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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1893.

FLOWER OF THE SAXON RACE.

BY C. OCHILTREE-MACDONALD.

IN the colonies of Great Britain, and especially in British North America, flourish the flower of the British or Anglo-Saxon race, unenervated and free, vigorous, martial, puissant and brave. In Great Britain it is not necessary that the individual citizen should be a flower of the race or a man among men, because our vast numbers adjust, where necessary, the difference between aptitude and incompetency, and sustain us in spite of our careless, indifferent and slothful selves. In Canada, however, all depends upon the isolated individuality of the citizen, energy, self-sacrifice, handiness, liberal views, exalted ideals and indomitable courage for any progress whatever. All these excellences are prominent in the national character and in regarding such we excessively civilized, arrogant Englishmen, who from a cricket bat are descending to the level of a billiard cue, may appreciate the grandeur of the spirit of our fathers, and learn that by such alone can Old England continue to be worthy of the affectionate friendship of her majestic

daughter Canada. I have, however, and with sincere regret, observed that the lofty-minded Canadian is aping the manners, garb and drawl of the English *Neu Rich* under the infamous delusion that such is English. It is not out of place to state that this smart societyism—of which tandems, four-in-hands, late dinners, drawl, and drink; Havanas and spittoons; club gossip and scandal, are the emblems—is abhorred, eschewed, and utterly ignored by the pure, untarnished commoner of England. Of these there are many; quiet, unassuming and industrious; solicitous of their duty to “the King, the constitution and the people,” and shedding a rich lustre over the masses, whose arrogance has magnified them, in their own eyes, into classes. Remove these noble commoners and their lustre-shedding qualities, and the repulsive shallowness of so-called English society, which some Canadians are aping, is displayed with shocking vividness. Canada is peopled with England’s finest commoners. This is the explanation of the quiet progress

of the people and the unassuming, the puissant pretensions of the Dominion among the nations of the earth. This it is which is drawing Old England towards her Canada, and upon this the philosopher is basing his calculations of the span of the sovereign existence of the race. In a particular manner should this be brought home to the impressionable mind of the Canadian nation, i.e., through the

teachings of the Public School. Train the nation, the children of the people, O Teacher, to a true appreciation of that which they are—the flower of the race; point to the nations of the earth which are assembling like a great cloud of witnesses to watch what the young Dominion will do, and declare to them with authority that Canada expects every man to do his duty.

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY.

BY PROFESSOR H. G. SEELEY, F.R.S.

A DEMAND for Commercial Geography has originated of late years with Chambers of Commerce, which have pressed the subject on the attention of schoolmasters. The Chambers of Commerce represent the requirements of employers of such material as schoolmasters may be able to send them; and in concert these two bodies framed regulations by which commercial geography entered into the school curriculum and became an examination subject for various appointments. The tender age at which the junior teaching was to be received by the pupil, precluded the possibility of commercial geography being regarded as a higher branch of geographical attainment, and, therefore, it was not possible that it should be based upon its natural foundations of Physical Geography so as to insure training in the methods of thinking concerning the influence of physical phenomena upon the earth's products and peoples, and the means which the earth's surface affords for conveying raw material or manufactured goods from one region to another. The subject abounds in technicalities. It is necessary that these

difficulties to the pupil should be dissipated by excess of knowledge in the teacher, which will remove their technical character in a copious familiarity with facts. But any such conception or effort is obviously beyond the work which may be fairly expected from school children, and yet nothing short of it can be effective mental training, because it is rather the memory than the understanding which is then cultivated.

Commercial geography comprises three principal departments of knowledge:—First, practical knowledge of the natures and sources of all the different kinds of raw material which the earth produces, in so far as the substances, mineral, vegetable or animal, have a commercial value. Secondly, detailed knowledge of the manufactured products which, with varying degrees of skill, are obtained from the raw materials, in the several regions in which they are manufactured. And, thirdly, there is knowledge of the distributive industries by which these manufactured goods reach diverse peoples. But the balance between these three prime divisions of commercial geography is affected by

so many circumstances of fluctuating yield, of mines and crops, of international war, and civil war between employers and workmen, that the conditions of every one of the elements in commercial geography undergoes important geographical change in very short periods of time; so that averages, as evidenced by records over an extended period, become indispensable when geographical knowledge is utilized in the practical business of commerce, as evidence of its real growth or decadence.

