly suffer in this respect, that "On the Kinds of Words," on p. 11, for instance, where the visual effect of the page, in the original, in impressing the lesson, is wholly lost to the pupil by reason of its mutilation in the Canadian reprint.

In this latter respect the author's later edition is again an improvement over both the Miller reprint and the edition from which it is reprinted. As a text-book, in its professional and educational aspects, moreover, it stands on a higher plane of excellence than the older book, which it far surpasses, not only in the plan upon which it has been prepared, but in the more systematic arrangement and orderly

development of the subject of which it treats. But with the author's "New Language Lessons," in either its improved literary or mechanical features, we are not now concerned. This is a matter of which the profession have now an opportunity of judging for themselves. It was otherwise with the "Miller Swinton," as, when it appeared comparatively few teachers were so intimately acquainted with the edition from which it was reprinted as to be able to discover the character of the editing to which the work, in Mr. Macmillan's hands, had been subjected. And in the interest of the schools, as well as in justice to Prof. Swinton, it is this work we have here attempted, viz. : to apply to one book, of the many that require it among our authorized school books, those tests of criticism by which faulty work is distinguished from honest work, and to bring to the bar of public opinion the too common but objectionable practices of publishers who are responsible for the issue of such a work as the one we have been examining. Criticism, it must be remembered, exacts from school manuals the same regard for honest, honour-

able performance, in author or editor, as it exacts from other literary work; and it is an educational misfortune, if, instigated by professional arrogance, or at the bidding of indiscreet publishers, the responsibilities of editing are undertaken without regard to the pre-requisites of the art, or in indifference to what ought to be the desirable results of its exercise. Too often, unfortunately, such work is thoughtlessly undertaken, at the solicitation of importunate and self-interested publishers,—and it seems so easy to edit a book, or to attain, at least, to the rank of an "appendix-author,"—but those who heedlessly fall into the trap sometimes live to repent it. If it be any consolation to such as have become victims to this enticement, we may say that literature is most often the severer sufferer.

Our remarks having grown to such length we have thought it better, rather than extend them here, or return to the subject next month, to throw the criticism upon Dr. McLellan's work we had designed appending to this, into the form of a book review, in which department it will be found in the present number.

WHAT IS RELIGION?—In the course of the Muir lectures on "Science and Religion," in the University of Edinburgh, the Rev. Principal Fairbairn, of Bradford, thus answers the question, What is religion?—Religion, they might say provisionally, was a consciously realised relation—the relation of man to God, and God to man. It was neither knowledge, whether described as intuition or thought, nor feeling, whether of dependence or of admiration, nor as if it were an external conscience, nor conduct. It was none of these, yet it was all of these. No one of these included it, yet all entered into its nature and its essence. There could not be religion without knowledge, for faith was knowledge; man must believe or know an object was, before he could sustain any

relation to it; to the unknown he could stand in no relation or conscious relation whatever. There could be no religion without thought, for to conceive was to think, and an object believed was an object conceived. Nor could it exist without feeling, for feeling implied thought. To be conscious of feeling was to be conscious first of ourselves as its subject, and second, of something not ourselves as its cause or object. Nor could it be apart from conscience, which was at once knowledge and feeling—a knowledge of the difference between acts and the feeling of obligation to do acts of a certain kind; and so a relation such as was realized in religion was eminently fruitful of the acts judged and enjoined by conscience.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND.

BY THOMAS HUGHES, AUTHOR OF "TOM BROWN'S SCHOOL DAYS," ETC.

From the "North American Review."

[NOTZ.—No apology, it is thought, will be deemed necessary for giving place in these pages to the instructive papers on "The Public Schools of England," now being contributed to an American review by so high an authority as Mr. Thomas Hughes, M.P. The interest of the subject for our readers, and the rich detail of information concerning the schools given by Mr. Hughes, will make ample amends for the length of the articles.—ED.]

PART I.

"Well, but will you tell me, after all, what is a public school?" The propounder of this was an American gentleman, of high culture himself and deeply interested in the subject of education. He was not satisfied with the state of things in his own country, and was persuaded that the time had come when an effort must be made to meet the demand for some other stepping-stone for their boys than the common school or the private boarding-school, between the home of the American gentry and the universities. He had read such documents as he could lay hands on as to the English public-schools system, and had convinced himself that there might be something in it which would be of use to him in his search. At any rate he would run over and study it for himself. Accordingly, having obtained such letters as he thought might be of use to him, he sailed for England, and, after consultation with and under the advice of some of those to whom they were addressed, made a tour of inspection which comprised most of the English public schools. He had been much pleased with his adventures; had seen a number of fine buildings, some of them of rare historical interest; had got much information as the methods of study and discipline; had looked on at any number of cricket matches and other games, and been much impressed by the skill and activity of the boys, and the beauty of their raiment; had talked with masters, and prefects, and other boys, big and little, and had come back full of all manner of facts and figures. But in one thing he had failed, and in a matter, too, which he not unreasonably held to lie at the very root of his inquiry; and so, after his six weeks' wanderings, he returned to his original mentor in London, before starting on his return voyage, with the

above question, "What *is* a public school?" Many replies, indeed, he had heard, but none which had at all satisfied him. Thus he had been told by a sixth-form boy in the Eton eleven, that the only public schools in England were those which played against each other in a yearly match at Lord's cricket-ground; according to the captain of Westminster, a royal foundation was the true test; other authorities of equal weight had limited public schools to those entitled to contend for the Elcho shield and Spencer cup at the Wimbledon gatherings of the National Rifle Association. A Liberal under-master at Rugby had defined public schools as those which possessed a foundation controlled by persons in no way interested in the profits of the institution; while at Shrewsbury he had been assured that a charter of some Plantagenet or Tudor sovereign was of the essence of a true public school. From his own observations and inquiries, however, he remained quite dissatisfied with all and each of these definitions, and came back with steady persistence to the starting-point, "What is a public school—in your country?"

The question is one of considerable difficulty. To some extent, however, the answer has been furnished by the Royal Commission appointed in 1861 to inquire into the nature and application of the endowments and revenues, and into the administration and management of certain specified colleges and schools commonly known as the Public Schools Commission. Nine are named in the Queen's letter of appointment, viz., Eton, Winchester, Westminster, the Charterhouse, St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury. The reasons probably which suggested this selection were, that the nine named foundations had in the course of centuries emerged from the mass of endowed

grammar-schools, and had made for themselves a position which justified their being placed in a distinct category, and classed as "public schools." It will be seen as we proceed that all these nine have certain features in common, distinguishing them from the ordinary grammar schools which exist in almost every county town in England. Many of these latter are now waking up to the requirements of the new time and following the example of their more illustrious sisters. The most notable examples of this revival are such schools as those at Sherborne, Giggleswick, and Tunbridge Wells, which, while remodeling themselves on the lines laid down by the Public Schools Commissioners, are to some extent providing a training more adapted to the means and requirements of our middle classes in the nineteenth century than can be found at any of the nine public schools. But twenty years ago the movement which has since made such astonishing progress was scarcely felt in quiet country places like these, and the old endowments were allowed to run to waste in a fashion which is now scarcely credible.

The same impulse which has put new life into the endowed grammar-schools throughout England has worked even more remarkably in another direction. The Victorian age bids fair to rival the Elizabethan in the number and importance of the new schools which it has founded and will hand on to the coming generation. Marlborough, Haileybury, Uppingham, Rossall, Clifton, Cheltenham, Radley, Malvern, and Wellington College, are nine schools which have taken their place in the first rank, and, while following reverently the best traditions of the older foundations, are in some respects setting them an example of what the public-school system may become at its best, and how it may be adapted to meet new conditions of national life.

In order, then, to get clear ideas on the general question, we must keep these three classes of school in mind—the nine old foundations recognized in the first instance by the Royal Commission of 1861; the old foundations which have remained local grammar-schools until within the last few years, but are now enlarging their bounds, conforming more or less to the public-school system, and becoming national institutions; and, lastly, the modern foundations which started from the first as public schools, professing to adapt themselves to the new circumstances and requirements of modern English life. The public schools of England fall under one or other of these categories. No one who understands the subject would question the claim of the modern foundations named above

to the title of public schools, in the same sense in which it is applied to the nine. Of the schools in the second category only a certain number can be classed as public, as distinguished from local grammar-schools, and perhaps the best rough method for ascertaining which these are is furnished by the conferences of head masters, now held yearly, at the end of the summer term. Where the governing bodies of grammar-schools desire to conform to the public-school system, it may be assumed that they will be represented by their head masters on these occasions. Tried by this test there are in all some forty foundations, which may fairly be called the public schools of England, and which would have to be studied by any American educational reformer, desirous of satisfying himself what, if any, portion of the system can be carried across the Atlantic to any useful purpose.

We may now turn to the historic side of the question, dealing first, as is due to their importance, with the nine schools of our first category. The oldest, and in some respects most famous of these, is Winchester School, or, as it was named by its founder, William of Wykeham, the College of St. Mary of Winchester, founded in 1382. Its constitution still retains much of the impress left on it by the great Bishop of the greatest Plantagenet King, five centuries ago. Toward the end of the fourteenth century Oxford was already the centre of English education, but from the want of grammar-schools boys went up by hundreds untaught in the simplest rudiments of learning, and when there lived in private hostels or lodging-houses, in a vast throng, under no discipline, and exposed to many hardships and temptations. In view of this state of things, William of Wykeham founded his grammar-school at Winchester and his college at Oxford, binding the two together, so that the school might send up properly trained scholars to the university, where they would be received at New College, in a suitable academical home, which should in its turn furnish governors and masters for the school. As might have been expected, the school itself took a collegiate shape, and under the original statutes consisted of a warden, ten fellows, seventy scholars, a head and second master, three chaplains, three clerks, and sixteen choristers. All these were amply provided for by the original endowments, but in addition the statutes provided for the admission of ten "fili nobilium ac valentium personarum dicti collegii specialium amicorum," who were to be educated in college at their own charges. How gently England deals with old institutions may be seen by comparing the Winchester of to-day with that of William of Wykeham. As time

went on the college property increased enormously in value, and long periods occurred in which a very different estimate from that of the Bishop came to be put on the higher education. And so, while the school never altogether failed in its work, great abuses crept in. College and school were kept as a close borough; the fellowships, pleasant sinecures of some five hundred pounds a year, and a good house were monopolized by the founders' kin and old Wykehamists of quiet tastes and popular manners; the splendid scholarships which carried their fortunate possessors to New College, franked them through the university, and often provided for them for life, were given without competition of any kind. All this is changed. The old connection between school and college has been preserved, but both have been thrown open, with the result that England does not contain two more satisfactory places of education. The governing body has been thoroughly reformed, but it still consists of a warden and eleven fellows, of whom four only, instead of ten, are stipendiary and seven honorary. The stipendiary fellows are elected by the whole governing body, and must be persons distinguished in literature or science, or who have done long and eminent service to the school as masters. The honorary fellows, except the Warden of New College, who is one *ex officio*, have no payment from the college funds, and must be persons qualified by position or attainments to be of use to the school. The collegers, or foundation scholars (who get a first-class education almost free) have increased to one hundred, selected by open competition, the cleverest boys being attracted from all parts of the country by the value of these prizes. The ten "*filiii valentium personarum*" have increased, under the name of commoners, to upwards of two hundred, who are boarded in the masters' houses.

The salary of the warden is now fixed at £1,700 a year and a house, and that of each of the four paid fellows at £700 (instead of ten at the lower rate named above). The head master gets from all sources about £3,000 a year, the second master £1,400, and the under-masters according to the length and value of their service, from £250 to £800, besides the profits of boarders in the case of those who have houses. The college endowments consist of real estate situate mainly in Hants and Wilts, producing an average income of upwards of £17,000, and of stock producing another £2,000 or thereabouts in dividends. There are also thirteen church livings in the patronage of the warden and fellows ranging between £100 and £600 a year.

We must now turn to the monitorial sys-

tem, which is common in principle to all public schools, though differing largely in detail. Its origin may be traced to William of Wykeham's statutes, by which it is provided that "in each of the chambers three scholars of good character, and more advanced than their fellows in age, discretion, and knowledge, shall be chosen to superintend their chamber-fellows in their studies, to oversee them diligently, and to certify and inform the warden and head master from time to time respecting their behaviour, conversation, and progress." There are six chambers in college, and eighteen prefects, to which number twelve have since been added for commoners—of these, eight have power only in chambers, while the remainder are full prefects (*plena potestate prefecti*), with power everywhere. Of these, again, five "officers" have charge of the hall, schools, library, and chapel, of whom the prefect of the hall is the chief, being "the governor of the school among the boys," and their organ of communication with the head master. The five officers are chosen by the warden, in consultation with the head master, and all are invested by him with their authority in a traditional form of words, of which the operative ones are "*præficio te sociis concameraribus, præficio te aulæ.*" The system of fagging is connected with this government by prefects. They and they only have power to fag, and the only boys exempted from fagging are those in the fifth form. It is unnecessary for our purpose to consider the somewhat elaborate details of the traditional system, which at one time pressed heavily on the liberty and studies of the lower boys. At present fagging is reduced to running on errands, attending at breakfast and tea, and fielding for a certain time at cricket. The prefects' powers include that of "tunding" or punishing corporally. We must defer any remark on the general system for the present, but may just note here that, in the milder form which it has taken of late years, fagging is undoubtedly popular among the boys at Winchester who are subject to it, and, strange as it may seem to transatlantic readers,, would not be abolished to-morrow were it put to the vote of the forms below the fifth.

