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MORAL DRILL IN SCHOOL.*

By J. M. Harper, M.A., LL.D., Quebec City.

IN approaching the question of providing for religious instruction in school our discussions must no more run away from the fundamental principles which commend or condemn any element of school work than if we were discussing the introduction of any other of the many subjects which so many well-intentioned or ill-advised people would like to see inserted on the ordinary school curriculum. Last year at Sherbrooke, this association had up for consideration the question of agriculture as a school study, and some of you may remember that I there enunciated the principle that in the proposed introduction of any new subject or educational process, the true function of the school, the well-defined trend of all *legitimate* school-work should never be lost sight of. And as an emphatic corroboration of the wisdom of your acceptance of this as a first principle, I may encourage you by saying that at the late National Convention of Teachers at Buffalo, that principle was not only enunciated but adhered to throughout the proceedings, much to the enforced diffidence of the faddists, if any of these marvellous people happened to be present. Those who took part in the discussions of that great meeting seemed to have in their mind more what ought not to form a part of school work than what might form a part of school work; and scant courtesy was given to any suggestion which, by any chance, seemed to run away from what we are all agreed upon as the true function of the school, namely, the development of the whole being of a boy or girl to the point of being able to take charge of himself or herself when called upon to assume the responsibilities of life on entering upon any phase of labor, or in entering upon the stages of the after self-education.

I think that we, the members of this association, may also take some credit to ourselves that our discussions have not to any serious extent run away from this first principle. We have come to be suspicious of the apples of Sodom that the opportunist is ever ready to offer us for the sake of a little vainglory in the shape of innovations of the Volapuk or Herbartian kind; and here I have to publicly thank the teachers of my inspectorate for the spirit of co-operation they have always shown in adopting any plan for the improvement of their schools, when once they have

* An address delivered at the Convention of Teachers lately held in Montreal.

come to understand that such a plan sinned against no sound pedagogic principle. Through this co-operation we have been able to approach the elemental laws of child-nature in a practical way, and if we have had the preliminary laugh to contend with as we persevered in introducing and maintaining the three drills as a means to an end, we surely can gain sufficient confidence, from what has been done, to face any obstacle that may be thrown in our way while introducing a fourth drill, the most important of all school drills.

After all these years of patient experimenting, it is surely not necessary for any one to tell you from this platform that physical drill is a necessary part of school work, a legitimate school function. And yet it may be necessary to repeat that physical drill is only a legitimate school function when it is kept in its place as a means to an end, and not for exhibition purposes. Do I need to tell you that sentence-drill is a legitimate school function? Certainly not; but remember that such a drill is only a legitimate school function when it is kept in its place as a means to an end, the end being the training of the child to think correctly by attaining to a correct way of uttering thought original or memorized, and no more need I tell you that religious instruction in school is a necessity, a legitimate school function as long as you do not forget that it must also be kept in its place as a means to an end, the end being the development of the moral nature of the child, the supreme test of all school work the forming of character.

In searching for a warrant for the introduction of religious instruction into our schools, it will therefore be necessary for us, as teachers, to take higher ground than the parent who desires to have his children receive religious instruction in order that when they grow old they will not depart from the religious denomination to which he wishes them to belong. In a word it is not the function of the school either to make good churchmen or good Catholics in the technical sense. Religion has to be taught in school because religion inspires the highest motives, because the religious emotions, conscience born, which have in them no share of the self-interest or worldly-mindedness of denominationalism, places at the disposal of the teacher the proper means to the noblest end, the activities of a moral drill that will realize the best results in developing the young towards the full maturity of an unprejudiced manhood and pure womanhood.

Nor is it difficult to make this clear to the teacher even of the least logical turn of mind. If the forming of character, the power to take charge of one's self be the supreme test of school work, and if this forming of character in its highest and noblest development depends upon the highest motives, and if these highest motives can only be born from the reverence for authority that religion invokes in the soul, the undeniable *sequitur* is that since moral training is a legitimate function of the school, religious instruction in school, as the most effectual means towards the highest end of school work, should be had in every school. Some would fain distinguish between morality and religion, whereas the only distinction between the two is that religion is a mere apperception of morality. To repeat, religion inspires the highest motives, and in the moral training of his pupils, the conscientious teacher does not desire to cultivate the habit of having less than the highest motives for all that he does. To emphasize this we might go a step farther. Religion is not only the strongest influence in provoking ethical motives in the moulding of human character and the guiding of human conduct, but it has been the strongest of all his-

toric forces. In proof of this witness the decay of morals in a nation during the transition from some decaying form of religion to a new or reformed way of giving play to the religious motives. A decline in Greek morals followed the national disrespect towards the tenets of the Greek mythology, just as the same thing happened when the Goddess of Liberty was set up in Paris during the French Revolution. The appeal to the moral nature or to the will by human-born motives is weak when unsupported by religious sanctions and influence. Human-born motives, as history shows, are insufficient barriers to national vice; and human-born motives are insufficient barriers to the milder immoralities of the school-room that finally depreciates the value of the individual in citizenship.

There is, therefore, nothing for us as teachers to do but to draw into our service these religious sanctions and influences, if we would see the best results follow fron a moral drill in school; and just as we have lately been inquiring about the best physical drill to be had, and the best vocal drill, and the best mental drill, with the intention of having them in our schools, so must we proceed to inquire about the best moral drill for our pupils and forthwith introduce it.

"No boy or girl ever received a religious impression of the least value in the devotional exercises in school." There is the statement of one who affects to know what he is talking about, and we, as teachers, had better look within the scope of our own experiences, to see what measure of truth there is in it. For one, I do not think the statement should pass unchallenged, and because for one I do not believe that the statement can be substantiated. I know of a village in which the master was accused of having used the curtailed form of "Our Father which art in heaven," etc., when carrying out the letter of the law; and of another where the boys were accustomed to repeat the Lord's Prayer as a final exercise in the afternoon, with their caps in hand ready for a rush through the open door of the school-room. I have been at the opening exercises in a school when the beautiful hymn, "He maketh up His jewels," was as unmeaning in the mouths of the dear little innocent souls who were singing it, as was the hymn, "I want to be an angel," in the mouth of the drunken ne'er-do-well as he staggered through the streets. These are exceptional cases, you will say, and so they are; but are they not sufficient to bring us to frown upon everything in the shape of perfunctory religious exercises in school. The regulations of the Protestant Committee require that the first part of the school-day should be devoted to religious exercises, including the reading of Scripture, prayer, and praise; and to make these exercises effectual, every teacher knows that a previous secular drill must be had, in order that the proper attitude of body, intellect, and soul may be secured when the pupil comes to enter into the presence of God during the short service. As I have said in my hints to the teachers of my inspectorate this year in anticipation of my annual official visit: "Every devotional exercise in school should have a purpose—a serious, solemn purpose—and the singing and simultaneous reading should be of the very best." Indeed, unless this proper attitude towards the primary Christian beliefs can be secured by the teacher in his school, the reflex heart-effects in the pupils will not rise above the average effects produced in the souls of a paid choir during the singing of the anthem in church, or of the gay party on the river of an evening with their mixed programme of "Hold the

Fort," "John Brown's Body," and "Jerusalem the Golden."

To be practical, then, moral drill in school must deal with the primary religious beliefs; and the first of all these beliefs, the fundamental anthem note of all religion—the ever-present supervision of the Most High—must come first in the order of a special training. "Thou, God, seest me" is the first lesson in religion that must be learned in school. The State recognizes God—Parliament opens with prayer, the witness-box still has Him for its shield, and the Public School continues to invoke His presence. But how is the school invocation to be made to mean more to the child's soul as a guidance for the day than the chaplain's prayer on the floor of the House of Commons, or the kissing of the Book in a court of justice? That is your problem, teacher, and for me to point out the way this evening would involve the resolving of this association into a Teacher's Institute and the illustration of my suggestions by an actual preliminary drill. Your physical drill is excellent aud develops the tissues through activity; but have you ever thought that the best physical drill, the drill that acts upon the whole being, body, mind, and soul, is not the drill of activity but the drill of quiet. You have been in the woods all by yourself; ah, then, you know what I mean. You know why it is necessary to train your pupils in a secular way to be still in order to train them in a moral way, in a Christian way, to be quiet in the presence of God. Then you know why the eye should be closed and the head bent during the religious exercises, and what previous drill you must have to secure the most solemn stillness when you take your pupils with you for a few brief moments into the immediate presence of God. As I have already indirectly said, the very best of everything is what we must present to the Giver of every good and perfect gift during the special solemn moment of the morning devotional exercises. The body attitude must have in it more than the precision of your best physical drill; there must be no word used which is a mere blurr mark on the intellect; the voice attitude must be even more than a previous thorough vocal drill can secure. In a word, your moral drill must include the best effects of your physical, vocal, and mental, as you lead your pupils into the Holy Place of communion with things unseen; and it is for you to say to yourself: Am I able to do this; have I the proper heart-attitude myself?

BRAIN FATIGUE IN SCHOOL CHILDREN.

M. V. O'Shea, School of Pedagogy, Buffalo, N.Y.

THE impression deepens within me every day as I inspect the work of pupils of all ages that one of the most serious obstacles to wholesome intellectual and emotional development in the class-room is a worn, depleted, fatigued condition of the nervous system. I can well remember the time, and indeed I see such things very frequently in the present day, when the teacher never suspected that dulness, irritability, and moral obtuseness were sometimes due to the state of the brain and nerves of school children. It seems, strange, too, when most of us in our daily lives have frequent occasion to observe the effects of over-

work, overworry, and other disturbing conditions upon the readiness and keenness of our thinking, and the amiability of our dispositions.

Every teacher has surely had the experience that after a hard day's work she is not so quick in understanding what people say to her, or in solving a problem; or, in short, in comprehending any new thought. She finds also that her attention is not so well controlled, so constant; she cannot remember so readily as in the morning, for example, when she feels fresh and vigorous. At such times she is more easily irritated; things annoy her that she would pass over lightly on other occasions. The cause of these phenomena is generally said to be and truthfully enough, too, mental tiredness or fatigue; but it has never occurred to many a teacher that these same conditions may exist in childhood, and be the occasion of dulness of mind and perversity of emotional and moral nature. We all have a tendency to think the mind is entirely independent of the body, and if one is not bright and of agreeable disposition we are prone to believe the cause is purely mental,—the individual is out of joint spiritually. "There is trouble with his mind," we say, "or with his will," but hardly ever do we hear that the child has not nervous energy enough to do good intellectual work or to withstand evil temptations of various kinds.

A SIMPLE TEST.

It seems to me exceedingly important that every teacher should appreciate the marvellously intimate relation that exists between mental activity and brain and nerve conditions. A simple way by which to become convinced of this is to study one's own daily experiences. When one is sick he finds that no amount of will effort will enable him to do as good thinking, or feel as pleasantly and amiably as when he is perfectly well. After a hard year's work in school most of us realize our inability to apply ourselves to diligent study during the summer months. And so illustrations without limit might be cited to show that sickness, overwork, worry, lack of proper food, and other conditions have a marked effect upon mind and disposition, and it will be easy for all readers to note the effect of these upon themselves if they have not already become assured of their disturbing influence.

On account of the importance of this matter I wish to enter here into a little technical description of the workings of the brain in order to show the effect of fatigue upon it. In the first place, if it were possible for us to examine its surface with a microscope of such power as is found in psychological laboratories we should see that it is comprised of an infinite number of small cells which in a state of rest are full of a substance that I shall here call nerve energy. This substance is derived from certain elements in the blood, which of course are in turn derived from the food we eat. Now, it has been shown that during mental activity of any kind, whether intellectual, emotional, or volitional, some of this energy in the cells of the brain is totally changed in character, and thrown off as waste matter, through the skin and other organs of excretion. The cells which at first presented a full, round appearance seem shrunken and withered after much mental action; that is, they are in a state of fatigue. If this fatigue extends over a large part of the brain, nervous exhaustion follows, which in an extreme stage becomes nervous prostration in the adult, while in children it is spoken of as chorea, an aggravated form of which is St. Vitus' Dance, with which every teacher is probably familiar.

EFFECT OF FATIGUE.

The important point here is that an individual in this exhausted condition has little power of control either of mind or body ; he cannot act precisely or think accurately or readily. All who have studied physics know that the law of conservation of energy reigns throughout the world; and fatigue falls under the law. All work requires the expenditure of energy, and when the work makes too great demands upon the energy, then in animal life fatigue with all its disagreeable concomitants follows. The individual is in such event no longer himself. He acts stupid, or feels restless and discontented. Matters do not seem to go right. Things that he usually enjoys are now indifferent or distasteful. He is angered quickly, and has little ambition or courage to attempt difficult tasks. So the list of objectionable accompaniments of fatigue might be spun out indefinitely.