If the pupil merely learns the fact, for instance, that the Romans obtained much of their gold from Spain, France, and Britain, and he does not learn that the British rocks still yield gold, like the sands of the Rhine, he fails to realize the enormous improvement which has come about in the material condition and wealth of the European peoples, since it is no longer remunerative, under ordinary circumstances, to engage in gold mining in Western Europe. This may be in part due to exhaustion of the richer deposits and lodes, but the decline of the industry also measures the value of labour as an element in commercial geography, which changes with time.

As the density of population increases beyond a certain limit, the value of labour diminishes, as is manifest in part of India and China; but, on the other hand, with increase of population, the raw materials are obtained in greater quantity from the earth, for there is more competition to bring to the best markets. Thus, Cornwall was for a long time an important source of copper, but the supplies of copper from America and Spain have been for some time so large that it is no longer remunerative to work the English veins and deposits of copper, so that the mines, in our time, have come to be regarded as practically worked out, just as was the case

with the sources of the Roman gold. And, in the same way, silver in some of the German mines is worked in an intermittent way, which depends upon the price of silver in the market, though that price has steadily diminished since the discovery of America, when it is stated to have been one-half the value of gold, while, at the present time, it is almost one-sixth.

This fluctuating commercial value for metals and other produce of the earth which is obtained from the rocks, applies equally to the animal and vegetable produce reared by man. And hence the student who engages in the study of commercial geography, realizes that the areas in which the raw materials of commerce are produced, are not identical with those in which they exist; and that their production is entirely dependent upon the facility with which man can bring the yield of any region into the world's markets.

But the commercial demand for some ores of metals is changed with improved processes of manufacture. Thus the iron ores of the Wealden district of Kent and Sussex, which were smelted with charcoal, ceased to be profitably worked when the clay iron-stone which is associated with the coal-bearing rocks in many parts of Britain, came to be smelted with the aid of coal and gas. And in the same way the supremacy of Britain as an iron-producing country has been seriously affected by the modern method of making steel, which was originated by Bessemer; because the clay iron-stone was no longer suitable for the improved process; and it has become necessary to use the iron ores known as hæmatite. This has affected the geographical distribution of iron-works by making it more economical to manufacture steel in South Wales, for example, where the ports are conveniently situated for distributing the ore obtained from Spain to various local-

ities in the South Wales coal field ; just as it has given new importance to places in Cumberland and Furness, which are near to the English sources of hæmatite in the lake district, and the Irish supplies from Antrim. And one result of this change in the steel trade has been to transfer industries, like the making of steel rails for railways in recent times, from the Yorkshire centre to the west coast, by which the double saving has been effected of railway charge for conveyance of the raw material to the place of manufacture, as well as that paid for carrying the manufactured goods to the place of shipment.

Year by year all kinds of raw material show not dissimilar changes in their geographical relations, and variations in manufactures are introduced owing to utilization of what had been waste material, or introduction of new products. These changes are so rapid that it would not be easy without Government aid in publication to ensure that teacher and pupil should be kept aware of the daily progress of this aspect of commerce.

I need only draw attention to the changes which have taken place in recent times in the sources of food supply for this country, to show that more favourable conditions of climate, of tenure of land, of machine cultivation, and value of labour, have enabled many distant parts of the earth to send to Britain their corn and cattle, not to mention the less important foods, at prices which are driving the English agriculturists into town industries ; and seem likely at no distant period to further diminish and vary the producing areas of the home-grown supplies of food. The food industries are exceptional, because the raw produce requires such long-continued labour to bring it to perfection, that such cultivation has almost the aspect of a manufacture. And under comparatively heavy rental and tithes, and

rates thrown on the land, and the augmented cost of agricultural labour, and higher railway rates, home produce cannot compete with foreign importations which are not thus weighted.