Winchester School, though under the shadow of the founder-Bishop's own cathedral, has a fine chapel of its own, in which there are daily morning prayers, conducted by a master, consisting of a portion of the Liturgy with chanting. The hours of work in school are on two days of the week between six and seven and on the other days between four and five hours, besides which the boys in the higher forms have composition and examination work to do out of school-hours. A hard-working

sixth-form boy will generally study seven hours a day, and perhaps from nine to ten before examinations, and will give probably on an average three more hours a day to cricket and other games. The boys are allowed to go where they please during play-hours, except in the city, which is out of bounds.

Our notice of the remaining schools must be even more meagre than the skeleton sketch we have given of the oldest of them. Next in date comes the royal foundation of Eton, or "The College of the Blessed Mary of Eton, near Windsor." It was founded by Henry VI., A.D., 1446, upon the model of Winchester, with a collegiate establishment of a provost, ten fellows (reduced to seven in the reign of Edward IV.), seventy scholars, and ten chaplains (now reduced to two, who are called "conducts"), and a head and lower master, ten lay clerks, and twelve choristers. The provost and fellows are the governing body, who appoint the head master, and claim the right to name the provost also, though this has always in practice been done by the Crown. Around this centre the great school, numbering now a thousand boys, has gathered, the college, however, still retaining its own separate organization and traditions. Besides the splendid buildings and playing-fields at Eton, the college holds real property of the yearly value of upwards of £20,000, and forty livings ranging from £100 to £1,200 of yearly value. The income of the provost is about £2,000 a year, and of the paid fellows £850. The offices of vice-provost, bursar, precentor, sacrist, and librarian have until recently been also held by fellows. King's College, Cambridge, stands in much the same relation to Eton as New College, Oxford, to Winchester, being fed by the King's scholars year by year, and having had until recently the practical monopoly of the masterships at the school. King's has been now thrown open to all Eton boys, oppidans as well as scholars. Besides the King's scholarships, there are sixteen other scholarships at the universities yearly competed for at Eton. The system of private tuition prevails there more than at any other of the public schools, and the school-work is consequently lighter. There is daily chapel with choral service on saints' days, at which the conducts, one of whom acts also as curator to the parish of Eton, officiate. The monitorial system scarcely exists at Eton, except in college, the sixth-form boys being, however, expected to preserve order, and having the right to fag, which is shared also by the fifth form. The river competes with the playing-fields at Eton, where rowing is at least as popular as cricket, and the cap-

tain of the boats even a greater personage than the captain of the eleven. The boys are free to go where they please in play-hours, including the town of Windsor; but are expected to "shirk," or, in other words, to run away, when they meet a master outside the playing-fields. The prestige of Eton, arising from its royal foundation and proximity to Windsor Castle, and its convenient distance from London, has made it the fashionable school for many generations, and has attracted to it large numbers of boys, the sons of rich parents, who look more to pleasant surroundings than high intellectual culture, and desire to provide them at an early age for their sons.

The school next in date stands out in sharp contrast to Winchester and Eton. It is St. Paul's School, founded by Dean Colet, the friend of Erasmus, A.D. 1512, for the teaching of a hundred and fifty-three boys "of all nations and countries." The number is that of the miraculous draught of fishes, which is supposed to have been the Dean's guide in fixing it. There is no distinction among the boys, as at Winchester and Eton, between scholars and commoners or oppidans, every boy having his education free, subject only to the payment at his admission of 4*s.*, "once and for ever, for writing of his name." Dean Colet was before all things a citizen (son of a famous Lord Mayor) and a radical reformer, and his notions of school management stand out in sharp contrast to those of Bishop and King. He will have no machinery of warden, fellows, and the rest, or allied college at the university, and has little confidence in clerical management. So he constituted the Mercers' Guild, of which he was an hereditary member, the governing body of his school, to whom he conveyed certain estates in Buckinghamshire for its maintenance. By his statute the masters, wardens, and assistants of the Mercers' Company are to choose annually two honest and substantial men of their fellowship as surveyors of the school, who shall take the charge and management for the year. The two surveyors, however, in practice only look after the accounts and pay the masters' salaries, referring all questions of management to the court of assistants of the company. The Dean's plan in its working contrasts in some respects favourably, in others unfavourably, with those of Bishop and King: favourably as regards the management of the estates. These in Colet's time produced an income of less than £200, which under the management of the Mercers' Company, has now risen to £10,000. And while the warden, provost, and fellows have absorbed the lion's share of the endowments at Eton and Winchester, the Mercers' Com-

pany have never raised the salaries fixed for the surveyors in 1602 at £4 a year apiece, while the expenses of the court of assistants in connection with the school have been kept under £250 a year. On the other hand, the nomination of the scholars has become a matter of patronage, each member of the court of assistance taking them in rotation. They have also jealously guarded their powers, so that the head master has less control than in other schools, not being allowed even the selection and appointment of his staff. This under Colet's ordinances consisted of a head master, a sur-master, and a chaplain, but has been enlarged to seven masters, with adequate salaries, the head master's being £900 with the rents of two houses at Stepney and a residence adjoining the school. There is no chapel attached to St. Paul's School, the original one having been burned in the great fire and never rebuilt; but Latin prayers, two of which were written by Erasmus, are read by the captain of the school twice a day. The whole of the head form (the eighth) act as monitors; but, as the school is practically a day-school, their powers and duties are limited. The school buildings still stand at the east end of St. Paul's Churchyard, fronting on one of the noisiest thoroughfares in the city. The suggestion of the Public Schools Commissioners for their removal to some more retired part of the metropolis, where a small playground or at least five courts and a gymnasium might be provided, is still under the consideration of the Mercers' Company. The exhibitions to the universities belonging to the school are (in the opinion of the late head master) too numerous and too easily obtained. No English school has a higher scholastic tradition than St. Paul's. William Lely, the grammarian and first teacher of Gresham in London, was the first high master, and Camden and Leland among the earliest scholars, who have been followed by an illustrious succession from Milton to the present Bishop of Manchester. But of late there has been (the Commissioners remark) a growing tendency in the court of assistants to narrow the sphere of its operations, and convert it from a public school into a mere charitable foundation, useful to individuals, but of little public importance.

Shrewsbury School, which follows next in order of seniority, claims a royal foundation, but is in reality the true child of the town's folk. The dissolution of the monasteries destroyed also the seminaries attached to many of them, to the great injury of popular education. This was specially the case in Shropshire, so in 1551 the bailiffs, burgesses, and inhabitants of Shrewsbury and the neighborhood petitioned Edward VI. for a grant of

some portion of the estates of the dissolved collegiate churches for the purpose of founding a free school. The King consented, and granted to the petitioners the appropriated tithes of several livings and a charter, but died before the school was organized. It was in abeyance during Mary's reign, but opened in the fourth year of Elizabeth, 1562, by Thomas Aston, who soon drew to it not only the sons of citizens of Shrewsbury, but those of the gentry of Shropshire, and the neighboring counties. Sir Philip Sidney, Fulke Greville, and Robert Devereux, afterward Earl of Essex, were among his pupils. Discussions which at once arose as to the government of the school between the corporation of Shrewsbury and Mr. Aston, representing the Crown, were settled in 1577, temporarily, when the school ordinances were passed by which the Bishop of Litchfield was named visitor, the appointment of head master was vested in the master and fellows of St. John's, and the practical control and management in the town bailiffs and head master. There has been a long struggle over the foundation, the town contending for a practical monopoly of its emoluments and benefits, which, if successful, would have degraded Shrewsbury from the rank of a public school. It has ended by the adoption of the scheme of the Public Schools Commissioners, and the governing body now consists of thirteen members—three named by the corporation of Shrewsbury, three by the Crown, one by each of the colleges of Christ Church, Oxford, and St. John's and Magdalen, Cambridge, the remaining four being elected by the governing body itself. The right of gratuitous education is limited to forty free scholars. The thirty-four scholarships and exhibitions to the universities have been thrown open. The monitorial system is carried out by twelve præpositors, who, upon entering office, engage in writing on the part of the school with the head master to do and prevent certain things. They read the lessons in chapel, call over the names, and represent the school before the head master. They have the power of setting impositions within certain limits but none of caning. Four fags are allotted to the præpositors' room, who serve by weekly rotation, laying breakfast and tea and running messages; but there is no individual fagging or fagging at games. The revenues of the school amount to £3,100 a year, arising almost entirely from tithe-rent charges. The head master's emoluments, including profits of his boarding-house, are about £2,000 a year.

(To be continued.)

ARTS DEPARTMENT.

[NOTE.—We publish this month Solutions to the Algebra Problems which appeared in the February issue; also, a few original and selected problems, which we trust will be of interest to the profession. ARCHD. MACMURCHY, M. A., Math. Ed., C. E. M.]

SOLUTIONS TO THE ALGEBRA PROBLEMS
FURNISHED IN FEBRUARY, BY MR.
W. J. ROBERTSON, B.A.

$$1. (a) 2a^2b^2 + 2bc^2 + 2c^2a^2 - a^4 - b^4 - c^4 = (a+b+c)(a+b-c)(b+c-a)(c+a-b).$$

But $2a+2b+2c=2x+2y+2z$ or $a+b+c=x+y+z$ and $a+b-c=z$, $b+c-a=x$, $c+a-b=y$. \therefore substituting we have $(a+b+c)(b+c-a)(c+a-b)(a+b-c) = (x+y+z)xyz$.

$$(b). (x+y+z)(xy+yz+zx) - xyz = (x+y)(y+z)(z+x) = 2a \times 2b \times 2c = 8abc.$$

$$2. (a^2+b^2+c^2)^2 + 2(bc+ca+ab)^2 - 3(a^2+b^2+c^2)(ab+bc+ca)^2 =$$

$$(a^2+b^2+c^2+2ab+2bc+2ca) \left\{ (a^2+b^2+c^2)^2 + 2(bc+ca+ab)^2 - 2(a^2+b^2+c^2)(bc+ca+ab) - (bc+ca+ab)^2 \right\} = (a+b+c)^2 \left\{ a^2+b^2+c^2 - ab - bc - ca \right\}^2$$

$$= \left\{ (a+b+c)(a^2+b^2+c^2 - ab - bc - ca) \right\}^2 = (a^3+b^3+c^3 - 3abc)^2.$$

$$3. \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} = \frac{4}{a}; \therefore \frac{b+c}{bc} = \frac{4}{a};$$

$$\therefore ab+ac = 4bc.$$

$$\text{Again: } (a+b-c)^2 + 2(b+c-a)^2 + (c+a-b)^2 = 2(b+c)^2 - 24abc + 6a^2b + 6a^2c = 2(b+c)^2 - 6a(4bc - ab - ac) = 2(b+c)^2, \text{ since } 4bc = ab + ac.$$

$$4. a(b-c)^2 - c(b+c)^2 = 0;$$

$$a = \left(\frac{b+c}{b-c} \right)^2$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{c}} = \frac{b+c}{b-c}; \therefore \frac{\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{c}} = \frac{b}{c}.$$

$$\text{or } \frac{c}{b} = \frac{\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{c}};$$

$$\therefore \frac{c}{b} \times \frac{\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{c}} = \frac{\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{c}} \times \frac{\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{c}} = 1.$$

5. If $x+c$ be a measure of x^2+ax+b , then $c^2-ac+b=0$ or $b=ac-c^2$.

If $x+c$ be a measure of $x^2+a_1x+b_1$, then $c^2-a_1c+b_1=0$ or $b_1=a_1c-c^2$.

$$\text{But L.C.M.} = \frac{(x^2+ax+b)(x^2+a_1x+b_1)}{x+c}$$

$$= \frac{(x^2+ax+ac-c^2)(x^2+a_1x+a_1c-c^2)}{x+c}$$

$$= (x+a-c)(x^2+a_1x+a_1c-c^2)$$

$$= x^2 + (a+a_1-c)x^2 + (aa_1-c^2)x + (a-c)(a_1-c)c.$$

6. Divide as in the process of finding G.C.M., and put last remainder = 0, the value will be found to be 5.

7. Put $x^2+px^2+qx^2+rx-s^2 = (x^2+mx-s)(x+nx+s)$. Multiply out and equate coefficients. Eliminate m and n , from the different = ns thus obtained and the result is,

$$s^2 = \frac{r^2}{p-4q}.$$

8. Since $x^2+px+q=0$ has $=l$ roots $p^2=4q$; $\therefore q = \frac{p^2}{4}$; $\therefore ax^2+p(a+b)x+q(a+2b)$

$$= ax^2 + p(a+b)x + \frac{p^2}{4}(a+2b) = 0$$

$$= \left(x + \frac{p}{2} \right) \left\{ ax + \frac{p}{2}(a+2b) \right\} = 0;$$

$$\therefore x = -\frac{p}{2} \text{ and } x = -\frac{p}{2a}(a+2b).$$

$$9. \left. \begin{aligned} x^2(y+z) &= a^3 \\ y^2(z+x) &= b^3 \\ z^2(x+y) &= c^3 \\ xyz &= abc \end{aligned} \right\}; \therefore x^2y^2z^2$$

$$(x+y)(y+z)(z+x) = a^3b^3c^3; \text{ but } xyz = abc; \therefore (x+y)(y+z)(z+x) = abc.$$

$$x^2(y+z) + y^2(z+x) + z^2(x+y) + 2xyz = abc; \therefore a^3 + b^3 + c^3 + 2abc = abc; \therefore a^3 + b^3 + c^3 + abc = 0.$$

$$10. \quad x^3 + \frac{1}{x} + 3\left(x + \frac{1}{x}\right) = m; \text{ i.e. } \left(x + \frac{1}{x}\right) \\ x^3 - \frac{1}{x} - 3\left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right) = n; \text{ i.e. } \left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right)^3 \\ = m; \therefore x + \frac{1}{x} = \sqrt[3]{m} \\ = n; \therefore x - \frac{1}{x} = \sqrt[3]{n}$$

adding and subtract-

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{ing we obtain } x = \frac{\sqrt[3]{m} + \sqrt[3]{n}}{2} \text{ and } \frac{1}{x} = \frac{m\sqrt[3]{m} - n\sqrt[3]{n}}{2}; \therefore 4 = m^{\frac{2}{3}} - n^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

11. If $x^3 + py^2 + qz^2$ is \div ble by $x^2 - (ay + bz)x + abyz$, it is \div ble by $(x - ay)(x - bz)$. \therefore putting $x = ay$ we obtain $a^2y^2 + py^2 + qz^2 = 0$ (1).