This subject has been studied in many school-rooms during the last few years and all who have made investigations agree quite generally as to its frequency, its causes, and its effects. It will be well to indicate briefly, in the first place, some of the more general and frequent causes of fatigue in young children so that they may be detected by any teacher who will give the matter her attention.

NUTRITION.

The most essential requisite for the health of the nervous system is that there shall be the proper amount and kind of nutrition. It is a law of life revealed in nature universally that there cannot be complete harmonious development of individuals unless the condition of right nutrition is properly fulfilled,—unless they have enough of the right kind of food. And again different parts of any plant or animal require different kinds of food for their nourishment. In the growing wheat, for instance, the material which is required to fill out the kernel is not adapted to make the stalk. In the apple tree the same elements do not go to make both leaves and fruit. So in the human body the food that will make bones and flesh will not be best suited to make brain and muscle. Doubtless everyone knows that the cases are not uncommon when the food of children does not have enough of the sort of material to make rugged bones and they become bowlegged, or suffer with rickets or other disease due to lack of proper bone nutrition. While we have observed this fact in regard to the growth of bone, probably because the effect is so evident to the eye, still we have apparently not believed that the same law holds in regard to nutrition of the brain, or at least we do not take account of it extensively in practice.

CHILDREN WHO SUFFER FROM BRAIN STARVATION.

It is my purpose here to impress upon my readers the well-established fact that pupils in school frequently suffer from lack of proper brain nutrition, and are hence continually in a state of fatigue of greater or less degree; which means simply in this connection that the brain cells are not sufficiently replenished with the proper sort of food material. This may be due to any of a number of conditions which exist in many homes. Certain children do not eat enough because they arise too late in the morning and have no time for breakfast; others have no appetite for the substantial things that are put before them, partaking only of sweet stuffs; while in other cases poverty may make it impossible to supply enough of nutritious food. I have in mind now two or three young children coming from what would be called

excellent homes where, having their own way very largely, they would arise too late in the morning to reach school in time if they stopped for their breakfast, so they would usually come without it. The consequence was that before the morning session was half over these children were irritable, and were unable to give close, intelligent attention to the work that was being done. Of course the remedy in such cases is to inform the parents that the child will be sent home every morning when he comes without breakfast, provided the teacher can get enough authority in her hands to take this step.

The most serious situation of all is found in those homes where there is inability to provide the proper kind of food. In the homes of working people the children must usually eat the things that are prepared for adults, and such food is not generally adapted to nourish the brain of growing children working hard in the school-room. It should be remembered that school-children are using up a vast deal of nervous energy. The continual mastering of new thoughts, together with all the trying emotions that usually centre round this work in most schoolrooms, cannot but be a great drain upon the vital forces. This expenditure of energy must be provided for by an abundance of the right kind of food, which, it must be said, does not consist to any appreciable extent of starchy foods, fried fat pork or things of that kind. In many homes children live quite largely upon potatoes, white bread, and perhaps pan-cakes and sweetmeats with tea and coffee added in some cases. It will be a remarkable child living upon this diet who can be vigorous in the work of the school.

Every teacher ought to secure the report made by Professor Atwood, of Amherst, upon the nutritive values of different varieties of foods, and published by the Department of Agriculture at Washington. Professor Atwood's experiments have been conducted with the greatest care, and his results will be astonishing to most people who believe that it makes little difference what one eats, or who do not appreciate that a brain worker needs different food from one employed out of doors at manual labor all the time.

THE VITAL QUESTION.

But suppose a teacher finds that a pupil is not receiving an adequate amount of proper food what can she do about it? If the cause lies in indifferent or careless arrangements at home, she certainly ought to be of influence in setting things aright there, but it is not so easy to rectify matters in the homes of the poor; still even here something may be done by a teacher who can gain the confidence of parents in instructing them concerning the nutritious qualities of different foods, and what ones are specially suitable for young children in school. Professor Atwood's researches show that poor people do not expend their money for food in the most judicious manner. They pay high prices for articles that have comparatively little value, whereas some much less expensive would be found far more nutritious. The teacher is the best person to thus instruct the people, although I appreciate fully the difficulty of the problem. I know, however, that it can be and is being done by teachers who have the right qualities of mind and heart for such work.

SOME EXAMPLES OF FATIGUE.

I do not feel that all teachers can undertake such tasks but surely some can if they appreciate the necessity for it. But even if the teacher cannot change conditions at all, she will at least come to understand her pupils better and will have far more sym-

pathy for those afflicted. She will suit requirements to the needs of special pupils; she will lighten the burdens of those who are not able to bear them. I remember in visiting a kindergarten recently to have noticed specially one boy of about five years who was literally starved to death so far as his nervous system was concerned. He bore all the evidences of one who was not properly nourished; the cheeks were thin instead of round and plump as they should be; the region about the eyes was sunken and blue, the limbs were not plump and solid, the eyes lacked flush and lustre, and the skin was sallow. The boy was exceedingly nervous, being unable to control accurately many of his movements. The kindergartner told me that he was the most backward child in the class; and upon inquiry I found that there was nervous disease in the family. Here, then, was a type of nerve starvation with all the accompanying phenomena; it was not the only case in the kindergarten, which, by the way, was located in one of the poorer districts of Buffalo. Upon consultation with the kindergartner I learned that with no exception the children who plainly showed signs of imperfect nourishment were the ones who were giving her trouble in various ways. I found upon inquiry that some of these children were not only expected to eat the same food as was prepared for the father in the home, who was engaged in some form of manual labor, but what was worse they habitually drank strong tea and coffee, which must sooner or later undermine the nervous constitution of any child.

CHILDREN OF DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES.

The children of different nationalities differ greatly in this matter of fatigue. Italian children seem to be nervous degenerates; that is they inherit more or less unstable nervous systems. German children are the most stolid and healthy, and are least liable to suffer from overstrain in the class room. In the city of Buffalo the American children are more nearly like the Italians than the Germans;—they are highly organized, nervous, and show all the signs of overstimulation. Measurements made upon a number of them by an expert physical trainer revealed the fact that comparatively few American children have well-formed physiques. They ofttimes do not have perfect control of themselves, the results of defective brain conditions. This emphasizes the necessity for teachers of American children to arrange the work of the class-room in order to avoid so far as possible the occasions for brain fatigue; and I shall make some suggestions upon this subject later.

THE MOST SERIOUS CAUSES OF DEFECTIVE NUTRITION.

Before leaving the matter of proper nutrition, there is still another type of child that should be spoken of, one in which, because of pathological conditions in the system, the elements needed to nourish the brain are not taken up from his food. I have known a family through which this condition has run for two or three generations. Such people will exhibit all the phenomena of fatigue just as though they did not get enough to eat. A mother whom I know said to me recently that sometime ago her two children were giving her a great deal of trouble and anxiety because of their irritability and continual dissatisfaction with everything that was being done for them. They slept very poorly; and after a half day at school would come home so unstable that the slightest thing which crossed their paths would

throw them into a passion from which they could with difficulty recover. The mother was induced to have an examination made of the blood, when it was found that it lacked the proper proportion of elements required for brain nutrition. The children were at once put under the treatment of a physician, and in six months the mother told me she noticed a very marked change in her children. The irritability and sleeplessness with all the other disagreeable phenomena had almost entirely disappeared.

Still another instance of defective nutrition may be found in children who have inherited digestive troubles. Such cases are not at all uncommon, and they are always serious. I cannot but feel that such defective children might better ofttimes be out of school than in it; for the little knowledge they acquire will be a poor recompense for a total loss of health. When the teacher finds a child who would thus be benefited by leading an out-door, active life all the time, she should not hesitate, but should rather hasten to express her opinion to the parents.

There is a time in every man's education when he arrives at the conviction that envy is ignorance, that imitation is suicide; that he must take himself for better for worse as his portion; that though the wide universe is full of good, no kernal of nourishing corn can come to him but through his toil bestowed on that plot of ground which is given to him to till.—*Emerson.*

THE SOCIAL MISSION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

By Pres. Hyde, Bowdoin College.

(*Concluded from last month.*)

ANOTHER condition essential to the social function of the public school is flexible programmes, with frequent irregular promotions, and with examinations which test the power to do intellectual work rather than capacity to remember information.

All children are not alike, either in their mental tastes and aptitudes, or in the rapidity with which they can acquire knowledge, or in the ability to recite what they have learned. There should be as much opportunity as possible for the individual aptitudes of the pupils to find exercise and expression. Broadly speaking, all minds are divided into two classes, the literary and the scientific. Some boys will do splendid work in the laboratory who can get very little from the library. Some who shine in the library are utterly stupid in the laboratory. The good mathematician is often a poor linguist; and frequently the good linguist is a wretched mathematician. As soon as possible, the children should be allowed to follow the native bent of their own minds; selecting for study the things for which they are best fitted. This principle of election has won its way in all our colleges. In the shape of two or three parallel courses it prevails in our high schools. The time is not far distant when a limited number of substantial courses will be offered by the high school to all the pupils, and when each pupil will be allowed to select, with the advice of parents and teachers, his own course; and the same diploma will be granted to all who have completed satisfactorily the required number of courses. Thus,

instead of trying to make alike the boys and girls whom nature has made unlike, we shall rather endeavor to develop the unlikeness and individuality of our pupils, in continuation of the good work which nature has begun.

Frequent irregular promotions are essential to the best development of the individual. I owe two years of my intellectual life to the fact that, in the city in which I was attending school, I was allowed to go through the two years' course of the intermediate school in one year and the two years' course in the grammar school in one year; so that I entered the high school and began the study of Latin and algebra at the age of eleven. The average boy can be just as well prepared to take up these studies at the age of eleven or twelve, as at the traditional age of fourteen or fifteen.

Examination should consist, not in a test of a student's power to disgorge the crude materials which he has hurriedly crammed; but rather a test of his power to apply the principles which he has gradually assimilated to the problems with which they are concerned. In actual life the test of efficiency is not, "How much information can you repeat by rote without looking at your book?" but it is, "What problems can you solve, what presentation of a case can you make, with all your books and tools before you?" The time is not far distant when we shall no more expect a pupil to dump upon an examination paper all that he has learned during a term than we shall expect him to regurgitate all the food that he has eaten during the same length of time. We shall expect him to keep a record of work done throughout the term, which shall be open to inspection; we shall expect him to show his ability to comprehend statements and solve problems, and discuss questions which would have been altogether beyond him at the beginning of the term.

The ideal is not a cast-iron one, a programme over which every scholar must go at the same rate, and from which all shall show the same results, but a flexible programme, in which each shall study the subjects for which he is best fitted; over which the bright scholar shall pass quickly, and the dull scholar slowly; and from which each scholar shall show some growth of power and quickening of intelligence and interest peculiar to himself.

The introduction of modern languages, and physical science, and advanced mathematics into the grammar schools for pupils at the age of from eleven to thirteen is in the interest of the more perfect accomplishment of its social mission by the public school. To keep scholars grinding away at the refinements of arithmetic and English grammar year after year, at this most enthusiastic and susceptible period of life, is to disgust them forever with all that has the name of education. By the time a boy is eleven years old he may have all of these matters that will ever be of any value to him; and to keep him grinding away at them for two or three years longer is a wicked waste of the most precious intellectual opportunities of his whole life. Then, if ever, he should have a chance to learn his own language by the fascinating and fruitful acquisition of a language other than his own. Then he should fix forever his arithmetic by carrying the principles of it up into algebra, out into geometry, and making application of it all by weighing and measuring and calculating the forms and forces with which physical science is concerned. Emerson has said that no man ever does anything well who does not come to it from a higher ground. The surest approach to a thorough compre-

hension of English grammar is through Latin or French. The best way to retain arithmetic is to preserve it in the form of algebra. The best way to assimilate what we have learned already is not to keep digging away at it after all its freshness has been worn out; but to go right on using the power acquired in mastering one subject for the conquest of another.

The introduction of physical science, first in the form of object lessons and familar talks, and then in systematic study as a substantial subject, before the great mass of children leave school altogether, is an important element in the social mission of the school. There is a time in the life of almost every boy and girl when there is a keen and eager interest in natural objects and natural law. Let the student then be trained to observe things at first hand; to weigh and measure, to perform experiments, to keep a record of things seen and done, and he will thus acquire a life-long interest in nature. This is equally desirable for the great majority of children who leave school for work, and for the few who go to college. To those who go to work at once, it gives a more intelligent interest in the familiar objects with which they have to deal, and a wider companionship in the world of which they form a part. To those who go to college it gives a training in accurate observation, and a facility in experiment which lays a foundation for the accurate scientific studies of their college course. Now, the great majority of boys come to college with their powers of observation, their natural interest in natural phenomena, stunted and atrophied by prolonged disuse, and crowded out by the mere book-learning on which our narrow lines of requirement have forced them to concentrate their efforts. Scientific studies pursued by scientific methods are an element of training for the largest and truest enjoyment and usefulness of life which no system of education can omit which will fulfil its social mission.