The areas from which such and such like articles of trade are obtained, being dependent on climate and especially on summer temperature, and soil, at first sight have the aspect of falling within the scope of physical geography. But while that subject is occupied with laws of nature under which mineral produce and animal and vegetable produce occur in different parts of the earth, commercial geography only concerns itself with them when they become profitable articles of commerce. So that the two subjects have much the dissimilarity of theory and practice, and are altogether unlike in their principles.

The balance between British and foreign manufactures is governed by complex conditions of politics and political economy. The American civil war by affecting the region which had been the main source of supply of raw cotton, was the means of stimulating the growth of cotton in Asia and Africa. The Franco-German war, by interrupting the manufactures of Germany and France, greatly augmented the demands for English goods. Such conditions of change in producing areas can never be permanent, unless the country which is placed temporarily in such a position of advantage, is able to sell better and more artistic goods at a less cost than the competing nations which endeavour to recover the trade. And in commercial geography it is necessary for every industry to extend its output, if it is to continue to exist ; because population increases. The new generation has to be won over to support it, and without this support it must decline. These fluctuations in industries are commonly spoken of as waves of national prosperity ; when they are

simply displacements in the geography of commerce.

I remember a time when the silk trade was much more widely distributed in England, and carried on not only in the great towns of the midland and northern counties, but in little villages in Suffolk. But, under the guidance of Mr. Cobden, a treaty was concluded with France which almost destroyed the English silk trade by allowing French goods to enter the market to compete with our own manufacture. France and Italy as silk-growing countries are obviously in a better position to carry on the manufacture of silk, even if there were no differences between the cost of English and foreign labour. But, while the finer silks are lost as English goods, a new industry has developed in manufacture of the produce of the oak silk-worm of China, which yields the Tussock silk, largely made in Macclesfield. And more recently the manufacture of silk plush has assumed some importance in Yorkshire, in a beautiful industry which is based upon the utilization of the waste cocoon from which the silk has been all reeled off. And it is not without interest that an item of profit in this trade consists in the careful preservation of the bodies of the insects which are within the cocoon, for these are sold as insect manure.

Almost all branches of manufacture show in a few years evidences of changed conditions of prosperity. We associate the paper trade very much with the basin of the Thames, though it is by no means limited to that area. But proximity to sources of supply of rags and waste paper, and facilities for shipping have made the Thames basin important in the paper trade. Now, however, there are important paper works at Glossop and at Barrow-in-Furness, in which no rags are used, and excellent paper is made from Norway pine. Outside

the works the wood is stacked in short lengths, just as it is stacked along the railways in Russia as fuel for the engines. It goes into the works in this form, and it comes out in endless rolls upon which newspapers are printed. Steam wedges split it. Steam drills take out the knots. Steam chisels cut it into chips. The chips pass down a hopper from which every discoloured fragment is removed by hand. Then they disappear in a vessel of sulphuric acid, in which the wood is reduced to pulp. It is yet a long way from becoming paper, and its after-treatment depends greatly upon the kind of paper that is to be made. The samples present a toughness and beauty which seem to indicate that the old ideas of paper-making may undergo change, both as to the raw materials used, and the geographical positions favourable to the industry.

A not infrequent difficulty in the local prosperity of an industry, is the contests that so often occur between workmen and employers concerning hours of work and rates of wages. So long as there is free trade and the wages paid abroad are less than in this country, it is possible for almost any industry to be transferred to the Continent, if the workmen demand higher wages than the trade will bear, and remain on strike sufficiently long for the foreign goods to supplant their own in the market. Many English manufacturers have from this cause been compelled to become manufacturers in Germany. The individual trade is oftener ruined by a strike, in the same sort of way as the national trade may be ruined by a war. At the present time, for instance, there is a strike in the glass-bottle trade, some branches of which are largely centered about Castleford and Knottingley in Yorkshire. There many of the bottles are made which are most familiar to us. Bottle-making mach-

inery has been invented and used at Castleford, but apparently there is no reason for the location of the trade in the district more obvious than the skill which is gained by a regular system of apprenticeship. In Germany the wages paid to the workmen are much less than in this country, and the result is seen in the delivery of a particular kind of bottle of German make, in Hull, at 8s. 6d. a gross, when the same bottle cannot be made in Knottingley for less than 11s. a gross. If the trade once becomes displaced under foreign competition it is almost impossible that the old geographical relations of the industry can be regained; and in this respect the glass-bottle trade is a type of every other manufacture.