Similarly putting $x = bz$ we obtain $b^2z^2 + a^2y^2 + py^2 + qz^2 = 0$ (2). $\therefore a^2y^2 = b^2z^2$ and $z^2 = \frac{b^2}{a^2}y^2$ substituting this value in (1) $a^2y^2 + py^2 + q\frac{b^2}{a^2}y^2 = 0$; divide through by a^2y^2 , then $1 + \frac{p}{a^2} + \frac{q}{b^2} = 0$.

12. Since a, b, c are in H. P. $b = \frac{2ac}{a+c}$

or $2b^2 = \frac{8a^2c^2}{(a+c)^2}$

Now $a^2 + c^2 > 2ac$; $\therefore a^4 + 2a^2c^2 + c^4 > 4a^2c^2$ (1), also $a^2 + c^2 > 2ac$ and $2ac = 2ac$; $\therefore 2ac(a^2 + c^2) > 4a^2c^2$ (2); \therefore adding (1) and (2), $(a^2 + c^2)^2 + 2ac(a^2 + c^2) > 8a^2c^2$ $\therefore a^2 + c^2 > \frac{8a^2c^2}{(a+c)^2} > 2b^2$.

13. (a). Let $s = 1^2x + 2^2 \cdot x^2 + 3^2 \cdot x^3 + 4^2x^4 + \&c.$ then $s \cdot x = 1^2 \cdot x^2 + 2^2 \cdot x^3 + 3^2 \cdot x^4 + 4^2 \cdot x^5 + \&c.$ $\therefore s(1-x) = 1^2 \cdot x + 3x^2 + 5x^3 + 7x^4 + \&c.$ $\therefore s \cdot x(1-x) = 1^2 \cdot x^2 + 3x^3 + 5x^4 + 7x^5 + \&c.$ $\therefore s(1-x)^2 = x + 2x^2 + 2x^3 + 2x^4 + \&c.$

$$\therefore s(1-x)^2 = x + \frac{2x^2}{1-x} = \frac{x(1+x)}{1-x}$$

$$\therefore s = \frac{x(1+x)}{(1-x)^3}$$

(b). $\frac{1^2}{2} + \frac{2^2}{2^2} + \frac{3^2}{2^3} + \&c. = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{2})}{(1-\frac{1}{2})^3}$

(since $x = \frac{1}{2}$) $= \frac{\frac{3}{4}}{\frac{1}{8}} = 6.$

14. Let $x =$ 1st term and d common diff. of corresponding Arith. Progression, then:—

$$\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x+d} = \frac{1}{4a+2b+c} \quad (1),$$

$$\frac{1}{x+d} - \frac{1}{x+2d} = \frac{1}{9a+3b+c} \quad (2),$$

$$\frac{1}{x+2d} - \frac{1}{1c+3d} = \frac{1}{16a+4b+c} \quad (3);$$

$$\therefore \frac{x(x+d)}{d} = 4a+2b+c \quad (4) \text{ or } x^2+dx=d$$

$$(4a+2b+c) \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{(x+a)(x+2d)}{d} = 9a+3b+c \quad (5) \text{ or } x^2+3dx+$$

$$2d^2 = d(9a+3b+c) \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{(x+2d)(x+3d)}{d} = 16a+4b+c \quad (6) \text{ or}$$

$$x^2+5dx+6d^2 = d(16a+4b+c) \quad (9)$$

$$\text{from (7) and (8) } 2dx+2d^2 = d(5a+b) \quad (10)$$

$$\text{from (8) and (9) } 2dx+4d^2 = d(7a+b) \quad (11)$$

$$\therefore 2d^2 = d(2a) \text{ or } d = a,$$

Substituting a for d in (10), we obtain $x = \frac{3a+b}{2}$

\therefore substituting a for d and x in (4) and simplifying we obtain $b_2 = a^2 + 4ac$.

15. The sum of the products will be the coefficient of x^m in the product of $(1+cx)(1+x^2cx)(1+c^3x)\dots(1+c^nx)$.

Let $(1+cx)(1+c^2x)(1+c^3x)\dots(1+c^nx) = 1 + A_1x + A_2x^2 + \dots + A_n x^n$ write for x, cx , then

$$(1+c^2x)(1+c^4x)(1+c^6x)\dots(1+c^{2n}x) = 1 + A_1cx + A_2c^2x^2 + \dots + A_n c^n x^n$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{(1 + A_1cx + A_2c^2x^2 + \dots + A_n c^n x^n)}{1+cx} (1 + c^2x + c^4x^2 + \dots + c^{2n}x^n)$$

$$= 1 + A_1cx + A_2c^2x^2 + \dots + A_n c^n x^n$$

Multiply out and equate coefficients; then

$$A_r + A_{r-1}c^{n+1} = A_r c^r + A_{r-1}c^r$$

$$\therefore A_r = A_{r+1} \frac{(c^{n+1} - c)}{c-1}$$

Giving r values, 1, 2, 3, ... we get

$$A_1 = \frac{c^n - 1}{c - 1}; A_2 = \frac{c^2 - 1}{(c-1)(c-1)} \dots;$$

$$\text{and } A = \frac{c \cdot c^2 \dots c^m (c^n - 1)(c^{n-1} - 1) \dots (c^{n-m+1} - 1)}{(c-1)(c^2-1) \dots (c^m-1)}$$

$$\text{or } A = \frac{c^{m(m+1)/2} (c^{n+1} - 1)(c^{n-1} - 1) \dots (c^{n-m+1} - 1)}{(c-1)(c^2-1) \dots (c^m-1)}$$

$$c \frac{c^{m(m+1)/2} (c^{n+1} - 1)(c^{n-1} - 1) \dots (c^{n-m+1} - 1)}{(c-1)(c^2-1) \dots (c^m-1)}$$

16. Since of a, b, c, \dots, p are even and q odd; \therefore of $(-1)^1, (-1)^1, (-1)^1, \dots, p$ results will be $+1$, and q results -1 . The p positive results taken 3 at a time will give $p(p-1)(p-2)$; and q negative results

$$\frac{(q)(q-1)(q-2)}{1}$$

Take 2, + results with 1, - result, and the whole product will be $-pq(p-1)$; also 2, - results, with 1, + result, will give $p(q-1)$; \therefore total sum $p(p-1)(p-2) - 2pq(p-1) + p(q-1)$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \{ (q-p)^3 - 3(q^2 - p^2) + 2(q-p) \}$$

$$17. (1+x)^n = 1 + A_1x + A_2x^2 + A_3x^3 \&c.$$

$$(1+x)^n = 1 + B_1x + B_2x^2 + B_3x^3 \&c.$$

$\therefore (1+x)^n = 1 + (A_1 + B_1)x + (A_2 + A_1B_1 + B_2)x^2 + (A_3 + A_2B_1 + A_1B_2 + B_3)x^3 + \&c.$, equating coefficients: $A_1 + A_2B_1 + A_1B_2 + B_3 = 0$.

The following letter has come into our hands:—

I have been working out the questions in "Percentage," in Smith's and McMurphy's Advanced Arithmetic, and I find that I cannot solve the 35th.

If you will send me the Solution of it, you will confer a very great favour.

Answer, by Math. Editor, C. E. M:—

By the question we see that a difference of \$18 on every qr. makes a difference of 15% on Rent.

\$18 on every qr. = $\frac{3}{20}$ (Whole Rent).

$\frac{3}{20}$ on every qr. = $\frac{3}{20}$ (£96 + 56s. on every qr.)

$\frac{3}{20}$ on every qr. = $\frac{3}{20}$ (£96 + £ $\frac{14}{5}$ on every qr.)

$(\frac{3}{20} - \frac{3}{20} \times \frac{3}{20})$ £ on every qr. = $\frac{3}{20} \times$ £96.
 $\frac{18}{100}$ £ on every qr. = $\frac{3}{20} \times$ £96.

No. of qrs. = $\frac{3}{20} \times \frac{100}{3} \times \frac{100}{10} = 30$.

PROBLEMS.

I.—The longer side of a parallelogram is double of the shorter. Prove that the straight lines bisecting the four angles will inclose a rectangle, whose diagonal is equal to the shorter side of the original parallelogram.

II.—ABC is a triangle right-angled at C, and D such a point that AD is one-third of AB; prove that the square on CD is equal to the square on AD and one-third the square on AC.

III.—If the side BC of the triangle ABC be bisected at D, prove that the angle A will be acute or obtuse according as AD is greater or less than DB or DC.

IV.—(a). If $(x + y + z = 1 + \frac{1}{2}(1-x)(1-y)(1-z))^{1/2}$, prove that $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2xyz = 1$.

(b). If $a + b + c = 2s$, and $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 2S^2$, prove that, $(S^2 - a^2)(S^2 - b^2) + (S_2 - c^2)(S_2 - a^2) + (S_2 - b^2)(S_2 - c^2) = 4s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)$.

If $x = y + \frac{1}{z}$ and $y = z + \frac{1}{x}$, show that $z = x - \frac{2}{y}$.

V.—Shew that if $ax^4 + bx^3 + cx_2 + dx + e$ be a perfect square, then will $\frac{a}{c} - \frac{b^2}{d^2}$ and $c = \frac{bd}{4a}$.

VI.—Find the sum of the Arithmetic series in which the middle term and number of terms each equals $2p + 1$, p being any integer.

VII.—Find all the positive solutions less than 2π of the equation $\text{Sin } 3\theta = \text{Cos } 2\theta$.

VIII.—ABC is a triangle, a circle is described touching the side BC, and the other two produced at the points B', C': find the length of the chord B'C'.

IX.—Prove that the coefficient of θ^{2n} in $\sum \cos \theta$ is $\frac{2^n}{2n} \cos \frac{n\pi}{2}$.

X.—ABCD is a square, O its centre, OE perpendicular to the side AD, F the middle point of OE; a force of 3 lbs. acts from A to B, a force of 4 lbs from B to C, and a force of 5 lbs from C to D; if the square be free to turn round a fixed pivot at F, find the force which, acting along AD, shall keep the square in equilibrium.

EXAMINATIONS IN GEOMETRY.

In answer to the question asked in the February number of the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, by our correspondent "Teacher," we print this month the notices given to the candidates who wrote for matriculation at the Universities of Edinburgh and London, and also the directions governing those who wrote in December last at the Cambridge Local Examinations. The meaning of these notices from the Universities' authorities to candidates just entering on their examinations clearly is, that they are allowed to use

only well-known abbreviations or contractions of words.

This is well, for two reasons at least. First, the learner of Mathematics would suffer a loss, if, at the beginning of his course, he were deprived of studying the subject as it is presented in such texts of Euclid as those of Todhunter, Potts, Colenso, &c.; and secondly, the scholar will, at first, find it more difficult to acquire the amount of Mathematical knowledge contained in his Euclid, if it be presented symbolically, than in the ordinary method. The notices are as follows:

University of London, January, 1879. Candidates are requested to state the textbooks on geometry they have read for this examination. They are permitted to use all intelligible abbreviations in writing out their answers.

University of Edinburgh, 1878. All ordinary contractions may be used.

University of Cambridge Local Examinations, December, 1878. The only abbreviations admitted for the "square on AB," is "Sq. on AB," and for the "rectangle contained by AB and CD," "rect. AB. CD." All generally understood abbreviations or symbols for *words* may be used, but not symbols of OPERATIONS, such as —, +, ×.