What observation and experiment and the methods of the laboratory are in relation to nature, that good literature is to humanity.

Literature presents the ideal of human life as it has expressed itself in the great institutions of family, church, state, and society. It clothes these ideals in the flowing robes of the imagination and adorns them with the jewels of well-chosen words, set in rhythmic and melodious forms. To feed the mind of youth on the ideals of a noble and elevated human life; to win his fidelity to the family through sweet pictures of parental affection, and filial devotion, and pure household joys; to secure his loyalty to the State by thrilling accounts of the deeds of brave men and heroic women; to make righteousness attractive by pointed fable, or pithy proverb, or striking tale of self-sacrificing fidelity to the costly right against the profitable wrong; to inflame with a desire to emulate the example of patriot, martyr, and philanthropist; this is the social mission of good literature in the public schools. To interpret this literature, so that it comes home to the boys and girls; so that they see reflected in it the image of their own better selves; so that they carry with them its inspiration through all their after lives; this is the duty and the privilege of the public school. It is not of so much consequence what a boy knows when he leaves school, as what he loves. The greater part of what he knows, he will speedily forget. What he loves he will feed on. His hunger will prompt his efforts to increase his store. The love of good literature —a genuine delight in Longfellow

and Whittier, Lowell and Tennyson, Hawthorne and Scott, Shakespere and Homer—is, from every point of view, the most valuable equipment with which the school can send its boys and girls into the world.

For the same reasons drawing and music should be prominent features of the public-school curriculum. To what purpose does the artist "re-create the glory of the world," and the musican "re-echo its loveliest songs," unless there be developed in the great mass of his fellow-men the power to appreciate the beauty and the harmony of sound. It is not to make artists and musicians, it is to create appreciation of art and music, and to make these the ministers of gladness and hope and cheer in every humblest home, that the school should teach its pupils to draw, to model, and to sing. It places within the reach of every child sources of innocent and wholesome pleasure which riches cannot give nor poverty take away.

I have endeavored to present, first, the motive or ideal of the new education, which is nothing less than the fitting of each individual member of society for a useful and enjoyable participation in all that is purest, noblest, and highest in our common intellectual and social life. I have pointed out some of the more important features on which the new education insists as essential to the accomplishment of this, its social mission. Physical and manual training; flexible programmes and rational examinations, and frequent promotions; science and literature, drawing and music; kindergarten methods to start with, and opportunity for the individual to determine his own course with reference to individual aptitudes and future occupations—these are some of the things which the new education finds essential to its social mission.

The present is a time of crisis for the public schools. I do not refer to political dangers, either such as may come from partisanship in the attempt to use school offices as party spoils; or to reduce appropriations from motives of short-sighted economy, serious as these evils must always be in a democratic government. I do not refer to ecclesiastical jealousies and antagonisms, disastrous as these may become wherever diversities of religious faith prevail. Both these dangers the public school will safely pass, for the properly conducted public school is so manifestly superior to anything that either partisan politics or sectarian ecclesiasticism ever can furnish, that its inherent superiority will continue in the future as in the past to vindicate its claim to popular support.

The only thing that any institution really and permanently has to fear is the substitution of something better in its place. Now there is something better than the public-school system as it exists to-day. A school system where the promotion is frequent, and the programme is flexible, and instruction is personal and individual, and examination is rational and natural, and where the great topics which call out youthful enthusiasm and minister to intellectual and social delight are introduced as early and rapidly as they can be appreciated and enjoyed; a school system like that is infinitely preferable to a system where everybody must take the same course in the same time in the same way; and be worried once in so often over the same arbitrary and formal examinations, and waste the same number of precious years in the same dreary and monotonous drudgery upon subjects which have long since lost all interest and charm. The wealthy and intelligent portion of the community are beginning to understand that the public

school of to-day is not the ideal school; and that fact constitutes the crisis of the hour. Shall this demand of the intelligent and wealthy parents be met by private schools to which the children of the more favored classes shall be sent, and by leaving the public schools exclusively for the poorer children whose parents cannot afford to send them to a better school? The moment that policy is permitted to prevail, the public school receives a more fatal blow than it was ever in the power of politician or ecclesiastic to inflict. The public school will conquer every inferior rival. Its rivals hithero, both private and parochial, have been hopelessly inferior to the public school; and in spite of all opposition, the public school has thus far come out of every conflict magnificently triumphant. Unless the public-school system itself responds at once to the new ideal, it will, ere long, find itself confronted for the first time by a rival whose superiority to itself will render it really formidable.

The public school is the institution which says that the poor boy, though he may eat coarser food, and wear a shabbier coat, and dwell in a smaller house, and work earlier and later and harder than his rich companion, still shall have his eyes trained to behold the same glory in the heavens and the same beauty in the earth; shall have his mind developed to appreciate the same sweetness in music and the same loveliness in art; shall have his heart opened to enjoy the same literary treasures and the same philosophic truths; shall have his soul stirred by the same social influences and the same spiritual ideals as the children of his wealthier neighbors.

The socialism of wealth, the equalization of material conditions, is at present an idle dream, a contradictory conception; toward which society can take, no doubt, a few faltering steps, but which no mechanical invention or constitutional device can hope to realize in our day. The socialism of the intellect, the offering to all of the true riches of an enlightened mind and a heart that is trained to love the true, the beautiful, and the good; this is a possibility for the children of every workingman; and the public school is the channel through which this common fund of intellectual and spiritual wealth is freely distributed alike to rich and poor.

Here native and foreign-born should meet to learn the common language and to cherish the common history and traditions of our country; here the son of the rich man should learn to respect the dignity of manual labor, and the daughter of the poor man should learn how to adorn and beautify her future humble home. Here all classes and conditions of men should meet together and form those bonds of fellowship, ties of sympathy, and community of interest and identity of aim, which will render them superior to all the divisive forces of sectarian religion, or partisan politics, or industrial antagonisms; and make them all contented adherents, strong supporters, firm defenders of that social order which must rest upon the intelligence, the sympathy, the fellowship, the unity of its constituent members.—*Educational Review.*

The world's roughness, falseness and injustice will bring about their natural consequences, and we and our lives are part of those consequences; but since we inherit also the consequences of old resistance to those curses let us each look to it to have our fair share of that inheritance also, which, if nothing else come of it, will at least bring to us courage and hope; that is, eager life while we live, which is above all things the Aim of Art.—*William Morris.*

HISTORY IN THE SCHOOL.

By S. S. Laurie, University of Edinburgh.

LANGUAGE and literature are not more closely connected with the humanistic in education than history is. And this for obvious reasons. It is the introduction of the young mind to the record of the past of the race to which he himself belongs and whose traditions it will be his duty to pass on to the next generation. It would be to waste words to endeavor to show how closely the study of this record is associated with moral training and with that kind of political instruction and humane learning which best fit the rising generation for the discharge of their social and political duties as citizens. It strengthens the sympathy of man with man and binds more closely the social bond. By the study of past greatness we learn to strive to be worthy of our forefathers, and, by the understanding of the causes which have led mankind astray, we learn to understand better the questions which arise in our own time and to act during the brief period assigned to us on the stage of life with circumspection, and under a sense of responsibility to those who are to succeed us.

To discuss here the importance of history in education would accordingly be superfluous. Opinions, however, may vary as to the age at which it ought to be studied and the method of instruction which ought to be pursued. It has been too much the habit, I think, to speak of history as a school subject from the point of view of the adult and cultivated mind, and to forget that, if the young are to enter into the life of the past and to become familiar with the sources of their own lives, the teaching of history must be adapted to the age of those whom we are teaching. The childhood of history is best for the child, the boyhood of history for the boy, the youthhood of history for the youth, and the manhood of history for the man. A similar misconception has existed with regard to most other subjects; and hence the attempt to convey adult conceptions to young minds in almost every department of instruction, a mode of procedure which, so far from promoting the growth of the subject taught, checks growth and destroys interest. And, as educators, we must admit that, if the result of our teaching be not to stimulate the activity of mind and to plant in the young an interest in the subjects taught that will outlast the school and influence the whole of life, we have failed.

History is a very large and various study and to deal with it is an educational instrument in all its bearings would occupy a volume. My chief interest is in history for the young as a vehicle of moral training, a means of cultivating sympathy of man with man and of so strengthening the social bond as to lay the foundations of a virtuous political life.

When, now, we ask for a method in teaching history we are first under obligation to explain to ourselves what we mean by history.

If history be the story of man's words and acts, the British Museum could not hold the history of a single day. By common consent the history of mankind is limited to an account of the words and deeds of men as members of a co-operating society of men, words spoken and deeds done in the interests of the progress of the community as a whole. The record of the past is full of many minor histories, *e.g*, art, science, education, all

of which throw a side light on history in its ordinary accepted sense; but we must not allow our attention to be diverted by these contributions to the history of humanity, however important, from the specific meaning of history as having for its chief subject-matter man as a political being, as political, law-abiding, and as law-abiding, moral.

(1) History is not antiquarianism. Antiquarianism has something child-like about it in so far as it revels in the facts and little things of the past simply because of its interest in facts and things in and for themselves, though not necessarily always indifferent to their wider relations. There are such minds, and it is a good thing for the historian that they exist, just as it is a good thing for the biologist that there are investigators whose chief delight is in the accurate investigation of particular forms and who not only fail to rise to the science of their subject in its true sense as a rational and causal presentation of a correlated series of phenomena, but even satisfy their self-love by talking somewhat contemptuously of "theorists." This childlike attitude of mind in an adult, however, is of distinct value to science and also to history. To such minds in the historical department Gibbon's "Decline and Fall," if it were published to-day, would be a great opportunity; they would fill columns with their "learned" criticisms and exposures of errors. But Gibbon remains; while they pass into footnotes to be afterwards corrected by subsequent footnotes. We condone this seeming pettiness in consideration of its uses.

(2) History is the story of the long progress of humanity in time. Consequently the dating of events in accurate sequence and of the prominent actors round whom these events have chiefly gathered is essential. This, however, is to be called chronology but not history.

(3) Further, since history is the long record of time, we must have record of events and of the acts of the men who specially influenced them in an accurate, *sequent* series. This we call historical annals. Annals may consist of bald, colorless statements, or they may be vivid and picturesque and contain an attempt to portray the actors. So far from such picturesque annals being less accurate presentations because of their dramatic character, they are in truth more accurate than bald annals because they are a more adequate presentation of human life; and human life is always dramatic. All depends on the objectivity and truth of mind of the writer. It is evident that annals well written are substantially narrations or stories, and are the vital basis of all history.

(4) History, however, in the strict sense (and I do not speak of the philosophy of history which is a distinct subject), contains both antiquities, chronology and annals so treated as to exhibit the causal relations of the series of events in their relation to the life of the community as a public ethical polity—a life of progress or of decay as it may be. To write history in this sense demands a combination of the highest powers, both intellectual, imaginative and ethical. By the very nature of the case such a treatment of events must be the most instructive and attractive of all studies, for what can transcend in importance the history of man to men? Humanity must always pre-eminently interest Man.

(5) The history of a nation is the history of a race; that is to say of a significant, if not specific, type of man working towards a social polity under certain conditions of physical environment. Since man lives by the earth and its products it follows that his re-

lations to the earth must be the primary fact in the history of any race, and will be found to explain much of its political activity and growth. The material conditions can never be lost sight of by a nation or its historian. In an advanced and complex civilization these material considerations may seem to have given place to "ideas" as determining the acts of a people, but they are always at work silently; and, when they are urgent, ideas, whether moral, political, or religious, will be swept away before them. The *prima vitæ* will govern. Geography, then, in its large sense is indispensable to the understanding of history.

(6) At the back of the sequence of events which we call annals have been thoughts, *i.e.*, ideas and purposes. These, again, have for the most part been closely connected with thinkers and with makers or transformers of politics; although it is true that tendencies often exist and will move a whole people which cannot be traced to any one personality. Thus the series of events as determined by external conditions, but above all by *thoughts* and ideals of life, constitutes history as a science.