There is another trade upon which I should like to say a few words—the fustian trade—as illustrating the relation of capital and labour in a different way. It is somewhat scattered and not highly paid. But at Hebden Bridge in Yorkshire there is a remarkable co-operative society, in which workmen, from very small savings, have accumulated the capital to carry on prosperous works. There you may see the fustian woven, cut, brushed to produce the cord by bringing the threads from the half of one rib into union with the adjacent half of the next rib. Then the fabric is dyed; and a considerable wholesale trade is done in supplying the co-operative societies of Yorkshire and Lancashire with these goods. But much of the manufacture passes to another floor of the building, where it is cut by endless knives into garments; and all round the factory workpeople are engaged in completing the garments for wear. Thus, every every stage of the clothes trade is carried on under the same roof. Every man and woman employed is a capitalist, and receives a good dividend on the capital. There is the cost of

management charged upon capital and labour, there is the payment of wages to the members of the society, and periodic division of profits. It is an arrangement which enables the workman to escape from the struggle with capital, and to feel how much of his success must depend upon his own industry; and, although such experiments are not important enough to be considered in commercial geography in its international aspects, they are of some interest to English people.

These examples, taken almost at random as types of the practical problems which affect the distribution of manufactures, may be further augmented when we consider the distributive side of commerce. There are endless questions which govern foreign trade, besides the duties levied on imports. The cost of freight is not to be neglected. And in the tin-plate trade, for example, so largely carried on in Birmingham and Wolverhampton, it is a matter of importance to make tin bowls as light as possible, and so that they may fit into each other and occupy the smallest possible space, when they are intended for American markets. The patterns made for foreign markets, in domestic metal goods, are such as the people are accustomed to. In all fabrics the colours and designs vary with the great divisions of the earth; and the blanket which delights the eye of the Kaffir is never sold in England. There is a tone of colour in the cotton prints required in Algeria which is different from those which are required in India. And yet in such industries it has not been usual for the manufacturer to find out the needs of foreign markets for himself, but he makes what is ordered by the wholesale agents of merchants who study the foreign markets, and thus direct the manufacturer to meet the demand.

The distribution of wealth is a not unimportant factor in the distributive

aspect of commerce, and the low price of the goods is often the only means of competing successfully in the foreign market. Thus the Leicestershire stocking trade in one of its branches, depends upon the socks being sold in Constantinople and Syria at the rate of twopence per pair; and such a trade is only kept by ceaseless improvements in invention of machinery for the manufacture. The competitive aspect of international distributive commerce is leading more and more to the invention of machinery to lessen the cost of production, so that in many great works a large proportion of the workmen are employed in tending machines or using them, so as to reduce the cost of the manufacture. This is especially obvious in some of the great agricultural implement works of the eastern side of England, where multitudes of machines worked by steam make the many parts of costly steam ploughs, sowing, reaping, binding, and thrashing machines made for foreign and colonial requirements, which, in their turn, reduce the necessity for agricultural labour.

Another aspect of the distributive side of commercial geography is the need that the capital invested should become available again in the shortest possible time. This may be effected in many ways known in commerce, with which geography is only indirectly concerned, as in the sale of a cargo which has yet to be delivered; but it has led to utilization of the most rapid means of conveyance, by which the steam ship supersedes the sailing ship, and the train takes up the work of the canal barge. This element of speed in delivery has become a necessary condition of preserving the market from being forestalled; and, in the case of some perishable goods, of creating markets which did not exist. In this country we have had the advantage of receiving fruit from

the antipodes, especially from Tasmania, at a time when the fruit supplies of Europe are exhausted. When in Cape Town I drew attention to the facility with which fruit from South Africa might be sent to the European markets. I do not know whether my words had any influence, but within two years many South African fruits have reached this country; and grapes from the Cape are now among the cheapest and best in the London market. Trade often only needs to be started to augment, especially when the markets are supplied with commodities which were not previously available.