MATH. EDITOR, C. E. M.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

THE HALTON COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION held its half-yearly meeting at Georgetown, on Thursday and Friday, February 27th and 28th, and Saturday, March 1st. The President, Mr. R. Little, P. S. Inspector, opened the proceedings by delivering an address on the "Elements of Success in Teaching," in which he discussed several topics of prime interest, not merely affecting the interest of the teacher, but as they contributed to the success of the schools. Said Mr. Little—Unless all the elements of school machinery work harmoniously toge-

ther, the result cannot be successful. When feelings of antagonism, whether of politics, of religion, or of society agitate the community, and the people take sides, it cannot be otherwise than disastrous to the school. In small sections, where there is only a limited area to be assessed, the trustees can only offer low salaries, thus driving attainable men out of the profession. The speaker held that small sections are undesirable as they diminish the salaries, and thus limit the educational privileges of the residents. For this evil there are two remedies, one is to form boards

of township trustees, and the other to give the township councils power to levy a uniform tax. A school can best be made successful by paying a liberal salary, thus encouraging teachers to do their work well. Trustees should supply all necessary apparatus for the convenience of teachers; they should also care for the health and comfort of the pupils by providing suitable desks, and see that proper ventilation exists in the schools. The lecturer concluded by urging trustees to visit the schools as often as possible, thus stimulating the teacher, and expressing the interest felt by school authorities in his work.

Mr. N. J. Wellwood, H. M. of the High School, Oakville, followed with an instructive paper on the "Teaching of Geometry," which he illustrated by interesting examples.

The Rev. James Pringle, of Georgetown, delivered an interesting address on "The School Systems of Ontario and Quebec." Mr. J. M. Buchan, M. A., High School Inspector, occupied the afternoon session in discussing "Grammatical Analysis" and "English Literature," and the methods of teaching these subjects. Mr. Buchan also lectured in the evening, on "Poetry and Politics." Both addresses were exceedingly instructive, and were listened to with manifest interest. The following day, Mr. Moore, of Georgetown, ably handled the subject of "Composition," and Mr. McLean, of Milton, read a stimulating paper on "Professional Study and Courses of Reading." In the afternoon, Mr. D. J. McKinnon, P. S. I. of Peel, introduced the subject of "Moral Training," which brought on some discussion; after which Prof. Young delivered his lecture on the "True Relation of Psychology to Education." The Professor placed the principal points to be discussed on the board, which he handled with great clearness. The points were: I., good bodily health; II., faculties unexhausted, under which head he argued that lessons should not be enforced after fatigue points have been reached, and that there is no advantage in long school hours; III., concentration, when he referred to the influence on perception and retention, and the formation of habits of concentration; IV.,

pleasure in work, shewing how this aids the pupil, and also why pupils so seldom take pleasure in their work; V., pleasure in prospect, which was not so important as the preceding subject, yet an important factor. The lecturer thought the approbation of the teacher a better way of having pleasure in prospect than by the giving of prizes; VI., absence of undue emotional excitement, and its effect on the pupil's power of study; VII., objects to be studied, which should be actually presented to the pupil and not merely explained. These points were all thoroughly discussed; the lecture proving a very profitable one.

In the evening, Dr. McLellan lectured on "This Canada of Ours," and next morning gave many useful hints on "Teaching Algebra," after which the convention closed by re-appointing its principal officers. Mr. R. Little, President; Dr. Lusk, Vice-Pres't.; and Mr. R. Coates, Secretary.

WATERLOO COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The Annual Meeting of the above Association was held on January 24th and 25th. After the formal opening, the President, Mr. R. Alexander, gave an interesting address on "Spelling Reform." The following subjects were then freely discussed:—

1st Day.—Mathematical Geography, (introduced by Mr. A. Müller); Factoring in Algebra, (Mr. D. P. Kelleher). Reminiscences of a Trip to the Highlands in 1878, (Mr. S. McRae); Teachers' Residences, (Mr. S. Eby). Selection of subjects for next County Promotion Examination, Question Drawer.

2nd Day.—Shou'd the task of training candidates for 3rd Class certificates be imposed on our Public Schools? (Mr. R. Cruikshank); How to teach Canadian History (Mr. C. S. Falconer); Our Text-Books, (Mr. R. H. Knowles); How to Teach Geography to 2nd Class, (Mr. C. Hagedorn); Teaching Reading, (Mr. A. McLean); Question Drawer and Reading of Delegate's Report of Provincial Teachers' Association.

CONTEMPORARY OPINION ON EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

PRINCE LEOPOLD ON EDUCATION.

H. R. H. Prince Leopold has been recently making two speeches in London, on the subject of education, which are well deserving of the notice of the public. The least enthusiastic person would be prepared to allow, that not only in their thought, but also in their purity of diction they are remarkable productions for a young man of under twenty-six. And it is only natural that they should possess especial interest as coming from a Prince of the blood, and a son of the Prince Consort. We propose, therefore, to call attention to some of the more remarkable passages.

The first of these speeches was delivered at a meeting held at the Mansion House, on February 19th, last, on the subject of University teaching. The meeting had been convened at the instance of the London Society for the extension of University Teaching. Prince Leopold in proposing a motion—after remarking how gratifying it was to Englishmen to see the part the old Universities, of which they are so proud, had taken of late in important educational reforms, continued :

There is, however, one advantage possessed by German Universities which must strike everybody. They diffuse knowledge throughout a much wider class of the community than Oxford or Cambridge have hitherto reached. Learning in England has been too much regarded as the privilege of a particular class. The conditions of residence at Oxford and Cambridge, however valuable or necessary for their own purpose, have kept away students of narrow means. The University of London has in a great degree removed this barrier, and now the older Universities unite with her in offering to all Londoners a cheap course of instruction, given by teachers of the same calibre as those who carry on the work of the Universities themselves. The undertaking of this great

additional task indicates that a very strong spirit has arisen in those old seats of learning. I cannot call it a spirit of benevolence, for these lectures are in no way a work of charity, and will, it is hoped, be self-supporting after the first few years. But it is a spirit of active sympathy with the wants and wishes of a very large class, whose needs in the direction of higher education have been too long ignored; and the impulse of which these London lectures are the outcome is not shown in one way only, or felt in one University alone. It is to Professor Stuart and other Cambridge men that we owe the establishment of those systems of lectures in the great manufacturing centres which are gradually developing into permanent institutions strong and living children of the Alma Mater who gave them birth. But it is not only in Cambridge that it has been felt that men of learning and of culture could hardly have a worthier aim than that of carrying high thoughts and elevating knowledge into homes which perhaps know few other joys. Of such aims we in Oxford have had a great, an inspiring example. We have seen a man in whom all the gifts of refinement and of genius meet, and who yet has not grudged to give his best to all—who has made it his main effort, by gifts, by teaching, by sympathy, to spread among the artisans of Sheffield and the labourers of our English fields the power of drawing the full measure of instruction and happiness from this wonderful world, on which rich and poor can gaze alike. Such a man we have seen in Professor Ruskin. And among all the lessons which those who have had the privilege of his teaching and of his friendship must have gained to carry with them through life, none, I think, can have sunk deeper than the lesson that the highest wisdom and the highest pleasure need not be costly or exclusive, but may be almost as cheap and as free as air, and that the greatness of a nation must be measured not by her wealth or her apparent power, but by the degree in which all her people have learnt to gather from the world of books, of art, of nature, a pure, and an ennobling joy.

The remainder of the speech was occupied with a consideration of the work that lay before the society in London.

The second speech was delivered on February 25th, at the distribution of prizes in the Birkbeck Literary and Scientific Institution. This second speech, perhaps, contains more that is remarkable in it than the former. It exhibits in a marked degree the strong love of culture and the sincere sympathy with popular progress which is the truly pleasing feature of both speeches. After a few introductory remarks, His Royal Highness said :

I am particularly glad to see the stress which your programme lays on technical education. We Englishmen may be justly proud of the character for mental and physical strength and capacity which our artisans bear all over the world ; but our pride is sadly dashed by accompanying criticisms on the ignorance and the indifference to anything which needs thought, which too often render that native vigour of intelligence a comparatively useless thing. Properly instructed, I believe that our British artisan need fear no rival in the world ; but if he goes out untaught and ignorant into the battle of life, he is in danger of being outdone by the more carefully trained skill of foreign workmen. Against this danger your institution offers a bulwark whose importance it would be hard to overrate. I am glad, too, to see the eagerness with which modern languages are learnt in your classes. Foreign nations are not merely our competitors, but our friends, and nothing, I believe, is likely to create so true a feeling of friendship and sympathy between one people and another as a practical knowledge of each others speech. Sometimes, perhaps, as the proverb says, we take what is unknown to be magnificent, but oftener, I think, we take it to be something unfriendly and distasteful to us—something which if we did know it we should not like. But we find that with every real increase of understanding of our fellow men of different races some unkindly illusion disappears ; we learn to realize their likeness to ourselves, to sympathize with their national character, to co-operate in their efforts after the common good. But I need not go at length into the advantages to be derived from each of the subjects which your curriculum embraces ; there is not one which may not be of great service to the practical career or to the mental development of the zealous student. And there is so much similarity in the conditions of all effort and success, that even the studies which seem most remote from active life may always furnish a moral which life can adopt and employ. For instance, I notice that in what is called the "Miscellaneous Department." of your curriculum you

provide instruction in the game of chess. This is not the most obviously practical of your subjects ; but it has struck me that even those, if any there be, who desire to limit their education to this branch alone, may learn some not unimportant lessons of life from the manner in which you teach it. "Particular attention," I see your programme says, "is paid to the study of the openings." Now, is it not true that in life, as in chess, it is often the opening, and the opening only, which is under our own control ? Later in the game the plans and wishes of others begin to conflict unpleasantly with our own. Sometimes it is as much as we can do to avoid being checkmated altogether. But for the first few moves we are free. We can deploy our pieces to the best advantage ; we can settle on the line of action which best suits our powers ; and we sometimes find that it will repay us to sacrifice a pawn or a piece so as to gain at once a position which may give us a decided advantage throughout the whole game. Does not this, too, remind us of early life ? Must we not often be content to sacrifice some pawn of present pleasure or profit to gain a vantage ground which may help us to successes which self-indulgence could never have won ? I am sure that among the bright young faces which I see around me there are many who have known what it is to labour against the grain ; to begin a lesson when they would rather have gone to the theatre, to finish it when they would rather have gone to bed. And I am sure that such efforts of self-denial and conscientiousness form at least half the real benefit of education ; that it would do us little good to wake up and find our heads magically stocked with all manner of facts, in comparison to the good which it does us to fight for knowledge, to suffer for her, and to make her at last our own. In great things as in small, this principle of self-help is a peculiarly English spirit. How much has been accomplished in this country by private initiative, by spontaneous growth ! We have trusted that men like Dr. Birkbeck would arise—men who felt the needs of others as their own, and could not rest without spreading widely round them the privileges which they had themselves enjoyed. We have trusted that such men would arise, and they have arisen.

* * * * *

Learning is a commodity the demand for which grows with the supply. We need not fear a glut of science or of intelligence as we might fear a glut of cotton goods or of indigo. All the knowledge which we who now live can gain, can assuredly be made useful both to ourselves and to those who come

after us. It was his firm conviction that a sound education can never be too widely spread or too eagerly enjoyed which was the source of Dr. Birkbeck's claim to the gratitude of prosperity. He saw that the knowledge of truth was not meant to be the privilege of a class or of a set. In an age when the strongest prejudice existed against the education of the poor, he, as far as in him lay, threw open to the poor an education as sound and extensive as his own. In an age when the strongest prejudice existed against the education of women, he earnestly claimed for women their fair share in the educational privileges of men. He was for spreading the banquet of knowledge before all alike, and he trusted that nature would see that the Benjamin's mess fell to the lot of those who had the keenest appetite and the strongest digestion. And if all these seem common-places now, we must remember that, as it has been said, "the commonplaces of one generation were the paradoxes of the last." How could they ever have become common-places but for the ardour of conviction which inspired a few far-seeing men? And how far greater a thing is this spirit of personal, practical, rational benevolence than any mere gifts of money can be? Dr. Birkbeck—and in speaking of him I speak also of his friends and coaljutors and of the son who now so worthily fills his father's place.—Dr. Birkbeck was, no doubt, even in the mere matter of money a most generous man. But it was not his pecuniary generosity which has caused his name to become the household word which it is to-day. It was because he gave to his great work something far more precious and rarer than money—the intelligent and single-hearted devotion of a life. We honour him, not so much because he helped others from without, as because he touched the chords, he evoked the impulses which enabled them to help themselves from within. It is not for his endowments that we thank him most, but for his example; as, indeed, for any institution its founder's high example is the best of endowments; and the most enduring legacy which a man can leave to his country is a memory which impels the men who come after him to strenuous efforts and to exalted aims.

The above seem to be the best passages out of two most striking speeches. They may well cause a loyal subject in any part of the Empire to feel an emotion of pride that the old historic throne of England can show Princes and Princesses so worthy of their high position. And the man who cannot distinguish such an emotion of pride from "Flunkeyism," had best remember Carlyle's

retort to the proverb, that "No man is a hero to his own valet," namely, "that that is because the valet is a valet, and not because the hero is not a hero."

BROTHER IGNOTUS.

PROFS. BLACKIE & BONAMY PRICE ON THE STUDY OF THE CLASSICS.