If we reflect for a moment we shall see that the writer of the history of a nation in this large, only true sense, much more the historian of the world, ought to be possessed of an intense sympathy with humanity, the imagination of a poet, the thoughtfulness of a philosopher, the knowledge of an encyclopædist and the gifts of an orator. For the historian has to deal with the largest generalization of generalization in every field of human activity, and by dwelling on these to lay bare the secret springs of events and motives and all the causal relations of the growth or decay of nations. Hence we may say that a historical grasp of the life of man through the ages is the last result of a man's culture. If this be history, it is sufficiently evident that even if you have had a boy under tuition up to the end of the secondary school period, it would be little that he could know of it. But the instruction which the boy receives may always be such as will prepare him for the ultimate comprehension of history in its widest significance. As in all school subjects, we can do nothing in the school period but lay foundations; but, as I have often said elsewhere, we have not only *so* to teach as to give a sound foundation for ultimate knowledge in every department that we admit to the curriculum, but much more have we *so* to teach as to feel that we have already attained an educational purpose, at whatever stage the pupil may cease his attendance at school. What is that purpose generally?

We may sometimes be disposed to think that language is somewhat strained when it is said that the object we have in view, even in the formal discipline of intellect, is ethical. We see that it is so, however, as soon as we understand the meaning of the word "ethical" as marking the issue in personal life and conduct of the Rational and Emotional "which so curiously and subtly blend to make a man." To say that the end is ethical is practically to say that the end of man is the Humanity in him—not this or that specific knowledge or faculty. But however the word may demand explanation or justify restriction as denoting the end of disciplinary studies, its application to the teaching of school history "leaps to the eyes," as the French say.

Generally we would say that we attain our ethical purpose in teaching history by connecting the life of the boy with the life of the past humanity of which he is the most recent outcome. Thus we make it possible for him to become a "being of large discourse looking before and after;"

for the after look brings with it the forward look. We prolong his experience and his life thereby. Instead of three-score years and ten he lives thousands of years. All the past of man's life pours into him and he reaches forward also into the future of the race.

The purpose then which we have in view in teaching school history is the enriching of the humanity of the pupil with a view to an ethical result in life and character.

But no man, were he to give his whole life to history, can sum up in his own thought the past of humanity save in the form of the most generalized characteristics of nations and of their influence on each other for progress or decline. And, further, the true significance of events in world-history will not touch him, their interpretation will lie outside his acquired knowledge, his imagination, on which true appreciation of men and movements depends, will fail him, if he does not rest all his experience on a home basis. What has been is what now exists around him, and what has been and is, is what will be. Accordingly, historical appreciation and historical imagination must rest on the comparatively narrow basis of our own national history. If this be so with the professed historian how much more is it true of the average man. This gives us our second proposition :

The history of the school must be national history and its primary aim is the knowledge of the past of our own race as a portion of the human family with a view to the evoking of that personal attachment to our past and present and future which we call Patriotism.

A true patriot is full of history—the history of the past and the probable history of the future of his country animate him, although he may be a poor hand at a history examination paper. His whole life as a man is stimulated and broadened by the idea of humanity. This idea, no doubt, is narrowed down to the community of which he forms a part, the part out of which he more immediately springs, but it is none the less operative educationally.

In educating the boy to nationality and patriotism, we do not mean him to stop short at this ; but we may be assured that the vague and watery cosmopolitanism which some affect can be genuine only in so far as it rests on a patriotic *national* feeling. If we do not love those of our own household, the less we talk about loving Humanity with a big *h* the better. It is in respecting ourselves that we respect others. The youth of the country, then, must grow up in a knowledge of their own national record of arts and arms just as they must grow up in their own tongue and in their own literature ; and this they must do if they are intelligently and sympathetically to comprehend the life of other nations, past or contemporary. Education fails to attain its moral and civic ends if it does not connect a boy with his own national antecedents and all that has made him and the present possible, and it equally fails to attain the ends of culture in its larger sense.

But while this is our primary aim we must never lose sight of our ultimate aim—the enriching of the humanity of the pupil with a view to an ethical result.—*The School Review.*

(*To be continued.*)

Taste should be educated by contemplation, not of the tolerably good, but of the truly excellent . . . The best . . . when you have fully apprehended, . . . you will have a standard, and will know how to value inferior performances without overrating them.—*Goethe.*

CORRELATION, CONCENTRATION, CO-ORDINATION, AND UNIFICATION.

By W. T. Harris, LL.D.

INASMUCH as the words correlation concentration, co-ordination, and unification are heard or read very often by teachers just at this time, I have thought it would be a good thing to get together some definitions and discussions of these words in order to assist those who are interested in any of the conflicting claims now before the educational court.

The Herbartians in Germany speak of concentration of studies, meaning thereby the arrangement of the various subjects of study about a centre, which may be a literary work of art or some branch of natural science. In no case, so far as I can learn, has the word correlation, or its equivalent, been used in Germany for concentration. It seems that Dr. De Garmo used the word correlation as an explanatory word when discussing the meaning of the Herbartian term "concentration," in an article published in December, 1892, in the *Educational Review.*

The word correlation of studies, whenever used in American pedagogy, has generally meant the adjustment of one branch to another in the course of study in such a manner as to adapt each branch to the degree of maturity at which the pupil has arrived. For instance, algebra would not be correlated with primary geography and the first year's study of English grammar, because the pupil's mind, when mature enough to take up algebra, should already have advanced two or three years beyond the beginning of English grammar, and should have completed the second course in geography.

The word correlation has come into extensive use during the past thirty years through the writings of the physicists, and is best known in the expression "correlation of forces." It has been shown that each force in expending itself is converted into a corresponding force. Heat, light, electricity, magnetism, gravitation, are thus correlated in such a way that the action of a force is a changing of one form of energy into another. If correlation of studies were spoken of in the same sense, we should mean the equivalents of studies one with another in the degree of nervous energy required to master them.

In the preparation of the report of the Committee of Fifteen a series of questions, seventeen in all, were sent out by Mr. Maxwell and the members of the sub-committee, of which I was chairman, to various persons throughout the country soliciting contributions to be used in the preparation of the report. I enclosd a copy of this list of questions, in which it will be seen that the first four questions related to the more fundamental subject of the educational value of the different branches. Questions five to eight relate to the unification of studies, probably referring to the Herbartian idea of concentration. Questions nine to seventeen relate to the methods and organization.

It has been said frequently, and carelessly it seems to me, that the superintendents' department at the Boston meeting appointed a committee of fifteen to report on the correlation of studies, meaning by this the concentration of studies in the Herbartian sense. This is, of course, altogether a mistake, inasmuch as the resolution offered on the 22nd of February, 1893, by Superintendent Maxwell of Brook-

lyn (and not by Colonel Parker, as some suppose), proposed to investigate "the organization of school systems, the co-ordination of studies," etc. (not the "correlation" of studies). When the word "correlation" was brought in in the questions sent out by Mr. Maxwell, I noticed the prominent place occupied by the subject of pedagogical value, and took for granted the word "correlation" had been brought in as a substitute for co-ordination, and not as an equivalent for contentration. I noticed questions five to eight and concluded that the Herbartian idea of concentration was intended to receive some attention, but not, of course, to occupy a prominent place in the report.

I have sent out a number of inquiries to well-informed persons requesting further information as to the use of the word correlation in the place of concentration, and if the subject interests the readers of the *Journal*, I shall hope to contribute another article on this subject.

Lindner, in his "Cyclopedia of Education," defines concentration of instruction to be a method by means of which the multiplicity of objects and branches of knowledge are brought into harmony with the unity of consciousness, and this is done within the whole range of teaching *according to their inner relation.* All the branches of study are *inter related* both naturally and by design of the teacher.

Dr. Frick, in Halle, speaks of "Stoff" centres, or centres of knowledge, for language instruction, or for nature study; and then says that there must be made a distinction between concentric instruction and an arrangement of the branches in concentric circles. He says: "We demand as much of organic concentration as possible within concentric circles."

The translators of Herbart's "Science of Education," H. M. and Emmie Felkin, render Herbart's terms, "Vertiefung und Besinnung," with "concentration and reflection." These translations studiously avoid the use of the word *correlation*, but mention *relation* quite frequently. (See p. 123, also p. 126, edition Heath.)

The Herbart Club translates Lange's definition of apperception, saying: "Apperception is that psychical activity by which perceptions, etc., are brought *into relation* to our previous intellectual and emotional life. (See p. 41, edition Heath.)

Zinser translates Ufer's presentation of Ziller's concentration idea by rendering the words, "Verknupfung samtlicher Lehrfacher," with *inter-relation* of all the branches while teaching according to their several characters; (*a*) of the thought and language studies; (*b*) of the thought and form studies; (*c*) of the branches of thought studies among one another. (See p. 79, edition Heath.)

Rein, in his Grundriss, quotes Stoy in his cyclopedia. He says: "The instruction may be characterized by comparing it with a symphony in which at different intervals certain tones become dominant and controlling, then recede to make room for others, but finally they all unite harmoniously to one great stream." (See p. 95, edition Jena.)

Wagner, in his "Practice of the Herbartians," says: "Instead of chaotically mixing the branches of study, we should try to arrange them so that each branch be combined with the others *nearest in relation* and thus seek to profit by the reproduction and interest arising from this relation."

President DeGarmo, in an article on "Co-ordination of Studies," in the *Educational Review* of December, 1892, says: "This is a Herbartian view. *The co-ordination of studies means their correlation*, that is, it means that it shall enable the pupils to become conscious, in one way or

another, of useful and interesting relation between the various topics of the various studies. Every child is sure to be interested in some thing, so that if he can see that other things are related to his favorite ones, life at once broadens before him. The basis of interest in study is laid when the child finds in the subject-matter of instruction that which appeals to his own thinking as valuable. He must understand it, therefore, primarily, in its relation to himself." . . . . "Having a single principle of unfolding for several branches, we have at the same time *the possibility of their correlation.*" . . . "*The key to the correlation* of studies would be the most logical unfolding of the various studies as relatively completed sciences." . . . "When it is discovered that the psychological developments of the child correspond, step by step, to the historical growth of the culture of the races, and that this race development is recorded in such studies as biblical and other history, in literature, language, etc., then it would seem that we have found the first *requisite for a successful correlation of studies.*"

In the discussions of Messrs. Charles and Frank McMurry and the Herbart Club in Illinois, the term *correlation* for unification of studies *is not used.*

Superintendent Maxwell moved at the Boston meeting, February, 1893, of the Superintendents' Section of the National Educational Association that a committee of ten be appointed to investigate the organization of school systems, the *co-ordination of studies* in primary and grammar schools, and the training of teachers," etc.

Colonel F. W. Parker, in his discussion of the Report of the Committee of Ten (President Eliot's summary at Richmond), does not use the term correlation, but speaks frequently of the *relation* of one branch to another. On p. 447 of "Addresses and Proceedings," we find that he said: "The most remarkable showing in nearly all the (sub) reports is a very marked tendency toward the modern doctrine of *unification or co-ordination* of studies." . . . "Some of the principal suggestions tending toward the theory of *concentration* . . ." It appears to be in his "Talks of Pedagogics," published in 1894 (pp. 26, 27), that he uses the term first.

According to Murray's great English Dictionary, correlation means: 1. Mutual relation of two or more things. 2. Relationship of persons. Correlation of forces is defined by Grove as "reciprocal production," "any force capable of producing another may in its turn be produced by it." According to Darwin, biological correlation means "The normal coincidence of one phenomenon, character, etc., with another." In geometry the correlation means reciprocal relation. Murray defines correlative first as "mutually interdependent," and afterwards as "complementary relation." But nowhere any definition given to correlation or its derivatives making it the same as the Herbartian "concentration."

The following is the list of questions drawn up by Dr. Maxwell, the chairman for the Committee of Fifteen. It is an excellent and exhaustive list of topics for its purpose, and led to a very animated discussion, lasting four days, at the meeting in Washington in December. It will be seen, as above remarked, that the foreground is occupied by the question of educational values, and that there is nothing in the four questions, numbers five to eight, which is not discussed in the report submitted at Cleveland. The real correlation was shown in the discussion of educational values, it being shown in each case what province each branch covered. Other than this essential correlation, there is, of course, only artificial correlation, and this was treated with sufficient thoroughness.—*Journal of Education.*

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

BY T. W. HUNT.