This consideration leads me to mention another personal experience which may be possibly not unconnected with a now common industry. About thirteen years ago I was occupied in dissecting some large alligators which had died in London, and desired to have their skins tanned into soft leather. No one of my friends among tanners had ever heard of leather made from this kind of skin; and, after seeking information through the principal channels, no one would undertake the responsibility of the experiment. Yet the trade soon became interested in the possibilities of a new industry, and within two years small tanned crocodile skins were curiosities exhibited in many shop windows in London. At the present time the skins of crocodiles, lizards, and serpents, are not only tanned but manufactured into a multitude of useful articles, which are attractive from the patterns of the reptilian ornament.

In this slight sketch of the nature of commercial geography my main endeavour has been to show that it is dominated by definite principles which should make us anxious to teach it practically with the same thoroughness as though it were one of the older sciences. Whatever interest there may be in the analytical method of

examining the produce of the world country by country, it alone will not make the youth into a merchant, or prepare him adequately for mercantile duties; because commerce in its practical aspects is concerned with special kinds of products such as wool or hair, barks or resins, gums or timber, or manufactured goods like wines, furniture, or machinery, which need special skill in appraising them, and which come from or go to many countries. And in the interest of the pupil it seems to me desirable that the teaching should run as nearly as may be parallel with the ways of thought which will make the knowledge he gains immediately useful.

There can be no question that commercial geography is an attainment of immense importance for the commerce of the country, and destined in the not distant future to hold an important place in education. But it is so complex in its elements, and so fluctuating in its facts, that the difficulties in teaching it are greater than may have been generally realized. It is no easy matter to make the elements of political economy which enter into it, intelligible to children of fourteen or fifteen, while the convictions of the working classes which, as expressed through their trade organizations, set steadily towards shorter hours of labour and increased wages, might make such teaching extremely unwelcome in many homes. A time may come when Government examinations may require such knowledge, and then people will realize that one reason why so many things are "made in Germany," is the fact that the lower wages paid in that country, and the more frugal habits of the people make the cost of production less.

Another difficulty is that, for such knowledge to be of value in commerce the pupil must learn his fundamental facts not so much from books as from examination of speci-

mens, and for this end it is necessary to form illustrative museums in every school, and museums of commercial geography in every town. Such museums should exhibit not only raw produce, but its geographical distribution: and not only manufactured goods, and the varieties needed for different geographical areas, but stages of manufacture with which commerce is concerned, as well as any waste material which is not yet utilized. County Councils have not yet become alive to the possibility of advancing technical education by such means; but, if we are to hold our place as a nation of merchants and shopkeepers, means must be found to impart practical familiarity with the raw materials and stages of manufacture of commercial products in all our chief industries. I have no doubt the manufacturers will contribute such specimens to the schools or museums in their own districts, so that the boy may learn the different qualities of wool which come from the several portions of the same fleece, and the differences which he recognizes in the wool imported from New Zealand and from Europe, for example, which result in their being made into different fabrics. It is only by such aid that commercial geography can be taught in a way which will interest the pupil and benefit the employer. But even if these practical aids were forthcoming, the subject seems to me too extensive to be systematically taught to pupils of secondary schools at present, on account of the pressure of other work and the limit of age.

I would, therefore, propose to limit the work of children under fifteen either to a general knowledge of the chief types of the raw materials, British or foreign, which are used in any way in this country, or to a competent knowledge of some group or industries, like the textile trades or metal trades. The first of these suggestions

has much to recommend it, because commercial geography may then be built upon physical geography as a science; and the pupil, from the first, realizes that his purpose is not so much to remember facts, as to understand them, and think how his knowledge can be applied. All the collateral attainment which can be added, for example, to a discriminating acquaintance with the ores of metals, is a technical training by means of scientific processes which have to be understood. And, whether such further attainment is made in school-days or later, it is made at sometime, if the foundation was well laid by the men who extended the demand for British goods.