The question of the place of Greek and Latin in modern education, is discussed in the *Contemporary Review* for March, by Professor J. S. Blackie, and Professor Bonamy Price; the first advocating "A Radical Reform in Teaching the Classical Languages," and the latter giving his views "On the Worth of a Classical Education." Prof. Blackie considers it certain that "Greek and Latin as an intimately related and closely interlacing whole," cannot "stand in the same relation to the culture of the eighteenth (*sic*) century that they did to the culture of the sixteenth century. . . . New circumstances have arisen, new tasks are to be performed, new tools are to be provided, new training is necessary. Whoever denies this is blind both before and behind; great changes cannot take place in society without corresponding changes taking place in the three great organs of social life, the State, the Church, and the School And this diminished influence of the classical languages, as against the rich growth and influence of modern culture, is asserting itself more and more every day, and will continue to assert itself. In the face of this fact, the inculcators of classical lore at school and college must in the nature of things abate their demands considerably; and, if they wish to make this abatement less serious, they must by all means in the first place change their tactics, and improve their drill. In other words, whatever loss in certain directions may fall to the higher English culture from the extrusion or subordination of one or both of the classical languages from school or college, may be reduced to its minimum by a dexterous change of front and an improved practical drill." The inordinate time and energy at present expended in English schools and colleges on the ancient

tongues, and the very unsatisfactory results, Prof. Blackie considers just causes of complaint, and attributes them to the fact that "your classical teacher in one of our great English schools sets" the method of Nature "flatly at defiance, and substitutes for it artificial methods of his own, which have no germ of healthy vitality in them, and from which no vigorous growth, luxuriant blossom, or rich fruitage can proceed." The radical reform for which he pleads is that "in opposition to this strange tissue of absurdities and perversities, in which our indoctrinators of the classical tongues have entangled themselves, we must recur at once to the natural method, commencing not with abstract rules and paradigms, but with living practice from which the rules are to be abstracted and the paradigms gradually built up. The essential elements of this reform are a speaking teacher, with a correct elocution, and a collection of interesting objects on which the thinking and speaking faculty of the learner shall be regularly and continuously exercised." With a willing pupil and two hours a day of direct teaching, and a couple more of study by the learner, Prof. Blackie guarantees that under this conversational method "he shall learn as much Greek in six months, as under the ordinary scholastic method he may often learn in six years;" and enlarges at some length on the advantages that would flow from the reform he proposes.

That Greek and Latin would be more rapidly and more thoroughly learned were his suggestions adopted, we have no doubt; for they are based on those "first principles" of teaching which require that in education the simple should precede the complex, and the concrete the abstract. But Prof. Bonamy Price puts more radical and more important questions when he asks "What is the worth of a classical education? Why should boys spend so many years on the study of the Greek and Latin languages? What results are obtained to compensate for so much time, labour, and expense consumed on such an occupation?" In giving his answers to these questions we must by no means be understood as fully assenting to his views. He says: "I hold that the nation judges rightly in ad-

hering to classical education: I am convinced that for general excellence no other training can compete with the classical. In sustaining this thesis, I do not propose to compare here what is called useful education with classical, much less to endeavour to prescribe the portion of each which ought to be combined in a perfect system.

. . . . Let it be taken for granted that every boy must be taught to acquire a certain definite amount of knowledge positively required for carrying on the business of life in its several callings; and, if so it be, let it be assumed that there is a deficiency of this kind of instruction at the public schools. Let that defect be repaired by all means.

. . . Let all interference of Greek and Latin with this indispensable qualification for after-life be forbidden; but let us at the same time maintain that both things may go on successfully together. The problem before us here is of a different kind. The education of the boys of the upper classes is necessarily composed of two parts,—general training, and special, or, as it is called, useful, training—the general development of the boy's faculties, of the whole of his nature, and the knowledge which is needed to enable him to perform certain specific functions in life. Of those two departments of education, the general far transcends in importance the special: and finally I maintain that for the carrying out of this education, the Greek and Latin languages are the most efficient instruments which can be applied."

Their chief merits Prof. Price considers to be four in number. First, that "they are languages: they are not particular sciences, nor definite branches of knowledge, but literatures." On the cultivation of taste and the refinement of the powers of expression which they induce in this respect, he thinks too much stress has been laid." The educational value of Greek and Latin is something immeasurably broader than this single accomplishment of refined taste and cultivated expression. The problem to be solved is to open out the undeveloped nature of a human being; to bring out his faculties, and impart skill in their use; to set the seeds of many powers growing; to teach as large and as varied a knowledge of

human nature, both the boy's own and the world's about him, as possible; to give him, according to his circumstances, the largest practicable acquaintance with life, what it is composed of, morally, intellectually, and materially, and how to deal with it. For the performance of this great work, what can compare with a language, or rather with a literature? . . . Think of the many elements of thought a boy comes in contact with when he reads *Cæsar* and *Tacitus* in succession, *Herodotus* and *Homer*, *Thucydides* and *Aristotle*: how many ideas he has perforce acquired; how many regions of human life—how many portions of his own mind—he has gained insight into; with how extended a familiarity with many things he starts with, when the duties of a profession call on him to concentrate these insights, these exercised and disciplined faculties, on a single sphere of action. See what is implied in having read *Homer* intelligently through, or *Thucydides*, or *Demosthenes*; what light will have been shed on the essence and laws of human existence, on political society, on the relations of man to man, on human nature itself." As to the exercise of the reasoning faculty, Prof. Price says: "I confidently assert that for the purposes of making a youthful student think long and accurately, and of forcing upon him the perceptions of the efficiency and the results of right reasoning, no better tool can be applied than a speech in *Thucydides*, a discussion in *Aristotle*, or a chapter in the *Epistles* of *St. Paul*."

Prof. Price grows very eloquent over the second merit of the classical languages as an instrument of education; the greatness of the works they contain, and of the writers who made them. . . . "In no language can an equal number of writers of the very first eminence be brought to bear on the formation of a youthful mind as in Greek. In poetry, history, philosophy, politics, page upon page of the most concentrated force, of the tersest expression, of the richest eloquence, of the nicest and most subtle discrimination, of the widest range and variety, strike successive blows on the imagination and the thinking faculty of the impressible

student: they disclose to him what human nature is capable of, what is waiting to be called forth in the boy's own spirit, the heights which others have reached, the thoughts and feelings he may himself create—in a word, all the wondrous powers of the human intellect, all the noble emotions of the human soul. What more direct and more efficient remedy against one of the most common and most damaging weaknesses—onesidedness? . . . Nor must we leave altogether unnoticed," says the writer, "the beauty of form which distinguishes these undying writings." The third merit which Prof. Price claims for classical education has not hitherto, certainly, been recognized as an advantage on its side, namely, that "Greek and Latin are dead languages: they are not spoken tongues." The very characteristic which Prof. Blackie proposes to reform away by introducing the natural and conversational method, Prof. Price thinks a "merit of the very first order." The very reform which the one would introduce in their teaching, would cancel much of their usefulness in the eyes of the other. He says: "Living languages are learnt by the ear;" (which is what Prof. Blackie would have in the case of dead languages) "they are imbibed without thought or effort; they would awaken little reflection or judgment; their possession does not necessarily imply any great development of mind or soul. . . . The difficulty involved in learning a dead language is an excellent feature. . . . Such languages must be learnt by rule. They call on the mind to perceive the relations of grammar at the outset." True, and with Prof. Blackie we say, they thus set the method of nature flatly at defiance, and run counter to the normal course of mental evolution. A further advantage, according to Prof. Price, is that "not only are the languages dead, but also the societies to which they belong. . . . This fact both enables pupils in the educational process to study classical writings without wakening up the interest, the prejudices or the passions of modern life, and it affords an incomparable facility for examining and apprehending first principles."

Prof. Price also urges on behalf of classical education "the field which it opens to the action of the teacher, the close contact which it establishes between the mind of the boy and the mind of his master, the power with which it enables the whole nature of the teacher, his character and intellect, to influence and mould the nature of his pupil.

This is the greatest work in education—the development of one human being by another." Decidedly; and we can only say that, as this is the last merit which Prof. Price claims for a classical education, so is it the last that we should ever have thought of claiming for it.

A. W. GUNDRY.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

MENTAL ARITHMETIC, Part II., by J. A. McLellan, M.A., LL.D. Toronto: Adam Miller & Co.

In the preparation of school text-books, more especially of those designed for younger pupils, the utmost care, even when bestowed by experienced educators, has too frequently failed to give a result at all commensurate with the time, skill, and labour devoted to the work. The various subjects treated of must be brought fully within the comprehension of the pupils for whom the book is intended; the different parts of the work must be presented in their natural sequence, and a proper gradation from simpler to more complex results secured. Nor must too great simplicity be aimed at, something of real work must still be left for the student himself to accomplish, not so difficult as to be beyond his reach nor even to tax his powers too severely, but yet sufficiently so to be "worthy of his steel," and keep his faculties in constant healthy exercise.

The text-books which have been most successful, best liked by students, and longest retained in use, have been those prepared by teachers of acknowledged ability and long experience. These it is not invidious to say have, in the main, been the product of the authors of the mother-land, or of the United States. To such older communities it is not unnatural that we should be beholden for our school-book supply, as to them also we are indebted for the mass of our general reading matter. That we should endeavour to create a school-book literature

of our own, and to supply the schools with the works of native authors, is a laudable and patriotic, if ambitious, desire, with the execution of which we should be the last to interfere. Our only scruple in the matter is lest the work turned out should be jejune and inefficient, or being otherwise, that it should be marred by careless and inapt work. In the book before us, though the author is a man of ability and a good mathematician, his work is disfigured by such blemishes as are sure to appear in the productions of those who have not had experience in authorship. School-book compiling particularly, as we have heretofore said, requires exceptional talent, or a long apprenticeship, before it can be of a character suited for the purpose and uses of its work. If it is not favoured with these conditions, the product can rarely be satisfactory. In Dr. McLellan's case, as we have elsewhere pointed out, there are other circumstances which interpose to prevent his work from becoming generally acceptable. And though the circumstances be regretted, if that gentleman has the gift of effective authorship and would do honest work, yet his duty is to respect the proprieties of his official position, and to abstain from publishing. We have no desire to say a harsh word, personally, of the Senior Inspector, or of any of our would-be authors or editors, but our concern for the best interests of the schools compels us to protest against this duality of representation, which in Dr. McLellan's case, presents him as an author of school books, and at the same time an Inspector of the

schools in which they may or may not be used. Since writing the references elsewhere to this subject, we have noticed the action of the Minister of Education in the official instructions issued to the profession to guard its members against becoming agents for publishers. Commendable as these regulations are, it will be obvious that they do not directly touch the matter we have referred to, and we trust that the Minister will see this, and practically, and finally, abolish the evil complained of. But to the book before us:—The Mental Arithmetic, Part II., of Dr. McLellan, possesses many of the essential elements of a bad text-book. It contains mistakes ranging from badly corrected proof to erroneous solutions of important problems. It is not properly graded, the simplest problems being found in the last half of the book; the solutions given are often too long and too intricate for mental exercise, and are too frequently not the simplest that might be given, nor the best adapted to train the mind of the pupil to habits of close mathematical reasoning. We scarcely know whom we should hold accountable for such errors as these: $1\frac{1}{2} \div \frac{1}{6} = 1\frac{1}{6}$; $74 \times 6 = 644$; 140 is $\frac{2}{3}$ of 3502. Perhaps, too, the responsibility for the following may be doubtful: \$100 amounts to \$114 in one year and eight months, at eight per cent. But no possible doubt can exist in cases such as these:

“By selling tea which cost 48 cents a lb., I lost $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the selling price: what was the loss per cent. on the cost?”

“Sol.— $\frac{1}{2}$ of selling price lost $\therefore \frac{1}{3}$ of do = cost $\therefore \frac{1}{3}$ cost lost = $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.”

“A man is engaged to work at \$1 a day and his board, with the understanding that he is to pay $37\frac{1}{2}$ cents a day for his board when idle: what must be the proportion of working time so that he may just keep out of debt, supposing that he works whole days and not parts in every case?”

“Sol.—Wages \$8; loss on idle days = $\$1\frac{1}{2}$, L. C. M. = \$88 = 11 working or 8 idle days $\therefore 1\frac{1}{2}$.”

In the first of these since $\frac{1}{2}$ of the selling price = $\frac{1}{3}$ of the cost \therefore required result is 10%; and in the second problem since three days' wages will pay his board for eight

days, he only need work three days out of eleven.

These are grave errors and can only be accounted for by attributing to the author culpable carelessness in the preparation of his book.

The work, again, contains too many solutions. A very trifling modification in a problem furnishes a pretext for giving a model for solving it. Even when no modification can be detected, we have separate solutions given. Thus each of the following questions is solved:—

1. A boy spends 1 cent of every 5 cents he has, how many does he spend of 20 cents?

2. A boy spends 2 cents of every 6 he has, how many does he spend of 30?

3. If he spends 4 out of every 10, how many does he spend of 60?

And no attempt is made to vary the solutions, the three being as nearly alike as the numbers used will permit. Nor are these solitary instances; needless solutions occur on nearly every page. So frequent are the solutions, in fact, that throughout the whole book, there is not, on an average, three unsolved questions for each question solved. The direct effect of this method of training is only too manifest. Independent effort receives no encouragement; the faculty for original investigation remains undeveloped, and new impetus is given to perpetuate “the rule and routine methods that have too long prevailed.”