THE study of English in its commonly accepted divisions includes the three essential subjects of literature, language, and rhetoric. The first of these necessitates the wider topic of comparative literature, in so far as English letters have been affected by the literary development of the nations of continental Europe, more especially of Italy, France, and Germany. In the province of English philology, also, history and criticism constitute the two main lines of study. Rhetoric, as a distinct branch of English work, discusses, on its more formal side, the laws and principles of written expression as a science of discourse, while, in its more practical character, it seeks to apply these scientific methods to the actual production of material in the form of essay, debate, and written oration. The English course at Harvard is a model in its completeness and adjustment of parts. Made up of twenty-five or thirty different sub-courses, and under the personal supervision of an English faculty of twenty-five members, president Eliot is fast realizing his high ideals along this line, and setting a noble example to all sister institutions. Nor is such a creditable exhibit of English studies confined to what are called the oldest and largest colleges; such institutions as Lafayette and Amherst being justly proud of their excellent showing in these directions, while it is but truth to say that, in not a few of the smaller and less widely known institutions of the country, the best work that is done at all is done along English lines. The special form of this expansion now in progress is in the remanding of the freshman year English to the curriculum of the secondary school, thus requiring a corresponding enlargement of the collegiate work, with the double benefit of improving both the preparatory and higher courses. So marked is the advancement of English work in the best secondary schools that the colleges are simply driven to this concession, whether they will or not.

It is now in place to inquire as to the specific elements of excellence and promise. I note, first of all, a clearer affinity and interaction of collegiate and secondary school English. For the first time in our educational history, the earlier and later stages of English work are adjusted on a sensible and mutually operative method, through the medium of which the best results may be reached. This is especially gratifying in that no department, collegiate or secondary, has so suffered hitherto as the English has done by the absence of definite method and purpose; any man or woman with but scanty knowledge at hand and no experience, being regarded as sufficiently prepared to take up its teaching. A further element of promise in our English teaching is seen in the presence of higher ideals and better methods. Hitherto, these have been vague and impracticable, little understood by teachers or pupils; modified at random, and held subordinate to every other educational interest. All this has been changed, and permanently so. The true relations, in English teaching, of instruction, discipline, and culture, are observed. The connection of English as a study with all other liberal studies emphasized, while the mental independence of the student is not sacrificed to the demands of this or that particular literary theory.

In referring to improved ideals and methods of teaching, it may be noted, as a proof of such improvement, that in the study of literature the main result that is now sought is bringing the student into personal and vital contact with the best English authors, so as to make him thoroughly conversant with their writings, their personality and their most interior literary spirit. Authors are studied as far more important than any facts or dates or incidents about authors. So, as to the English language, while due attention is given to its history, a more particular study is made of the language itself—its structure, salient characteristics, and most of all, its capabilities as an instrument of thought. What the English language may be made to do by the English student as a medium of expression is the leading principle in the teaching. In fine, the teaching of our language on its literary side, and not exclusively on its linguistic side, is one of the most promising indications in modern methods, and is yet to be applied far more fully than ever; its more technical and minute method being reserved for graduate and special work. So, as to rhetoric, mere theory is fast giving way to intelligent praxis; the old, stilted formulæ of the schools to a more flexible and natural order. Best of all, as to method, these three related topics of literature, language and rhetoric are now pursued as one organic branch of study, wholly interdependent and progressive. Here again, the action of the committee of fifteen has done not a little in making these same methods necessary and feasible.

The question as to the needs of collegiate English is one of prime importance. One of these is found in the enlargement of the course where it is comparatively restricted. The catalogues of Harvard, Yale, Columbia and Cornell, as they lie before me, reveal a substantially complete outline of English studies. The same fact is true of a few other institutions that might be named, such as the University of Virginia, of Michigan and Smith and Wellesley colleges. The majority of the higher institutions, however, need some decided development along this line, and of this they themselves are the most keenly aware. This expansion is urgent in required, elective and graduate work, so that the English student may be thoroughly furnished for his needs without subsequent resort to the universities of Germany and Great Britain to supplement his training. In consequence of this enlargement, a further need arises as to the teaching force. In most of our best institutions this is lamentably meagre, making it impossible for those who have the department in charge to satisfy their students or themselves. I cannot, at present, recall more than a dozen of the larger American colleges where the teaching force is at all adequate to what should be the requirements in English. In the exercise of English essay-writing no lasting results can be reached apart from the personal supervision of instructers, and, in a college of over five hundred students, this demands a large body of instructors. The greatest need, however, in English work, at present, is in the line of library facilities—the need of a liberal supply of the best English authors in multiple copies, so as to enable students to have free access to them and use them as guides in their work—books expressing every order of good English literature, as, also, books of reference and research. Students of English, above all other students, must be book-men, thoroughly at home in the English library.

In English, as in some other branches of educational activity, the province of what may be called disputed and debatable questions is large.

There is a high sense in which every conscientious teacher must have his own method and insist upon its application; the personality of the teacher being, after all, the most important factor in his relation to the student. One of these open questions relates to the place of formal rhetoric in an English course, as distinct from English composition or applied rhetoric. Some give it a place of prominence. Others, more wisely we believe, hold it strictly subordinate. A second question pertains to English philology. How minute shall the method be? Shall the English language be mainly taught in its separate character as language, as a study of structure, of roots and forms; or taught, as the agent of expression, the medium of English literature, and mainly as a medium, so as to make the literature all the more emphatic? The place to be given to literary history and literary criticism, and, above all, to the actual reading and study of authors, the time of its introduction into the college course, and the space to be assigned it; whether the instruction shall be minute or philosophic, by lectures or text-book, or both—these are among the mooted problems of the class-room that each professor must solve for himself. Another question pertains to the limit of specialization in English. Can it not be made extreme? Is it wise to conduct a body of students through a half year's course in the poetry of Pope, or the theory of criticism, or the art of versification, or the plays of John Dryden, or the monologues of Browning? Is not education in America in serious danger in all departments, in this dominant tendency toward specialization?

In closing, two suggestions of moment engage me. The one pertains to the relation of English to classical studies, and insists that this relation be amicable and mutually helpful. The indebtedness of our vocabulary to the Latin is so great, and our literary indebtedness to the Greek so great, and so much of the exercise of translating classics into English ministers directly to the interests of the vernacular, that to decry such study is self-destructive. The other suggestion pertains to the absolute necessity of preserving the literary spirit, and the English literary spirit, in our so-called literary institutions. We are told, and justly so, that this spirit is declining and is in present peril of a still more prominent declension. Above this or that English study, linguistic or literary; above this or that method of study, technical or constructive; above any of the personal preferences of professors, or any of the more general policies of our higher institutions, these centres of liberal learning should be pervaded by a pure and vigorous literary presence and impulse, making the college the home of English culture, and inspiring all who frequent it with an ever-growing love for English letters.—*The Educational Review.*

PARENTAL ENDURANCE.

A QUESTION whether children's manners have declined has been raised in the English press, and has led to a good deal of discussion pro and con. The result of it seems to be either that they have declined, or else that something has occurred which makes it seem as if they had declined. Of the two theories, the first is by far the simplest and easiest of belief. The second, however, has found an advocate in the

Spectator, which insists that the trouble originates in a sort of parental hallucination, children being pretty much what they were fifty years ago, while the parents have become meantime so much more nervous and high-strung that they cannot endure children as they could formerly. "As far as we can see there is only one substantial cause of the complaints which are undoubtedly rife as to the decay of children's manners. The nerves of the parents are no doubt far more highly strung than they used to be. For one person who fifty years ago went half-crazy over a racket, there are now a hundred. We think that our children's manners have declined because we are so much more irritated than we were by petty worries and strident noises. . . . Our children don't make more clatter, but we endure it less easily."

But bad manners do not necessarily consist of noise. While all offensive and avoidable noise is bad manners, children may display great rudeness without making any noise at all. A child who omits to say "please" and "thank you," who remains seated in the presence of older people, and makes faces behind their backs, who is habitually inattentive when spoken to, contributes just as little to the total volume of noise in the world, or even less, than the child properly brought up in these respects. Except where rudeness consists of making a noise, no parental hallucination of the kind supposed could be produced by decline of nerve-endurance on the part of parents.

There is another objection to the explanation still more serious, and that is that the theory runs counter to generally observed facts about modern parents. Nobody who has given any attention to the relation of parent and child can doubt that patient and uncomplaining endurance is the distinguishing modern parental trait. From the cradle and the perambulator on, what is the modern parent trained in if not endurance? In what else does he find true parental happiness?

In the earlier days of the century it was not so. Down to perhaps 1850 there lingered on the old-world view of the child, partly Roman, partly Saxon, partly Biblical, of which perhaps the best modern expositor was the excellent author of "Parent's Assistant." The very title of the book throws a strong light on the history of the matter. The stories contained in it are all meant to inculcate the old view—that politeness, like all other good traits, was the result of deliberate training; that with reference to manners the child should be made considerate of its elders. It should, for instance, if noisy, be rebuked, and if necessary punished; this would disconnect in its mind the idea of noise from its natural childish association with pleasure, joy, and excitement, and connect it with the idea of fear of disagreeable consequences and parental disapproval, and consequently with unhappiness and depression. The same theory was kept in view with reference to politeness of speech and address. Gradually, in accordance with what was believed to be the law of habit with reference to human beings, and is still believed to be such with reference to dogs and horses, the new associations grew so strong that the child was polite of its own accord.

The existing theory is exactly the opposite of this. It is that the child is born into the world with good instincts, tends naturally to become respectful, thoughtful, and polite, and will become so if the parents are very patient and considerate, and occasionally remind it of the rules which Solomon would have enforced with the rod and Miss Edgeworth with penalties of greater ingenuity and refinement.

It may be that this theory marks a great stride of human progress. Perhaps children are naturally good; perhaps the old theory that they could be trained to proper behavior only by an artificial association of the opposite with consequences not agreeable to any child, was wholly wrong. But, even so, the practice of the new system evidently calls for vastly greater endurance on the parents' part. In fact, it may be said that the function of the modern child is to teach its parents to endure. To send a child away from table for not saying "thank you" and "please"; to put it in a closet because it will seat itself on its grandfather's chair just when the old gentleman wants to make himself comfortable in it, is a comparatively simple matter. Any parent can bring up children by such means, and all parents once did so, with a quiet glow of righteous satisfaction; it was not pleasant to hear the child roar, but still it was for the child's good. But to tell a child fifty times a day that it is not polite not to say "please" and "thank you," and to go no further; to tell it to keep out of the best chairs in the room when they are wanted by older people, only to find the rule invariably disobeyed; to tell it every day to "make less noise," and yet to hear the din increase—to do all this for long years patiently and without complaint, and often without any visible improvement, either, on the child's part—all this calls for and we may add produces an endurance such as the elder parental world never dreamt of. It is a notorious fact that the present generation of parents, far from being irascibly irritated by children's noise and bad manners, suffer it gladly and with increasing competence. There is not a hotel piazza, nor a car gangway, nor a steamboat's deck from one end of the United States to the other, where constant evidence of the fact may not be collected. The trait has been celebrated in story, if not in song. Noise, racket, contradiction, impertinence, impudence, and even insult—all are endured from children with a patience which in parents is a new thing. For irritability, shortness of temper, high-strung nerves, and quickness of resentment, it is on the child's side, not the parents', that you must look. This is no doubt one of the things which make the amiability of Americans so marked a trait everywhere. They really get from children the training which under the old system the child was expected to get from the parent. A person trained to endure children as now brought up can endure anything.

PROFESSIONAL HINTS AND CORRESPONDENCE.

A SCHOOLROOM REVELATION.—Among the revelations which the school makes to the child there is one whose force is far-reaching. It is the revelation of a man or a woman, presented by this teacher. He has had a presentation of manhood in his father and of womanhood in his mother, but the revelation of manhood or womanhood coming from his teacher has a different appeal and attacks his sensibility at a different point. The writer overheard two mothers engage in conversation opposite him in a street-car a few days ago discussing their children's school relations, and one of them, the mother of a third grade boy, said: "I have had to abdicate, the teacher is queen. The teacher's statements are gospel, mine are commonplaces." It is true, the teacher is queen for her pupils, and happy for them if she is a royal woman, and he a kingly man.—*Ex.*

"A cure for bad spelling" has surely something in it as a title to recommend it to the attention of our teachers. While reading the *Educational Review* of last month we noticed the following letter in it:

To the Editor of the Educational Review:

Dear Sir,—I desire to express my appreciation of the article of Prof. Murray on the cause and cure of errors in spelling, as it appeared in the October number of the *Review*. The article is valuable for two reasons: first—for the clear "diagnosis" of one of the most common of pupils' mental maladies, and for the careful line of treatment suggested; and second, for the illustration given of how a careful analysis of the child's modes of thought may be directly applied to the daily work of the school-room.

The study of psychology has in the past been largely divorced from the practical needs of the teacher. It has been in the main a technical study, good for the mental training of the student, but of little service to the teacher when brought face to face with daily instances of "things that ought not so to be," and who yet feels helpless in stemming this tide of incorrect and slovenly habits of thought. The whole question of mental imagery is one of great importance, affecting not only the subject of spelling, but to a greater or less degree every other in the school curriculum.