Too many of the solutions, on the other hand, are such as cannot be grasped by the mind of the average student as exercises in Mental Arithmetic. Some of these should be excluded on account of their length, occupying as they do, fully half a page of the book; others on account of their intricacy; being in reality simultaneous equations of three unknown quantities.

The “commission” question, page 16, is the only one mentioned in the preface, and may therefore, we suppose, be taken as having received from the author full consideration in its solution, yet even in this the most direct solution has not been reached. The following appears to us to be the much simpler solution: after the first com. has

been deducted there remains $\frac{1}{10}$ of the value of the flour and the amount invested in tea is $\frac{1}{10}$ of this $\frac{1}{10}$ which = $\frac{1}{100}$ of the value of the flour. ∴ the remaining $\frac{1}{10}$ must have gone as commission. &c.

Other instances might be adduced, but we have given enough to bear out our assertion respecting the unfitness of the work as a school text-book in its present objectionable shape. When the numerous errors shall have been looked out and corrected, and the number of model solutions reduced to about one-third of their present number, we shall not have so much fault to find with the book. But until this is done, we cannot consider it a proper text-book to be placed in the hands of pupils.

That the work should find its way into the schools, without the authorization of the Department, is, of course, a matter with which the Minister will have to deal; and if sanctioned, the propriety of authorizing a book by an official who stands in the relation that its author does to the schools of the Province, is a question that must then come up for settlement.

ENGLISH MEN OF LETTERS; edited by John Morley. SAMUEL JOHNSON, by Leslie Stephen. OLIVER GOLDSMITH, by William Black. Macmillan & Co. Toronto: A. Piddington.

It is, presumably, part of Mr. Morley's plan to have the lives of English authors which he is editing, written afresh for him. We might otherwise question the necessity of Mr. Stephen being set to produce a new biography of Johnson. Besides the larger and more pretentious works upon this subject, the world already possesses several succinct lives of the great writer and conversationalist. Two men of very differing tastes and styles, Macaulay and Carlyle have given us widely circulated pamphlets, embracing as much as Mr. Stephen offers us, besides the incidental allusions to Johnson that are to be found in the "Heroes and Hero Worship," and the review of Croker's edition of Boswell, by Macaulay. However, there is always room for a new work even if it have few pretensions beyond being a compilation,

and as such we welcome the present book. We notice in it several inaccuracies of diction which we should have thought Mr. Morley would not have let pass. At page 39 we find the following peculiar passage: "Any systematic training of the historical processes by which a particular language has been developed, was unknown." We can imagine a scholar being trained in the knowledge of such historical processes, but the processes themselves are not usually supposed to be particularly amenable to any kind of "training," however dexterous. A worse instance of the grossest carelessness is to be seen at page 46, where the point of the famous letter to Lord Chesterfield is most culpably lost by the twice repeated substitution of the word "loss" for the word "less." Johnson would have been enraged had he known that any one who aspired to write his life could have been capable of such a blunder. One other solecism must content us for the present. At page 92 we are told that Boswell "remains as not only the first, but the best of his class." It would puzzle Mr. Stephen to tell us what good end the word "as" subserves in this sentence.

Mr. Black's Goldsmith is perhaps freer from such mistakes,—but it is not quite free from them. He condemns his author's accentuation of "Niaga'ra" in the "Traveller," apparently oblivious that it is by virtue of a common law of the degradation of words that the accent has travelled backwards and that the modern English barbarism of Niag'ra has become the usual pronunciation. A worse fault, however, is the occasional obtruding of himself by Mr. Black upon the reader. He is at his old game again, if we may venture the expression, and lugs his favourite deer-stalking and Scotch-yachting experiences neck and crop into the life of a man who would have run away from a stag, and probably been extremely ill in a schooner off the Hebrides. Mr. Black also makes a little too much fuss about the obtuseness which several of Goldsmith's associates showed as to the real nature of the little man. There can be small doubt but that Oliver's Irish wit was occasionally too delicate for

Boswell to appreciate, and Goldsmith has got credit for being extremely vain, jealous, and conceited when he did not really deserve it. But after all, we must remember that the defence merely amounts to this, that Goldsmith jocosely pretended to be inordinately vain-glorious and put on airs that were taken *au sérieux* by his graver comrades. Such a peculiar turn of humour, so frequently repeated, although so steadily misunderstood, must, we should think, have had its root in a natural bent of the mind towards these qualities, the outward manifestations of which it served to cloak and disguise. In either view of the case it is one of the least lovable sides of Goldsmith's character.

Mr. Black has done his best to assure those to whom the author of the "Vicar of Wakefield" is dear, that their favourite was not so hardly used by the world as it has been the fashion to picture him.

He fell on his feet pretty luckily throughout his life, and his distresses were generally attributable more to his own reckless mode of living than to any lack of appreciation on the part of the booksellers or the public. It was much of his own accord that he wrote the lucrative but worthless compilations that took up so much of his time, but we need not think him entirely sordid in so doing. It is quite conceivable that he may have expected to gain lasting fame from his histories and "Animated Nature." That such subjects when properly handled *do* bring fame to the poets who, casting aside the muses for a moment, come down to mingle with the crowd of ordinary mortals, may be seen by the instance of Southey, who will probably be remembered by his "Life of Nelson," long after his "Thalaba" shall have been forgotten.

These two lives we have mentioned together as forming companion volumes to each other. In fact several episodes, as for instance the club life in London, are common to both. We can recommend them to the perusal of those readers who cannot go to the fountain-heads for information as to either of these two great men.

ARCHBISHOP TRENCH ON THE STUDY OF WORDS. 17th Edition.—ENGLISH, PAST AND PRESENT. 10th Edition. London: Macmillan & Company.

More interesting books than these, and more likely to lead one on to deeper research in philology, could hardly be put into the hands of the student. And yet in very many instances we find the Archbishop astray both in his ideas and his facts. Take for example the very pointed instance that occurs on the second page of the "Study of Words." He is denouncing the saying that "ignorance is the mother of admiration," and throughout his remarks it appears that nothing more than the vulgar modern meaning of the word admiration was present in his mind.

Had he reflected for a moment and remembered that the word really means "wonderment," he would have hesitated before condemning the proverb. Of course, even with this correction, the saying, like all other epigrammatic remarks, only expresses half a truth. The ignorant man wonders superficially at this, that and the other, wonders why the sea has tides and the moon has phases. A little learning extinguishes this faculty of wonder, and the ordinary man ceases to be astonished, for he is perfectly satisfied by a single word, "gravitation" for instance. No doubt on a higher level the wondering mind is again called into play, but this may be said to be on account of the recognition of that ignorance which was not understood by the clown and which was ignored by the empirical observer.

Again we find in a note at page eleven the astounding assertion that the word "frank" is found in English in the sixteenth century, "but scarcely earlier." As part of the compound words "frank-tenement, frank-marriage, franc-almoigne," it occurs over and over again in Littleton (ob. 1491), and was in use long before his time. The view of frank-pledge or court-leet, is an institution as old as Alfred, but we of course do not wish to say that the word itself is quite as old as that. It is enough for our purpose to point it out in the political songs of the reign of Edward II., speaking of prelates who

"Be in office with the king and gather treasure in a hepe,
And the franchise of holi church hii laten
ligge slepe,
ful stille."*

Occasionally, too, the Archbishop's logic is at fault. In his fourth lecture on the English language he is treating of the recovery of words which, after falling into disuse, are now well known again. To augment the number of these he quotes lists, such as the one annexed to Spenser's Shepherd's Calendar, in which many old words are explained for the benefit of the reader, such as "askance, bevy, flowret," etc., which would need no such glossary now. But in the same breath he quotes other lists which do not purport to be explanations of *old* words, but of old and *obscure* words, and of words "*not familiar* to the vulgar reader," which evidently embrace entirely different classes of words from those of which he is treating. A newly introduced word may be so obscure or unfamiliar as to need explanation when it first appears, but that is no reason why we, who now understand it, should call it a recovered word.

There are also instances of harshness in style which should have been removed before the work arrived at such a late edition. The expression "as in instances innumerable cases may be seen," jars upon our ears, and a very little trouble would put it right. The next example is, however, radically wrong and foreign in its construction. Speaking of some compound verbs, such as "to wit-wanton" or "to cankerfret," he says, "these words, tho' never in public use, seem to me happier than that they should be allowed to die."† The close of the introductory lecture on the Study of Words is another example of "how not to" express a simple thought in simple language.

Still, in spite of these and of yet graver faults, the books are fascinating enough to make us regret having to put them down. There is a mystery and a charm about words that attracts us to follow, while all the time

we know that however searching our quest may be there is a limit to our discoveries, and that when we fancy we have traced back a word to its beginning, and see upon it the delicate bloom of a freshly expressed thought, we must expect to find a yawning abyss of years open before us, and to learn that our new word is, alas, but some battered fragment, floated to us from the wreck of a dead or dying tongue. Archbishop Trench naturally magnifies his subject. To him Hobbes was a "false prophet," especially when he said that words were wise men's counters and the coins of fools. The same thought had occurred to Montaigne, when in speaking of wordy and pedantical learning, he says, it is passed from hand to hand "only to make a show in conversation . . . like those glittering counters, which are of no other use or service but to play or count a game with." It seems hard to believe that our author was incapable of appreciating the wholesome truth embodied in this saying of Hobbes, or that he could not see that the blame was attached to the fool who so misused the word, and not to the word itself. In the abstract, and as viewed by the philologist, a word is the same wherever it occurs, but the Archbishop would be the last to say, as a man, that as much weight is to be given to a word in a scurrilous tale as to the same word in an impassioned soliloquy by Shakespeare.

It is very curious to notice the blindness that hinders critics from distinguishing among a crowd of new candidates for admission into our vocabulary, those few favoured individuals which will eventually succeed. A good example occurs at page sixty-five of "English, Past and Present," where a list of glaring Americanisms are given in a note, and the author overwhelms them all with one common disdain. We agree cordially with his abhorrence of "eventuate," "happify,"

* Montaigne's Essays. On Pedantry, vol. 1, p. 149. 9th edition, 1811.

On the same point cf., "The Two Gentlemen of Verona;" Act 2, s. 4:

Thurio. Sir, if you spend word for word with me, I shall make your wit bankrupt.

Valentine. I know it well, sir, you have an exchequer of words, and I fancy no other treasure.

* Camden Society's Political Songs, p. 325.

† English, Past and Present, p. 221.

and "to resurrect," but what are we to say when we find among the list that most happy expression "to belittle," and that indispensable term "shortage"?

On several occasions the Archbishop shows signs of professional prejudice. He falls foul of the Renaissance as a return from Christian to Pagan Art. Although he has Mr. Ruskin for an ally in this, we must enter our protest against his canon of criticism. Art is a world by itself, Christianity, Paganism, are accidents to it, and are not in any way essential to its well-being. It exists in a different sphere altogether from religion, and its re-birth is happily so termed from the fact that under the leading of the great Italian master-minds the recently discovered Greek statues, and the human form itself, then first became the models of excellence and the exemplars of study instead of the angular impossibilities of the early Christian Schools of Sculpture. Naturally enough, Modern Science also comes in for a rap over the knuckles. Sometimes (as at page fifty-one of English, Past and Present) Darwinism is dismissed with a phrase, barely covering the sneer that is too plainly intended. We are told that, in the case of words at least, the rule as to the "survival of the fittest" does not always obtain. An interesting lecture might be written on this text, showing how persistently a wrong meaning is forced upon a scientific theory, on account of the want of precision in the catch-word by which that hypothesis is generally known to the vulgar. Every orthodox opposer of the doctrine of development is prepared to prove that throughout the realm of nature, whether we look at men, emotions, morals, or words, the absolutely fittest does *not* survive, but on the contrary a lower type often supplants the higher. This achieved, there is a flourish of trumpets over the defeated hypothesis. It is however a hollow triumph, a triumph of words and not of facts. The position which was intended to be assailed remains intact, for it does not rest upon the survival of the absolutely fittest, but of the form which is fittest in relation to its surrounding circumstances. It is abundantly plain that in many

cases the lower type of man or of word will be best fitted to survive and will survive accordingly. Given a convict settlement, with Shakespeare and the slang dictionary for its sole literary pabulum, and one can prophesy very easily whether the poet's or the pick-pockets' phrases will have succumbed in the struggle for existence after a few years; and which parts of the dramatist will have contributed a few words to the rogue's vocabulary. Hamlet's language may be the noblest and fittest for men and angels, but a few low words out of Pericles, or a curse or two from the lips of Caliban, will have approved themselves as fittest for a community very far removed from being angels or even men.

It will be readily understood then, that Trench dismisses the "urang-utang" theory of man's development as incapable of satisfactorily explaining the growth of language. It could hardly have been expected that he would have done otherwise, but none the less may we venture to predict that no complete hypothesis will ever be framed that will explain everything so thoroughly as that which supposes the slow and natural growth of man's body, mind, moral qualities, emotions and language from a creature, low it may be in its actual attainments and functions, but mysteriously great in its God-given capacities for improvement and progress.

THE TEACHER. By J. R. Blakiston, M.A., one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. Macmillan & Co., London.

PRACTICAL HAND-BOOK OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND TEACHING. By F. E. Harding, M. C. P. Thomas Laurie, Edinburgh.

HUGHES' HAND-BOOK OF EXAMINATION QUESTIONS in Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar and Analysis. Hughes & Co., London.

It is not necessary for Mr. Blakiston to inform us, as he does in his preface, that his manual is the result of twenty-five years' experience in educational work; every page attests extended practical acquaintance with the work carried on in elementary schools by an active, searching, and unbiassed mind,

accustomed to look for something good in whatever comes before it.

"The Teacher" is divided into three parts:—Part I. is devoted to Tone and Discipline, and to Class Management; Part II. to Infant Schools; and Part III. to Boys', Girls' and mixed Schools. Two appendices are added which will prove useful to the young teacher, as they contain outlines and notes of lessons given by experienced Masters and Mistresses on the various subjects of School-work.

Parts I. and II. are the most valuable, in the book, and the remarks of the author on tone and discipline are full of good sense. While admitting, for instance, that there are born disciplinarians as well as born teachers, he maintains that much may be done by persistent effort on the part of the most unskilful teacher to secure excellence in school management, and he supports his assertions by the following remarks:—

"The least gifted may take heart when he bethinks him that success in school management depends mainly on watchful and unremitting attention to little details, and on conscientiously grappling with every difficulty as it arises. . . . If a teacher at all times keeps a high aim steadily before him, and struggles incessantly to attain it in spite of repeated failures, his very mistakes carefully noted and thoughtfully corrected, will lead to gradual improvement and ultimate excellence. He should ever be on the look out for better methods, apter illustrations, more vivid ways of putting things, however homely and familiar to himself. A lifetime is not too long to attain perfection in his art."

He gives advice that only a man of long experience in school work might be expected to give on the way to deal with troublesome parents, strongly recommending forbearance, and the "soft answer." In connection with this subject he wisely cautions teachers to beware of turning to a child's disadvantage in school anything he may have learnt by a visit to his home. Mr. Blakiston is evidently not disposed to coincide with those teachers who think they should exemplify in their own persons that

useful fiction of our political constitution, "The king can do no wrong;" for he plainly advises them to confess their ignorance when questioned by their scholars on any subject with which they are not acquainted; and to make amends for any injustice or unkindness they may, through irritability or infirmity of temper, have been guilty of towards them. This course of action cannot be too highly commended on the part of those who have the training of the young; children should be taught by example, as well as by precept, to shun intellectual arrogance; and to show a proper regard for the feelings and rights of all with whom they come in contact.

Coming to methods of teaching, our author has no word of praise for the old style of teaching reading, by uttering the names of the letters and not their powers; he strongly supports the phonic system which has begun to show good results amongst ourselves, and as an encouragement to those who may not have tried it, he says:—"Teachers previously accustomed to teach reading alphabetically must not allow themselves to become disheartened by the seemingly slow progress made by children during the first few months. Their steady progress afterwards, and the confidence with which they will soon grapple with words will more than repay patient waiting." Then follow some excellent remarks on the way to teach spelling.

His recommendation of simultaneous reading when children are beginning a new lesson is of questionable utility, as are some others that he makes on teaching the ordinary subjects to advanced scholars, but any defects of his own are amply made up for by the admirable notes of experienced teachers in the appendices. One of the points to which Mr. Blakiston gives frequent prominence is the necessity for the teacher to thoroughly prepare himself for every lesson he has to give; and in doing this to make notes of subjects with which he is not perfectly familiar by consulting other authorities than the school textbook before he brings them before the class.

It is interesting to know what a man of our author's range of thought and experience deems necessary for children of our element-

ary schools—beyond the ordinary school subjects. On pages 60 and 61, he says:—

"A girl leaving school at the age of twelve should be a good needle-woman, able to mark, mend, and make her own and her brother's underclothing. She should know the uses and prices of common clothing materials, and the most economical way of cooking simple food. Boys should have special instruction in elementary physics, so as to understand something of the forces with which they have to deal. The teaching should be such as will tend to implant in them a sense of their ignorance, and a desire to learn more as they grow older. Thus the action of syphons, pumps, screws, inclined planes, levers, wedges, wheels, axles, and pulleys; dew, rain, hail, frost, clouds, ice, snow, winds, thunder-storms, are all subjects of which a good teacher will be anxious to let his boys know something definite, before they leave school for work. . . . Systematic instruction should be given to both sexes on the laws of health, and on such parts of animal physiology as are needed for an intelligent knowledge of those laws. They should be taught the proper treatment of common accidents, burns, scalds, clothes taking fire, cuts, bruises, and drowning."

We have said enough to show that this book has a good deal that is fresh and well worth knowing, on what is regarded as a thread-bare subject. We can heartily commend it to the attention of our young teachers, feeling sure that a studious perusal of it will aid them in shaping their ideas in right courses, and their conduct in safe paths, over difficult ground.

The next work under review is in marked contrast to the one we have just dealt with. Mr. Harding, M. C. P., evidently knows little about himself, or he would never have committed his crude notions on School Management to print. Mr. Blakiston's book is the work of one whose knowledge of his subject is sufficiently extensive to make him, as he declares in his preface, "feel more and more every year how much he has yet to learn;" while Mr. Harding's is the work of one who, like the unskilful sculptor referred to by himself, proceeds to use mallet and chisel upon a stone whose nature he has not carefully studied. We find, for instance, that his idea of school management does not rise higher than that of regu-

lating everything by the rod. There is little to be learned from the methods he recommends in teaching the various subjects, if we except spelling, and perhaps geography; and there is much to find fault with. Take for instance, what he says about teaching subtraction.

"The system of borrowing and repaying, continually carried on in these terms, should be carefully and clearly explained to the children, making them see that though we borrow 10, and apparently pay to the next figure only 1, we really pay 10; for the 1 we carry being added to a figure ten times as valuable as that for which the 10 was borrowed, counts not as 1, but as ten times 1, which is 10, and so the repayment is just." It does not seem to have entered the head of this "Member of the College of Preceptors," that the method of subtraction he describes and tries to explain consists in a continual adding and not in a borrowing at all. Equally crude are some of the remarks he makes on the teaching of writing and grammar. We can best mark our estimation of the book by saying that the most interesting part to the Canadian teacher is the Appendix, which contains the standards of Examination in the subjects taught in English and Scotch elementary schools, and also those for the examination of pupil teachers.

Mr. Hughes' Handbook is one we can strongly commend to the attention of teachers of our Public Schools. It contains an extensive assortment of questions in four of the most important subjects of their work. Many of these are selected from those put by Inspectors in Britain, when visiting schools, to test the knowledge of the classes they examined. The questions are graded so as to suit the various classes, from the first book up to the fourth or fifth. Answers are supplied to the Arithmetic questions. Amongst the easy problems for young thinkers will be found a large number that will serve as admirable exercises in Mental Arithmetic. To teachers of ungraded schools, who have such a variety of work to attend to, this book will be particularly valuable.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The future of the English language is, at the present time, a matter of anxious concern to those who regard with uneasiness the persistent efforts of sciolists and tinkers to remould the mother tongue on the principle of phonetic spelling. The agitation for the so-called "Spelling Reform" is one which we trust will be sternly resisted in Canada, as, however rational some of the proposals may be, to remove from the language some of its more glaring inconsistencies, the scheme as a whole is a wild dream of unwise, half-educated men, who would, for a craze, mongrelize our whole literature beyond recognition. It is very desirable, no doubt, that we should have consistency and uniformity in orthography, and to this end we would go some length in meeting the reformers of the language, but their designs extend much further than this, and would treat words as visible objects to be shaped in their spelling after their own orthoepic notions, regardless of their history and derivation. In the forms of those letters which imperfectly represent our vowel sounds, we should be prepared to entertain proposals to alter them, or to extend their number. So in regard to other matters, in which a change or an improvement would be serviceable, we would not object to innovation. But to revolutionize the language, and to desecrate our literature, by recasting its whole structure in the melting pot of visible and audible uniformity, as so many American theorists on the subject would do, is a project which should be utterly scouted and receive the discouragement it deserves.

WE have little to add to our remarks of last month upon the new School Bill, which, in a considerably amended shape, became

law as the session was about to come to a close. Immature as were many of the clauses of the Bill, and uncalled for as were almost all of its provisions, it is to be regretted that the House was not prorogued before it had a chance of being placed upon the Statute Book of the Province. We do not doubt Mr. Crooks's good intent in introducing the measure, but there is much in its provisions to warrant the belief that the interests of the schools were not wholly the motive which gave to us new legislation on the subject. A few more such sacrifices to political and sectarian intrigue, as education has just been called upon to make, will not be long, however, in testing the permanence of the office of Minister of Education. Governments that lend themselves to such legislation not unnaturally, also, imperil their existence.

WHAT is the matter with our contemporary "The School Journal?" In the last two numbers it has taken a new departure, and "gone back on" its loyal adherence to the Education Department from which, in its nursing days, it received that aliment which substantially aided it in finding its feet. This is ungrateful. But it has taken a more serious departure in the tone and style of its editorials, which we cannot say are an improvement on the crude efforts in composition which have hitherto been the noticeable feature of the *Journal*. Under the evident inspiration of some American contemporary, 'out west,' it has exchanged its former sober and timid style of writing for the flippant and the critical; and with a rough malice and a vulgar sneer assumes a defiant attitude towards the Minister of Education and the Department, which it ill becomes its conductors or its publishers to affect. The editor of the *Journal*, in his monthly lucubrations, mani-

feats an English style of his own, which it would be sheer presumption in us to criticise. This, time will perhaps either amend or considerably attune our ear to; but it would be well, while grammarians generally agree upon what is the correct English of a simple sentence, that the *Journal* should not set before the teachers of the country any very gross instances of its violation. On the question of style, we might, at the same time, suggest what must be patent to everyone but the conductors of the *Journal*, that educational topics demand a dignity of treatment which in the April number of the publication, at any rate, they cannot be said to have received. We refrain from comment on the questionable taste of the *Journal's* spleenetic detraction of the Minister who, like its Editor, is a public servant, and more than this, the official chief of the Central Committee, of which the editor is a member. Mr. Crooks has personal claims, aside from his official position, to be considered a gentleman, and to be spoken of and treated as such, and it might be worth while if the conductors of the *Journal*, ere they issue another number, would reflect upon this fact.

AN English Journal recently made this facetious remark, that, "Ages hence learned Archæologists may authoritatively declare that the great Needle was erected in England to mark the period when women abandoned the art of sewing, and began the competition with men which will then have resulted in feminine supremacy." If our contemporary, in his delicate rebuke of our wives and sisters, had extended the point of his satire, by some reference to the centuries of baking the needle had undergone in the hot sands of Egypt, and had included the abandonment of the art of cooking on the part of the sisterhood, he would have added a graver charge to his indictment of the sex. But the English public have less to charge themselves with in these respects than we in Canada, for not only is Domestic Economy—including needle work and cooking—both theoretically and practically taught in the Art Schools of Kensington, but over the country much at-

tention is devoted to these important branches in thousands of the public schools. With us, however, the pressing claims of these necessary branches of education have never been practically recognized as subjects of school instruction—public opinion, seemingly, never having been sufficiently influential to secure their being taught. So apathetic, indeed, is the public mind on the subject, that in regard to Domestic Economy, the Minister of Education publicly admitted the other day that some recent efforts he had made to have it included as a branch of study for women at the Toronto Normal School, had resulted in failure. Now without repressing the sex's laudable pursuit of the 'Higher Education of Women,' we venture to declare that their abandonment of the kitchen and their unwillingness to familiarize themselves with even the rudiments of the culinary art, is an untoward misfortune, not only to the sterner sex, but to themselves, and to the households of which they form a bright and graceful part. It may be, however,—happy thought!—that Mr. Crooks's experiment was resented because our young women knew already as much of cooking and of household duties as they were likely to learn at the Normal School—and the high reputation Canadian women enjoy as proficient alike in the kitchen and the drawing-room, may be safely taken as indicative of this—but a comprehensive theoretical and practical course of Domestic Economy, it will be admitted, includes much that, if properly taught, would be an important acquisition to the sex, and we hope larger views on the subject will yet prevail, and that schools of cookery will ere long become—if we must use the word—"fashionable" in Canada.

BRIEFS ON NEW BOOKS.

Goldsmith's Traveller and Gray's Elegy; by William Williams, B.A., and John Tait, Collingwood Collegiate Institute. Toronto: James Campbell & Son. Messrs. Williams and Tait have put together with considerable care the necessary material for the use of students preparing for an examination in these two classical works. It is, of course,

hard to be very original in travelling over such well beaten literary paths, but the editors have shown sufficient evidence of pains-taking to entitle us to expect more ambitious things from them in future. We would especially single out for praise the chronological table given at page fourteen, which shows at once the relation between the events of the lives of the two poets and the other leading incidents of their age. We must also have a word of praise for the neatness with which the little book is printed and bound. There are some points as to which the editors must allow us to differ from them, though even in these cases their mode of expression is perhaps more to blame than anything else. For instance they can hardly mean that an increased regularity in the number of syllables in a line is a *desideratum* in poetry. The highest poetry uses to the full those irregularities of verse construction which we find in the later plays of Shakespeare as opposed to the more monotonously regular flow of his earlier efforts.