As teachers, we must feel indebted to Prof. Murray for his interesting and suggestive article, and must unite in hoping that further diagnoses may be presented by his skilful pen.

Sincerely yours,

H. C. HENDERSON.

Fredericton, N.B.

And this is the article of which Mr. Henderson makes mention, entitled as it is:

BAD SPELLING—DIAGNOSIS, TREATMENT.—Too often when we are dissatisfied with the results of our teaching we lay the blame on our text-books or our methods. We think we have clear ideas of the perfect text-book or the perfect method, and we criticize the imperfect examples before us. If we would more frequently give less attention to books and methods and more to boys and girls we would be more successful. Teachers who speak from full experience, consciously or unconsciously, compare books and methods with the needs of boys and girls. Psychology (though in many respects it has been unable hitherto) should present a systematic account of the character and development of the pupil's mind; and thus enable the educational critic to compare methods and books with the requirements of the developing boy directly.

Let us look at a defect in our present educational results, much complained of and apparently despaired of by the critics of the age that is here and the praisers of the age that is past.

Bad spelling, so far as it is the result of little or no training, is for the present left out of account. Let us confine our attention to the bad spelling that appears in the work of boys and girls who have taken the ordinary course in the public schools. Let us diagnose this disease or defect so that we may localize it, point out its causes, and suggest proper treatment. Let us attempt, for the nonce, to play the part of an educational physician or perhaps pathologist.

The pathological specimens at hand are unfortunately few. You will find them arrayed in all their picturesque horror in the *Educational Review*, June 1895. They were collected by an examiner, "S," from the papers of candidates for univers-

ity matriculation. There were thirty-seven possible chances of disease. In thirty-three cases the chances were seized. The number of incorrect forms per word varied from one to eight.

The incorrect forms may be divided roughly into four groups :

(a) *Peroid*, *brakefast*, *conceed*, *excede*, *procede*, *predujice*, *braed*, *phropecy*, *releive*, and *Thomspon*. (The last four being taken from another list.)

(b) *Purpos*, *requisit*, *excelency*, *climed*, *imortality*, *emmerged*, *eclesiastical*, and *emphasiz*.

(c) *Spetacle*, *proposperous*, *exchaquer*, *ambiguiety*, *predudice*, and *practible*.

(d) *Harast*, *exalency*, *cisim*, *pregidest*, and *salarity* (celerity).

In the *peroid* group all the necessary letters for each words are given, but the order or sequence of the letters is incorrect. The general form of the words appears natural, though the details are slightly irregular. In the *purpos* group a letter has been omitted or inserted or substituted, but the sound of the word has been unchanged. In the *spetacle* group letters have been omitted, inserted or substituted without greatly altering the general appearance of the word, though the sounds have been materially changed. The *purpos* group offends the eye slightly but not the ear. The *spetacle* group offends the ear materially and the eye but slightly. The *harast* group seriously offends the eye but suits the ear.

These are the pathological specimens which we are to examine from the standpoint of the educational physician. Where is the disease?

Sir Joshua G. Fitch says: "The person who spells well is simply he who carries in his memory a good visual impression of the picture of the word as it appears in a written or printed book." (Lectures on Teaching, p. 213) A clear and distinct image of the word as a whole and of its parts is the condition of good spelling. This image is a mental photograph of the word. When the pupil is called upon to reproduce the word he either calls out or writes down each letter as he reads it from his mental image.

There are mental images and mental images. One group comes in through the eye-gate, another through the ear-gate, another through the nose-gate, and so on through the different senses. What kind or kinds of images are involved in spelling?

Sir Joshua Fitch says: "Spelling is a matter for the eye, not for the ear. If it were not that we had to write, spelling would be an altogether useless accomplishment; and it is only when we write that any deficiency comes to light." (*Ibid*, p. 212.) The consequence of this view is to neglect the ear entirely. The image of the word which the speller appeals to is a visual image. The auditory image is useless. Is this the whole truth?

The general forms of the words of two of the groups given above (*peroid* and *spetacle*) are dictated by the eye. Those of the words of the *harast* group by the ear. While those of the *purpos* group seem to be the joint work of the ear and eye.

How have the mistakes occurred? The *peroid* class seem to be due to want of attention to detail. The word has been first learned as a whole and then compared with a number of similar words sufficiently to be readily distinguished. This comparison has not emphasized the order of the letters but their difference from other groups, *e.g.*, *bread*, *braid*, *broad*.

This same method, which plays a prominent part in the "look-and-say" method of teaching reading, is especially bad for the correct spelling of such words as exceed, recede, etc.,

where the parts of words differ only in the order of the letters. For before a clear image of the word is given another word is presented and its similar appearance is confused with the first. Consequently a blurred image results. Remember a visual image is like a photograph. If a number of similar objects be presented in quick succession before an exposed photographic plate, the result is an outline image with confused details. Now for good spelling, a distinct, clear and complete image is required, not an outline with confused details.

In the *purpos* group the visual image is defective. In the *spetacle* group the visual image is also defective, but there seems to be no auditory image. In the *harast* group, however, there seems to be no visual image.

To secure good results is it better to rely entirely on the eye?

It is a well established fact that people differ very greatly in their power of imaging. Some are good visualizers but poor audiles others are good audiles but poor visualizers. From crude enquiries made in large classes of students, I have come to the conclusion that about six or seven out of every twelve acquire more easily and retain more perfectly and longer visual images, and that one out of twelve acquires auditory images more easily. (For full information see Galton's "Human Faculty," pp. 83-114, or James' "Larger Psychology," Vol. II, pp. 50-68, or James' "Briefer Psychology," pp. 302-310.)

Now the teacher wishes to leave that image of the word which is most easily got, most complete and longest retained. If then some have the greatest difficulty in acquiring and retaining visual images, but much less (if any) difficulty with auditory images, is it not better to teach spelling to such through the ear?

My suggestion, however, is that the ear and eye assist each other, the eye in the majority of cases being principally relied on. Let us see how.

In the *harast* group probably the eye has never been trained. Certainly there was no visual image of *cisim.* Here it is not enough to write the letters which represent the sounds, until "fonetics" (spell it not phonotics) be the rule. The ear alone cannot be trusted. In the *spetacle* group the ear might readily check the eye. In olden times it was trained by syllabic spelling. Thus b-u-t, but b-u t-t-e r, butter, when spelt aloud and pronounced fixed the form of the word by sound as well as by sight. How could the ear assist the eye in the *period* and *purpos* groups? There are two ways in which the ear may check the eye. (1) By requiring a visual equivalent for each sound, *e.g.*, the *c* in *spetacle.* (2) By the retaining the image of the succession of sounds. Thus the ear could remember the order of the succession of the sounds of the letters p-e-r-i-o-d or b-r-e-a-k-f-a-s-t, in the same way that it remembers the order of the consecutive notes in a melody. In fact the order of a series of letters stands out more distinctly for the ear than for the eye, for the simple reason that the eye passes backwards and forwards in any order and the ear hears them, when spelt correctly, in one order—from left to right.

I never had much difficulty in spelling "similar," "familiar," until one of the teachers, in an attempt to help us, called our attention to resemblances and differences between the final syllable of "similar," and the last part of "familiar." I was never sure after that which had an *i* until I sounded it as *y*. The difficulty here arises from a comparison which confuses the visual images, and it vanishes only when I check the eye by the ear.

Where one in writing is trusting to the eye, very often the first impression of the word is right. If you write a known word without being distrustful of its spelling it is more likely to be right, if you are a good visualizer, than if you think over it several times before writing; for no amount of reasoning can clarify and complete a visual image.

The frequency of the mistakes of the *peroid* class is largely due to the preponderance of the appeals to eye made by methods now in vogue. Transcription appeals to the eye entirely; dictation almost entirely. The gradual decline of oral spelling, either in classes or in spelling-matches, has left the ear with few images and many of these very imperfect.

The remedy recommended is more oral work in spelling—some syllabic. This latter may take the form of word building, consequently more careful analysis of each word into letters, rather than sounds, and careful attention to the order of the letters. These suggestions are principally for those who have considerable difficulty in acquiring visual images. For those, who have little or no difficulty, there should be careful examination by sight of each word in detail and little or no comparing with similar words until the image is well formed. Remember the photograph. For the same reason, spelling should never be taught, either visually or orally, by incorrect forms. You want only correct impressions given and sufficient repetition to deepen the impression. *But above all study the peculiarities of each pupil. Diagnosis must precede successful treatment.*

WALTER C. MURRAY.

To the Editor of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

DEAR SIR,—There is a certain circle here in Montreal, whom we teachers are beginning to be not very willing to trust, and when the rumor reached me lately that there was to be a convention of teachers held in this city next summer, and that an editor from Boston had been over in Montreal and in a day's time had arranged everything even to the details of his programme, I could hardly believe my informant. "This is the one-man power with a vengeance," said a fellow-teacher to me as we talked over the matter with each other. With whom did the editor-man make his arrangements? Is this another Exhibition-piece of humbug? And who is to pay the piper? as the Scotchman would say. Do you know anything about the affair,—you, Mr. Editor, who happened to be present at the first Dominion Association meeting, and know something about the "king-making" of that time? Can anybody tell us anything about the editor's visit? If so, we teachers, who are expected to welcome our visiting brethren and the Montreal citizens who are to entertain them, would really like to know who is at the bottom of the movement.

Sincerely yours,

A MONTREAL TEACHER.

UNFAIR AMERICAN JOURNALISM.

To the Editor of the Educational Review.

SIR,—American educational papers circulate to a considerable extent among our teachers, and strenuous efforts are constantly made to increase the number—indeed many of our teachers act as agents for such.

Now, Mr. Editor, I conceive that this class of journals coning into the hands of our educators and by them disseminated among their pupils, should be truthful and fair.

I frequently notice protests in American papers from Canadian teachers concerning unfair and untruthful statements concerning Canada

and Great Britain. We can stand spread-eagleism and considerable, if not all, the mawkish sentiment they publish concerning some very common clay, but we cannot tolerate and should not contribute toward the support of falsehood and ignorance regarding everything British.

To give a few examples from only one paper (I could quote from many):

In a paper called *Our Times*, devoted to the teaching of current events and often seen on teachers' tables, is stated "A Crisis at Hand in Canada. Canada has to face a deficit of from $8,000,000 to $10,000,000, and the Manitoba school question. There is talk of armed resistance and annexation to the United States and many citizens are crossing the border into the United States owing to the agitation."

Not a word has ever been said of the national dishonor incurred by the United States in refusing to pay the Paris award or the one hundred and one sectarian school struggles that have and are taking place in every State in the Union.

Minister Eustis' display of ignorance and arrogance at a recent state dinner in London is commended. British claims in Venezuela and Nicaragua are described as rank injustice.

Describing the war in the Hindu Kush—"England is engaged in one of those petty wars for more territory." "The spot she now covets is the little district of Chitral," etc.

I think it is time our teachers appreciated these statements and their bearing on the minds of their pupils before whose notice they are very liable to come even if not brought to it by their instructors. Such papers should not circulate in Canada.

Yours, W.

Journal of Education, St. John, N.B.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

By order of the Hon. the Minister of Education, four copies of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY are sent to each Model School in Ontario for the months of October November, and December of the present year.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, we beg to inform our readers, will enter upon a new term of service in educational work on the first of January next. The beginning of the coming year will see it enter upon its new volume; and it is to be hoped that after the following announcements have been carefully considered by our subscribers and fellow-teachers, that their assistance will be secured in its behalf in more ways than one.

The MONTHLY is by this time one of the oldest educational periodicals in Canada, and it is the intention of all connected with its management to make it of increasing interest to the teachers of Canada and others interested in the educational progress of the country as a whole. Its *corps* of contributors already includes the most prominent of our educational workers, and what with an improved classification of topics, additional help in the editorial work, and a cordial co-operation on the part of subscribers, publishers and advertisers, it may not be too much, perhaps, to expect it to become, in the near future, one of the best and most readable of our educational journals.

It is the intention of the editors to add to the reading matter two new

sections at least, perhaps three. One of these will contain a *resumé* of the current events relating to educational movements in Canada and elsewhere. Arrangements have been made to have a record of such events sent by special correspondents from all parts of the Dominion in time for publication at the beginning of each month; and it is needless to say that paragraph contributions will be gratefully received from all teachers, when events of more than local interest take place in their district.