Milton's Paradise Lost. Storr's Notes. Toronto: James Campbell & Son. Mr. Storr's notes to the first two books of the

great poem are perhaps hardly so exhaustive as those given in the similar work by Mr. Seath, lately reviewed by us. Except for this and for the fact that the text itself is not interleaved, we should think a student would feel some difficulty in knowing which of the two editions to choose to work upon.

Julius Caesar, edited by J. M. D. Meiklejohn. London and Edinburgh: W. & R. Chambers. This is a capital little book; the text carefully revised, the notes (in most instances at least) well meant and unobtrusive. We would particularly praise the typographical arrangement of these notes, the fount used being peculiarly adapted to catch the eye. Mr. Meiklejohn is, as might be expected, liable to occasional attacks of the commentator's rage to explain what needs no explanation. Thus he comments upon Act I, scene 2, line eleven: "and leave no ceremony out," as follows "out—unperformed." Surely to "leave out" anything is an ordinary, every-day expression enough, and the elucidation itself might as well have been "left out," or as the editor would doubtless say, might have been left "unperformed."

THE EDITOR has had the accompanying note courteously sent to him, by the Deputy Minister of Education, with reference to the Midsummer Convention of the "American National Association of Teachers." The invitation is a very cordial one, and with Dr. Hodgins, the Editor would gladly see it heartily responded to by the Canadian Profession, feeling sure that the contact with their brethren over Educational matters will prove profitable and interesting:—

Toronto, April 10.

MY DEAR SIR,—

I have received the following note from the President of the American National Association:

"We are making such preparations for the

meeting of our Association at Philadelphia, July 29—31, inclusive, as we think will insure a great meeting.

"We should be glad to have you and other Canadian Educators come over and meet with us. I am sure United States Educators, and people of Philadelphia, will extend a most hearty welcome to such as may be prevailed on to cross the border."

I trust that our County Teachers' Associations will be able to depute some of their leading members to join in this gathering. Those which I have hitherto attended have been most interesting and instructive.

Believe me,

Very sincerely yours,

J. GEORGE HODGINS.

OFFICIAL NOTICES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

[The following "General Circular" issued by the Department has, we learn, been distributed among School Trustees, and members of School Boards. In the interest of the profession, however, we have thought it important to give place to it in these columns, where reference may be more handily made to it.—ED.]

GENERAL CIRCULAR.

The Amendments in the School Law during the Session just closed, make it necessary that Municipal Corporations and officials, School Corporations and officials, and the public generally should be informed of their nature and effect; and I propose to do this in the like order as in the Revised Statutes.

I.—AMENDMENTS IN THE LAW.

1. It is now the duty of the Minister to apportion annually, on or before the first of May in each year, the Legislative Grant in aid of Public and Separate Schools according to the returns for the last preceding year of the whole population of Ontario, which the Clerks of the respective Counties, Cities and Towns separated are now required to furnish to the Minister on or before the first day of April in each year. This duty is, therefore, to be performed immediately by the several Clerks, using as the basis of their returns for the population of each County, City or Town separated the Assessment Rolls for the last year.

2. School Corporations purchasing authorized prize or library books, maps or apparatus from booksellers or others, are entitled to an equal amount from the Depository stock or in cash, as they may desire. Normal School students can obtain from the Depository, at cost price, text and library books, maps and apparatus—Teachers' Associations, works on education, and Public Institutions receiving Provincial aid, library, prize and text books, maps and apparatus.

3. The Franchise in the case of all Public Schools has been extended so as to include income voters who have paid a school tax,

while all formerly qualified continue to be so.

4. The mode of electing the Trustees of School Boards in Cities, Towns, Villages and Townships, has been clearly provided for, as will be seen from the Act itself; while in the case of Rural School Sections the old mode has not been changed except as to the day of the Annual Meeting, which will in future be on the last Wednesday in December in each year, or if a holiday on the day following.

5. The duties of Municipal Councils in organized Townships apply to every organized Township in the Province; but with respect to unorganized Townships and Municipalities composed of more than one Township, but without County organization, the law is now clear, owing to the amendment in section 10 of the new Act, which provides that the Municipal Councils in such case can form portions of the Townships into School Sections or a School Board as they see fit.

6. It is important to know that the powers of Trustees of rural school sections to levy or collect upon their own authority public school rates has ceased, excepting as to pending proceedings, which may be prosecuted until the rates are collected; and henceforth the machinery for the collection of all school rates as well as other rates is the same, the basis for the requisition of the School Trustees being the Assessment Roll, and the collections being through the Municipal Collector and other Municipal officials.

7. Any surplus school money (not derived from the Municipalities' Fund, or the Municipal Loan Fund surplus) may be apportioned amongst school sections according to the

average attendance of the pupils at each school.

8. The amount payable from the County Rate for Teachers' salaries can either be paid by the County Treasurer under the direction of the County Inspector to any Teacher direct, or transmitted to the respective sub-Treasurers.

9. It is made clear that all pupils, children of non-residents, are liable to pay a school fee, not exceeding twenty-five cents for each month.

10. In arbitrations for taking school sites all interests, including those of Owners, Mortgagees, Tenants and others, can be dealt with.

11. As to Union School Sections the following doubtful points are settled :—

(1.) The union is considered for inspection, taxation, borrowing of money and all school purposes, as within the Municipality in which the school house is situate.

(2.) Part of the portion of the Municipality forming the union may be withdrawn, but any proceeding of this nature is always, as well as the whole portion, in the discretion of the Municipal Council.

(3.) On the first day of January next, the provisions as to a union formed after the second day of March, 1877, will apply to all unions formed before that date, and as to the latter, the period of five years runs from the time they were first established.

12. The Public School Board of any City is empowered to constitute one or more of the Public Schools in such City a Model School for the preliminary training of Public School Teachers subject to the Regulations of the Department.

13. As to Separate Schools, in order to improve their efficiency, while recognizing the principles on which they can be established, the following has been enacted :—

(1.) Elections of Trustees in Cities, Towns, and Villages are to be held, as provided in the case of Public School Boards, and in Townships, as in Rural School Sections.

(2.) Trustees can borrow on the security of the School premises or rates, repayable with interest, by instalments or otherwise.

(3.) A non-resident owner of unoccupied land can, if a Separate School supporter, re-

quire the School rates thereon to be paid to the Separate School, if any, in such Municipality.

(4.) Any Separate School rates charged upon real estate and uncollected at the end of any one year can, as in the like cases of Public School rates, be advanced by the Township.

(5.) So much of the General County rate for salaries of Public School Teachers which may be levied from Separate School supporters is to be paid over to the Separate School Trustees, if any, in the Township.

(6.) In cases where the Trustees of R. C. Separate Schools exercise their option of having the Separate School rates collected by the Municipal machinery, the Assessor can accept the knowledge of a person being a Roman Catholic as *prima facie* evidence of his being a Separate School supporter.

(7.) The Education Department can authorize a Separate School to become a Model School for the preliminary training of Teachers for Separate Schools; and in such case, or in the special circumstances of Separate Schools in any County, the Minister may recommend to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, the appointment of an additional member of the County Board of Examiners possessing qualifications prescribed by the Education Department.

(8.) The thirtieth section of the Separate School Act is now defined to comprise Teachers qualified either in the Province of Ontario, or at the time of the passing of the British North America Act in the Province of Quebec.

14. The powers of Public and High School Boards in requiring Municipal Corporations to raise upon the requisition of such Board any sum which they might demand, has been circumscribed as to expenditure on capital account to the extent following, viz :

(1.) The Municipal Council may, by a two-thirds vote, refuse to raise the amount demanded.

(2.) In case of refusal the School Board may require the question to be submitted to the Municipal electors qualified to vote on By-laws for creating debts, and on the assent of a majority of the electors being obtained the Municipal Council must pass the By-law.

15. In the case of Rural School Sections, Trustees cannot borrow or raise any money for expenditure on capital account unless the proposition has been first approved of at a general meeting of the qualified school electors.

16. The above provisions do not apply to cases where School Boards have, before the passing of this Act (the 11th March, 1879), resolved upon or entered upon any such expenditure under their former powers.

17. Debentures for the loan of money for School purposes may be for a term not exceeding twenty years; and may be repayable by instalments of principal, as provided by the Municipal Act.

18. The Board of Examiners for the admission of pupils to the High School is now confined to the Public School Inspector and the Head Master of the High School, the expenses being equally borne by both School Boards, after deducting any fees therefor to be prescribed by the Regulations of the Department under which candidates, being non-residents of the County (or City or Town separated), will be required to pay a moderate fee; as also unsuccessful candidates.

19. As to High Schools, the thirtieth section has been made more clear, so as to carry out what was intended. The Board of Education, while one corporation, is yet to act in Public School matters and High School matters respectively, as if invested with all the powers of Public and High School Boards respectively.

20. In case of a tie in any quorum of a Public, Separate or High School Board on any question, the Chairman has an additional vote to his own.

II.—QUESTIONS UNDER THE REGULATIONS.

I take advantage of this opportunity to express the proper effect of the Regulations on some questions of general interest.

1. The Regulations generally are to be understood as being a standard or model, to be reached as far as may be, having reference to the varying resources and different circumstances of each particular school as compared with another. In their application to any given case Inspectors and Trustees are to exercise a wise and prudent discretion, and upon this mainly depends their beneficial and useful operation.

2. Inspectors will understand that they have no power to withhold the Legislative

grant from any School Corporation, but should report the facts to the Minister, in cases where it is considered there has been wilful omission or neglect. It is to be specially noticed that the hints for the guidance of Teachers as to the programme or course of study should govern them; and that it is for the Trustees and Teacher to impose any time or limit table for use in the School.

3. As to School accommodation, Inspectors should consider the Regulations as recommendatory; and that the circumstances of each section must be regarded, in order that its resources may not be unduly affected.

4. Inspectors are requested to be careful in exercising any authority to set aside any election or proceeding at a school meeting, or to summon one on their own motion, and should proceed only upon formal reasons in writing. While the law and regulations are explicit as to their duties, they should endeavour always to act impartially, and thus justify the continued confidence of the County Councils who appoint them, and of the Education Department.

5. Inspectors should carefully consider the grounds on which they may recommend to the Minister the granting of a temporary Certificate or of any extension of Third-class Certificates.

6. The constant attempts to evade the law in introducing unauthorized Text Books is an evil which demands the immediate and personal attention of every Public School Inspector.

7. The functions of County Boards of Examiners, since August, 1877, are confined solely to the granting of Third-class Certificates or their renewal upon re-examination, or their withdrawal or suspension.

8. The duties of the County Board first begin when the answers are placed before them by the presiding Inspector. He alone or with an approved substitute conducts the examination itself, and as there will now be only one Intermediate Examination in each year there need be no misapprehension as to this in the future.

9. As to authorized Text Books, the Reg-

ulations of July, 1877, expressly prohibit Teachers from substituting for any of the old Text Books any newly authorized one unless and until he has received the sanction of the Trustees and of the Public School Inspector. All the old Text Books if in use in any school before the end of the year 1878, remain authorized in such school, and can only be changed by the Trustees and School Inspector jointly concurring.

10. The Regulations of July, 1877, were intended to meet the urgent and general demands for a revision of the Text Books, and to carry out the work which the Council of Public Instruction had begun. It was not the policy or intention of the Minister to go further, or to recommend any new Text Books on any subject except where the Council of Public Instruction had proposed this, or it was clear there existed a special want; yet, notwithstanding knowledge of this by publishers and others, persistent efforts have been and are constantly made to induce Inspectors, Teachers, and officials to recommend for purchase and use in the schools new works not only unauthorized but as to which no publisher could have had any reasonable expectation that any of them would be authorized. The law expressly prohibits any Teacher, Trustee, Inspector, or other person officially connected with the Education Department, Normal School, Model School, Public or High Schools, to

become or act as agent for any person, to sell or in any way to promote the sale of any School, Library, Prize or Text Books, Maps, Charts, School Apparatus, Furniture or Stationery for use in any School, or to receive any compensation or other remuneration for such sale or for the promotion thereof. In his endeavours to secure the observance of these provisions of the Law, the Minister hopes to obtain the co-operation of all School Corporations and officials, including Teachers generally.

11. As to County Model Schools—there is no Institution more important in its educational results, and while in all Counties of the Province, except two, this is fully appreciated, it is to be noticed that the Model School is for County purposes, and County Councils must rely on them for supplying their Counties with qualified Teachers. The Department has discharged its duty in affording these opportunities and the Legislature in providing a share of the expense. Nothing so economical or beneficial can be offered for the continued confidence and support of County Councils.

12. The subject of Text Books in the High Schools require the same observations as have been made in the case of Public Schools.

ADAM CROOKS,
Minister of Education.

Education Department (Ont.),
Toronto, March 14th, 1879.