The second section will comprise hints from and to teachers with correspondence. In the past, our teachers have been perhaps a little too timid in making suggestions through the press, particularly suggestions founded on their own experience. Fault-finding is a very different thing from honest criticism, and to the latter no teacher should fail to subject every proposed educational change, before finding fault with it or advocating it. Making use of the MONTHLY as a medium, it is to be hoped therefore that our teachers will join with us in an open and above-board campaign against all defects, and in favor of all improvements in our school work as well as in our school systems, so that eventually through the co-ordination of educational views from all the provinces, our various school systems will tend towards the unification of our Canadian national life, and not towards its disintegration. In future any question of an educational tendency may be discussed in our correspondence section, and when a *nom de plume* is made use of, the personality of the writer will under no circumstances be revealed.

The third section, when fully organized, will refer to all matters connected with a proposed BUREAU for the purpose of finding situations for teachers or promotion in the service. Every subscriber will have the privilege of inscribing his or her name on the lists about to be opened for those who wish to have their names thus enrolled. As an experiment we hope many of our teachers will find this section of great service to them.

To the subscribers who have stood by us so loyally in the past, we present our most grateful thanks, while to our new subscribers we make promise that their tastes and wishes will always be carefully considered in the management of the paper. Indeed, we feel it is only through the co-operation of our readers that our enterprise can be fostered to its fullest fruition.

During the remaining month of the year, the publishers of the MONTHLY will call upon advertisers under the improved circumstances of the periodical. To our faithful contributors we trust we will be able, as soon as the revenues of our enterprise improve, to return thanks in a more tangible way than heretofore.

The CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, our subscribers must understand, is a journal for the whole Dominion, and not for any section or province.

Communications in connection with the editorial management of the paper are, in future, to be sent from Ontario and all the provinces west of Ontario, to Arch. MacMurchy, M.A., Box 2675, Toronto; and from the province of Quebec and the provinces east of Quebec, to Messrs. William Drysdale & Co., St. James St., Montreal, who will also attend to all matters pertaining to the publishing and advertising departments for the Eastern Provinces, and Wm. Tyrrell & Co. will attend to the like business for Ontario. Publishers: Wm. Drysdale & Co., Montreal; Wm. Tyrrell & Co., Toronto; A. Hart & Co., Winnipeg.

THE EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL.

The members of the new Educational Council are: Mr. Justice McLennan; Rev. Prof. Clark, Trinity

University; Profs. Baker and Alexander, University of Toronto; Chancellor Burwash, Victoria University; Prof. McKay, McMaster University; Dr. A. P. Knight, Queen's; Alex. Steele, B.A., Principal High School, Orangeville; Inspector Dearness. President Loudon, ex-officio.

The function of this council is, to conduct all the various examinations which play so important a part in our educational system, such as the high school leaving examination, examinations for teachers' certificates of different grades, and matriculation into the universities and professions. An idea of the magnitude of the work may be got from the fact that at the examinations of last summer about 12,000 candidates presented themselves. Up till about five years ago the entrance to the universities was under the control of the universities themselves, while the remainder of the examinations named were administered wholly by the Education Department. In 1891 a joint board of eight members was appointed to do the whole work—name examiners to set the papers, and sub-examiners to read the answers, the results being revised finally by the joint board. The joint board contained four representatives of the Education Department and four representatives of the Senate of the Provincial University. This arrangement had the advantage of uniting under joint control of higher education the two main divisions of the provincial educational machinery; the new council assumes the functions of the joint board, which hence ceases to exist. The difference in principle between the new council and the old board, as will readily be seen from the above explanation, is that the control of all the higher educational examinations, including the matriculation, is vested in a body whose members are wholly appointed by the Department of Education; while on the other hand, is taken from the Provincial University, along with the voice which it had in its own matriculation, the power which it enjoyed along with the department of fixing the standard for higher education in general. Naturally and properly the Senate of the University of Toronto objected to this fundamental change. The result of the Senate's deliberations on this important change has not yet been made public, but it is understood that it has been decided to accept, provisionally, the new council in lieu of the joint board, in the hope, or possibly with the understanding, that the Minister will so modify his scheme as to restore the essential features of the former arrangement. It is to be earnestly hoped that the Senate of the University will not lose sight of the very fundamental element of the educational interests of the Province, which are intrusted to its safe keeping, and it will not, abjectly, bow the knee to the fierce modern Molech of examination results.

VENEZUELAN ARBITRATION.

It is satisfactory to know from Lord Salisbury's Guildhall speech that the Venezuelan controversy is practically at an end. There will be arbitration by an Anglo-American Commission, but Great Britain will be entitled to hold all territory settled by her subjects for the same time which is necessary to give a valid title to individual property. As the British Prime Minister said: "The same lapse of time which protects individuals in civic life from having their title questioned should also protect the English colony from having its title questioned; and where that lapse of time could not be claimed, though there should be an examination of the title, yet all that equity demanded in consideration of such title should be granted."

It is worthy of note that Venezuela is not to be the sole representative of her case on the arbitration tribunal. This means that Great Britain will have the advantage of dealing directly with a responsible and friendly Government; and it also means that the United States is to be allowed to interfere in South America disputes and to assume paramount control of the negotiations. Needless to remark, this right of interference involves responsibility. And if Uncle Samuel, in addition to managing his own affairs—a task of no mean proportions—espouses the quarrels of Southern republics, he must make these republics fulfil their engagements and behave themselves with proper decorum.

But the important point is that out of a threatening dispute have grown mutual good feeling and the germs of a permanent arbitration court. This is the best thing for the peace of the world that has happened in many a day.—*Evangelical Churchman.*

The great Industrial Exhibition held in London in 1851—the precursor of so many brilliant displays of these effects of industrial progress—brought home to the people of Great Britain the necessity of establishing Schools of Art and Design all over the country, in order to check the decline that was too plainly visible when the awards came to be made.

From Prince Edward Island there comes the echo of reform also, for there the teachers are clamoring for representation on the Board of Education. It is expected that the necessary legislation will be secured during the winter session of the Legislature. Perhaps the hint thrown out by the Governor at one of the meetings that something should be done to provide for aged and infirm teachers may give the association the vexed question of a pension fund to deal with in future conventions, as is the case in Nova Scotia and Quebec.

The Hon. G. W. Ross, Minister of Education for Ontario, no doubt incited by the necessities of the case, has under consideration at the present moment a proposal which will no doubt have an elevating effect among the future artizans of the Province. Mr. Ross, we are told, is convinced that if it is right for the Province to provide means for the education of professional men upon the payment of a moderate fee, the mechanic should receive training upon the same terms. The plan provides for the use of the money now devoted to mechanics' institutes, with the addition of the necessary grants, to establish trade schools in the manufacturing centres, in order that the youth of the Province may study the rudimentary principles of the various trades they intend to follow. Should Dr. Ross be able to mature his plans for the coming meeting of the Legislature, we have no doubt that the sanction of the House will readily be secured in behalf of this rounding off of our system of education which is so necessary.

The teachers of Nova Scotia held their annual convention in October last, and there also this question of providing trained teachers for all the schools of the province came up for consideration. Dr. MacKay, the Superintendent of Education of Nova Scotia, in his opening address, showed the necessity of normal school training for all teachers. The course should be greatly extended, covering in no case less than one year. The Truro Normal school he claimed as the best in the Dominion, with a fuller all-round course than any other. Well-trained teachers could command better salaries, and yet give much greater value for their services than

the cheap untrained teacher. The proportion of at least partially trained teachers is yearly increasing. The importance of having only the best teachers is evident from the fact that the school gives by far the best opportunities for training for good citizenship—for the school is a miniature commonwealth.

The *Gleaner* is just as far astray when it refers to the Normal Schools (McGill Normal School in particular) in these words :—

"The vexed question of providing duly qualified teachers occupied some attention. The underlying assumption of the chief speakers, that a certain remedy is to insist on a normal school certificate, is one not sustained by experience. Inquiry among school boards would show that teachers with normal school diplomas are not more uniformly successful than those who have qualified otherwise. What the normal school might do were it an efficient institution is not under discussion, it is what it does do and has done. The existing agitation looks like an effort to supply pupils to an inferior institution by force. The adoption of a regulation requiring all scholars to hold normal school diplomas would have a twofold effect—

1. It would decrease the number of school teachers whose homes are in the country;

2. It would eventually close the schools in country places where superior education is imparted.

Girls, whose parents manage to qualify them as teachers by sending them to the rural academies, could not defray the cost of their attending the normal school, and, deprived of the support afforded by the attendance of those girls, the rural academies could not exist."

A wholesome note has been sounded in New Brunswick, which we feel assured will be a welcome sound all over the land, among teachers and all interested in their welfare. The question has often been asked : Are our teachers true to themselves? The answer is to be found in what our contemporary, *The Educational News*, said when commenting upon the teachers' institute held lately in Charlotte County, New Brunswick: "All patriotic teachers," says that periodical, "will hail with satisfaction the effort that has been made by the teachers of Charlotte, N.B., to stem the tide of professional misconduct that has been growing for some time past. There is probably no other profession that would have submitted as long as the teachers' without complaining. Nearly every other profession and trade has a code of etiquette for the guidance and protection of its members, and not a few of them have established penalties within themselves for its violation. The only penalty sought to be imposed by the teachers as yet is publication of the names of those guilty of non-professional conduct ; and such teachers must bear in mind that they have to deal not with the institute alone, but that the eye of self-respecting school boards and school officers will be upon them, and that when these influences are subtracted little will remain to profit any teacher by such line of action."

When an American Association invades Canada for the purpose of holding one of its conventions, it is customary to receive our visiting cousins with that hospitality for which Canadians have become proverbial; but when the coming of such an association indicates in a half-hidden way antagonism or rivalry, or brings with it any untoward policy of exclusiveness, Canadians are surely not to be blamed if they turn a cold shoulder upon the proposed visit. From a Montreal correspondent we learn that a Boston Teachers' Association in-

tends holding a convention in Canada next year, and that the editor of one of the many educational journals of that city has lately been over making arrangements, having all but completed his programme. As our correspondent puts it, "this is surely the one-man power with a vengeance," against which a certain prominent teacher was lately heard inveighing at the late convention in Montreal. When the Dominion Association of Teachers held its first meeting in Montreal the feeling prevailed that one of the under officers of that body made himself perhaps a little too prominent as a kind of "king-maker," as it has been put; and if our correspondent has not been misinformed, it is just possible that history is about to repeat itself in a second exhibition of indirect personal preferment. We trust, however, that there is nothing in it. If there be, we can only refer our correspondent to the teachers of Charlotte county, New Brunswick, for a corrective.

Last month we gave a synopsis of the Montreal Convention of Teachers, in which it was shown how the three prominent reforms that are being demanded in the Province of Quebec were further emphasized by the teachers in their discussions. It is now all but certain that two of these reforms are on the point of being carried out, and before this number falls into the hands of our readers, the Premier will in all probability have presented to the Legislative Assembly his measure providing for an increased subsidy in behalf of elementary schools, while the Council of Public Instruction will have taken into its consideration a measure for the better utilizing of the Normal Schools to meet the demand for trained teachers. It is needless to discuss these measures at this late moment until the proper authorities have reported progress on them. We are sorry, however, to find the *Canadian Gleaner* writing concerning Mr. Parmelee's motion, passed by the Convention, in this strain:—

"About as foolish a resolution as could have been devised was submitted in these words:

"'That in the opinion of this convention, there should be a large increase in the common school grant, and that any such increase in regard to schools should be distributed not in proportion to population, but in such a way as to recognize the needs of the several schools and to encourage the school boards to support their schools more generously from taxation.'

"Supposing this resolution were given effect, the result would be that less government money would go to districts that do well and more to those where the ratepayers do little. Such a resolution will commend itself only to the hierarchy, into whose hands would be thrown an increased amount of public money to be distributed by them, and no small part of which would go to sustain their dessentient schools. We believe it would be better for all concerned, and certainly would be much more equitable to the Protestant minority, were the government grant abolished, and the whole amount required for the schools raised by the ratepayers. The grant is now so small as to be no object in school districts where those interested do anything like their duty."

Religion is the spirit in which all secular life is to be carried on. The reason why a State has a right and a duty to maintain a public school system is that it is the right and duty of the State to prepare its citizens for citizenship; and they cannot be prepared for citizenship without moral training, inspired by the spirit of reverence and love—that is, by a religious spirit.—*Dr. Lyman Abbott in The Century.*

SCHOOL WORK.

QUESTIONS ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

FOR PRIMARY CANDIDATES.

I.

Then Enid pondered in her heart, and said:

"I will go back a *little* to my lord,
And I will tell him all their caitiff talk;
For be he wroth *even* to *slaying* me,
Far *liefer* by his dear hand *had* I *die*,
Than that my lord should suffer loss or shame."

(1.) Parse the italicized words.

(2.) Write out in full each of the subordinate clauses, and tell its function and relation clearly.

(3.) Select the words of classical origin, give their derivation and connect it with their present meaning.

(4.) Justify the use of the subjunctive mood in line 4, and state, with illustrative sentences, two other uses of the present subjunctive.

II.

As one—
That listens near a torrent mountain-brook,
All through the crash of the near cataract hears
The drumming thunder of the huger fall
At distance, were the soldiers wont to hear
His voice in battle, and be kindled by it,
And foemen *scared*, *like* that false pair who turned
Flying, but, *overtaken*, died the death
Themselves had wrought on many an *innocent*.

1. Parse the italicized words.
2. Write out in full each of the clauses in the last three lines, and tell its function and relation clearly.
3. Explain, with examples, the term *cognate object*, and mention, with examples, two other ways in which intransitive verbs may be used as transitive.
4. Distinguish in grammatical function and use *wont* and *wonted*.
5. Account for the form *wrought* as an inflection of *work*.
6. Mention and exemplify four changes that may take place in forming compounds.

III.

1. Exemplify six different relations the objective case may have in a sentence.
2. Exemplify five different functions an infinitive phrase may perform in the analysis of a simple sentence.
3. Name and distinguish, with illustrative sentences, the different kinds of co-ordination.
4. Write three sentences using the clause "who promised to pay for it," restrictively, descriptively, and co-ordinately.
5. Explain the terms "accidence," "neuter verb," "sense construction."
6. Write sentences using the following verbs, first as verbs of complete predication, and secondly as verbs of incomplete predication: *grow*, *turn*, *prove*, *appear*, *feel*.
7. Exemplify adverbs modifying phrases, and adverbs modifying clauses.
8. State the grammatical function and relation of the italicized words and phrases: I have it *written* in pencil, but I'll have it *written* in ink if you wish. I found the door *open*. I heard the door *open* and some one come out. He looks *well* after his own interests. He does not look so *well* this morning. *Both* my brother and I were at the meeting. My brother and I were *both* at the meeting.

I have no intention *to do that*.
It is my intention *to do that*
I am quite willing *to do that*.

For Entrance.

I.

Analyze the following simple sentences:

1. In these schools are *to be found* pupils from *almost* every country in Europe.
2. Another peculiar *feature* of their system it may be *well* for me to call your attention to.
3. *Facing* this fountain *stands* the church, *flanked* on the one side by the pastor's residence, and *on* the other by *that* of the chief magistrate.
4. The most noticeable thing, however, about the cemetery is the determination *to exclude* all distinctions of rank.
5. *Walking* through the village we observed several large and commodious residences, not a *few* of them displaying much architectural taste.

II.

Write out in full each of the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and tell clearly its grammatical function and relation:

1. I do not think *any* of us will ever forget the day we spent in *exploring* the ruins.
2. It is a *matter* of regret that he has died without *leaving* in a permanent form, as he was often urged to do, his rich *accumulation* of anecdotes *regarding* the people he had known.
3. Such an incident would be considered improbable if related in a novel, but *there* are frequently in real life occurrences *which, like* this *one*, are stranger than fiction.

III.

Parse the italicized words in the foregoing sentences.

For Public School Leaving.

I.

Write out in full each of the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and tell clearly its grammatical function and relation:

1. I have no doubt that it would be so were it not that in China, as *elsewhere*, there are *many* that would not believe *even* if some should rise from the dead.
2. I feel sure that had he been able to put *down even* the half of *what* he remembered the book would have been a notable *one*, for his memory was accurate and his *reminiscences* most interesting and graphic.
3. As when we dwell upon a word we know,
   Repeating, till the word we know so well
   Becomes a *wonder*, and we know not *why*,
   So dwelt the father on her face.
4. But *even* were the griefs of little *ones*
   As great as those of great ones, yet this grief
   Is added to the grief the great must bear,
   That *howsoever much* they may desire
   Silence, they cannot weep behind a cloud.

II.

Parse the italicized words in the foregoing sentences.

III.

Exemplify:

1. An adverb modifying a phrase, modifying a clause.
2. A preposition governing a phrase, governing a clause.
3. The use of *but* as a *negative relative.*

IV.

Distinguish—

1. "If he was present," "If he were present."
2. "If he would do that," "If he should do that."

CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT.

QUESTIONS BASED ON CÆSAR, BOOK II, CHAPTERS 11-19.

I.

Translate Chap. 14 into good idiomatic English.

1. Parse *impulsos*, *principes*, *consuerint.*

2. *pro his.* Exemplify any other meanings of *pro.*

3. Give the pres. inf. pass. of *facit*, *redactos*, *defecisse*, *intulisse.*

4. *Amplificaturum.* What compounds of *facio* are of the first conjugation?

5. *sustentare.* What kind of a verb? How formed?

6. Rewrite the last sentence in *oratio recta.*

II.

Translate Chap. 17, from the beginning to *non auderent.*

1. *qui locum deligant.* Give a Latin equivalent phrase.

2. *qua pulsa impedimentisque direptis.* Give an equivalent Latin clause.

3. *ut cognitum est.* With what meanings is *ut* followed by the indicative mood?

4. Distinguish *sarcinis* and *impedimentis.*

5. *auderent.* What peculiarity of this verb? Name the class of verbs, and conjugate any others you know belonging to it.

6. Distinguish in meaning and use *consistere* and *constituere.*

III.

Translate idiomatically.

1. Fecerunt ut consimilis fugae profectio videretur.

2. Voce significare coeperunt sese in ejus fidem ac potestatem venire.

3. Reperiebat nullum aditum esse ad eos mercatoribus.

4. Quicquid possunt pedestribus copiis valent.

5. Ratio ordoque agminis aliter se habebat ac Belgae ad Nervios detulerant.

IV.

1. Give the third sing. pres. subj. of *egressi*, *redactos*, *enatos*, *detulerant*, *dimenso.*

2. Mark the quantity of the penult of *munitis*, *captivis*, *antiquitus*, *collocat*, *provolant*, *expeditos*, *incusat.*

3. Give the genitive plural of *impetus*, *colle*, *tempus*, *ramis*, *iter.*

4. Compare *acriter*, *facile*, *infimus*, *crebris*, *idoneus.*

5. Mention any peculiarity of *insidias*, *novus*, *solis*, *filiis*, *posco.*

6. Derive *introrsus*, *agmen*, *contumelia*, *mansuetudo*, *negotium.*

7. What different words may the following come from: *passis*, *reliqui*, *incidit*, *reges*, *teneris*, *jaceret?*

8. Write an explanatory note on *vineae.*

9. Name ten of the commonest Latin *praenomina.*

10. Distinguish in use, with examples, *ante*, *antea*, *antequam.*

V.

Translate into idiomatic Latin, after Cæsar:

(1) The lieutenant whom Cæsar had put in charge of the legion that he left to defend the baggage was waiting to see if the enemy would cross the marsh that lay between our camp and theirs.

(2) On their promising to give up all their arms and send the sons of their chief men as hostages Cæsar accepted the surrender of these two tribes.

(3) Calling together their chiefs he made many inquiries in regard to the customs of the tribes that live beyond this river.

(4) We were informed by the scouts that the town into which they had collected all the women and children was inaccessible to our army on account of the woods and marshes.

(5) The Nervii were so much superior to the rest of the Gauls in valor that Cæsar demanded a larger number of hostages than usual from them.

(6) Learning from them that the river was not more than three feet deep in this place he determined to cross at midnight with his entire force and attack the enemy before they could learn that he was near at hand.

(7) Even to the present day the tribes that inhabit this region make very little use of cavalry but rely mainly on infantry.

(8) Our order of marching that day happened to be quite different from what the Nervii had been told by the captives.

(9) Finding that he could not carry the town by storm he ordered a mound to be thrown up and towers to be erected from which weapons could be hurled within the fortifications.

(10) Not knowing why they had done this, and fearing they had adopted some new plan, our men were unwilling to leave the camp.

(11) Towards sunset the scouts that had been sent forward to find out in what direction the enemy had gone and where they had encamped, returned to the army and told Cæsar all that they had learned.

(12) To feel very much annoyed at this, to show his usual mercy to them, to bring up the rear, to attack the rear of the enemy, to try the fortune of war a second time, to recover from their panic, to take this tribe under his protection.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

By order of the Hon. the Minister of Education, four copies of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY are to be sent to each Model School in Ontario for the months of October, November and December of the present year.

Master Skylark, the Elizabethan story, is begun in the November number of the *St. Nicholas*, as is also a charming girl's story entitled "June's Garden," by Marion Hill. "The Labors of Hercules," in verse, is a new and pleasing recital of the great deeds of yore viewed in nineteenth century pictures. Laura E. Richards contributes "A Love Song —To John," which would please anyone, old or young.

With other interesting matter in the November issue of the *Bookman* will be found a paper on Edmund Gosse, by Arthur Waugh, the well-known London editor, who has peculiar advantages in writing on such a subject. There is also a charming piece of verse, Writ in a Book of Celtic Verse by Lizette Woodworth Reese, and a remarkable article on "American Provincialisms," by Caroline M. Beauman.

A welcome announcement from the *Ladies' Home Journal* is that Charles Dana Gibson is to contribute a series of drawings illustrating well-known characters from Dickens. It will be a matter of some curiosity to see how this artist will interpret Dickens.

In the last issue of *Littell's Living Age* will be found "Some Recollections of Edward Augustus Freeman," reprinted from Temple Bar.

The Christmas Number of the *Toronto Saturday Night* has just been issued and is fully up to its predecessors. The supplement is a large, finely colored picture of the Battle of Queenston Heights, which will doubtless be a welcome addition to the decoration of many schoolrooms. Among the various stories and verses which are to be found in

these pages, we notice, with pleasure, a bright and well-written story by Miss Katharine Johnston.

The following publications have been received:

From "London," Fleet Street—The London Manual.

Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago—Elementary Geography.

From Silver, Burdette and Company, New York—A Handbook of Vocal Music, Tufts.

From Harper and Brothers, New York—The Elementary Study of English, W. J. Rolfe; Shakespeare the Boy, W. J. Rolfe.

From D. Appleton and Company, New York—Principles and Practice of Teaching, Johonnot; The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Child, Compayre.

From Macmillan and Company, London, through their Toronto agents, The Copp, Clark Co—Leaves from the Note Books of F. M. Buss, Toplis; Elementary Solid Geometry and Mensuration, Thompson; Cameos from English History, by the author of the Heir of Radcliffe.

From Ginn and Company, Boston—New Cicero, with Vocabulary, Allen and Greenough; Quintus Curtius, Humphreys; La Princesse De Cleves, Sledde and Gorrell; Greek Inflection, Harding; Practical Arithmetic, Wentworth; The New Arithmetic, Speer; Shorter Latin Grammar, Allen and Greenough.

From D. C Heath and Company, Boston — Prakische Anfangsgrunde, Hermine Stuven; The Problem of Elementary Composition, Spalding; French Lessons and Exercises, Grandgent; Bebedix's Plautus and Terenz, Sontagsjager, Wells; Baumbach's Der Schwiegersohn, Bernhardt; Theuriet's Bigarreau, Fontaine; Selections for Sight Translation, Bruce; Erckmann-Chatrian's Le Conscript, Super.

"A First Fleet Family," compiled from the papers of Sergeant William Dew, of the Marines, by Louis Becke and Walter Jeffery. London: Macmillan & Co.; Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co. This interesting narrative, in the main true, gives an account of the early convict settlement of New South Wales, and is not only as interesting as any work of fiction, but contains much valuable historical information.

From the American Book Company, New York—Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Crockett; Homer's Iliad, Books 1, 6, 22, 24, Alexander Pope; The Princess, Tennyson; The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin; Robinson Crusoe, DeFoe; The Story of Greece, Guerber; Fifty Famous Stories Retold, Baldwin; Legends of the Middle Ages, Guerber; Second Year in French, Syms; Plants and Their Children, Mrs. W. S. Dana; Brief History of the Nations, Fisher.

"Dictionary of National Biography," edited by Sidney Lee. New York: Macmillan & Co.; Toroto: The Copp Clark Co. In its 47th volume the "Dictionary of National Biography" introduces us to James Puckle, and leaves us with Lord Reidfurd, but any other letters in the alphabet might teach the same thing that any of us must, after all, know very little, and that alas! some of us know much less than others. Here, however, one can find most things; it is from works possessing a grandeur of scope such as this that man can put his hidden laborious toil beside that of the scriptural ant and be unashamed.

Send in your name at once to the Readers' Co-Operative League, Box 223, Brooklyn, N.Y., if you wish to receive Sample Copies of all the leading periodicals in the United States. Also send the names of your friends *who are readers*. Enclose stamp for reply.