This suggested limitation of the subject, as a school study, overcomes the chief difficulties which have been indicated as affecting the teacher, while it reduces the difficulty in obtaining the necessary materials for practical work. I may, therefore, claim that there is no reason why commercial geography should not become a recognized study in all schools in which technical training is encouraged.

For the present, the complicated conditions of manufacturing and distributive industries seem more suitable

for study when the young man is fairly engaged in the battle of commercial life. And it is rather in University institutions, than in schools, that he may be advised to follow out such an examination of the ultimate history of raw materials and manufactured goods as accounts for their distribution by merchants and traders.

There is practically no limit to the enterprize of the English merchant in discovering markets, and profiting by new commodities. Probably no discovery he could make would be so welcome as clerks who to their other attainments added that practical grasp of their work which would follow from adequate mastery of this branch of knowledge. On that account the merchant's aid may be desired in co-operating to further organize formal recognition of commercial geography, as a suitable subject not only for Government examinations, perhaps under the Science and Art regulations, which would give new intelligence to the rank and file of traders, but also for professorial teaching in Universities, so that the employers of labour may be not less well prepared for their share in this educational effort to cherish and, if possible, advance the prosperity of our country.—*The Educational Times*.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONISTS IN TORONTO.

IN the early part of November, an important educational convention was held in Toronto. For many years, it has been the practice of the principals of the State Normal Schools of New York to hold an annual conference at some point, usually in their own state. Seventeen years ago, their meeting was held in Toronto, and this year they returned to pay the city

a second visit. The following gentlemen were present:—E. A. Sheldon, Ph.D., Oswego, President; W. J. Milne, Ph.D., Albany, Vice-President; C. D. McLean, LL.B., Brockport; J. M. Cassety, Ph.D., Buffalo; F. J. Cheney, Ph.D., Cortland; F. B. Palmer, Ph.D., Fredonia; Jno. M. Milne, Ph.D., Geneseo; F. S. Capen, Ph.D., New Paltz; Jas. M.

Milne, Ph.D., Oneonto; E. N. Jones, Ph.D., Plattsburg; T. B. Stowell, Ph.D., Potsdam.

During the three days' meeting of the council, the members accomplished a large amount of work. They visited the Normal and Model Schools and a number of the Public Schools of the city, besides other educational institutions. They also held regular conferences, to which the Minister of Education and others were invited. In addition to comparing notes with one another, they secured, by a series of well directed questions, the main features of our educational system, especially in regard to the professional training of teachers. A fact which was clearly brought out at these meetings, is the wide difference between Ontario and the State of New York in regard to departmental control. The unity of the Ontario system was very favorably commented on. In New York State, they feel the need of some authority in order to secure a uniformly high standard of efficiency in all the departments from the Kindergarten to the University.

On the evening of November 2nd, a reception was given at the Education Department, by the principal and teachers of the Normal and Model schools. A large number attended, and the meeting was in a marked degree a representative gathering. Mr. Kirkland acted as chairman, and addresses of welcome were given by Dr. Ross, for the Education Department; by Mr. Saunders, for the City Council; by Dr. Burwash, for Victoria University; by Prof. W. Clark, for Trinity University; by Dr. Rand, for MacMaster University; by Prof. Teefy, for the Separate Schools and for St. Michael's College; by Dr. McLellan, for the School of Pedagogy; by Mr. MacMurchy, for the Toronto Collegiate Institutes; and by Mr. Hughes, for the Public Schools of the

city. Mme. d'Auria sang a couple of songs, and Mrs. Black (Miss Agnes Knox), gave two recitations. Responses were given by Dr. Sheldon and Dr. Milne, of Albany. The former gave an interesting account of his previous visits to Toronto, which extended over a period of over thirty years. He gave unqualified praise to the excellent foundation laid by Dr. Ryerson, and cited as evidence of the correctness of the policy adopted, the marked success which has been achieved in developing the plan so well outlined nearly half a century ago. Dr. Milne followed with a brief address in which he said many happy things. This closed one of the most successful educational meetings ever held in Toronto. The library and museum were illuminated, and decorated with plants. Many remained for half an hour after the conclusion of the meeting, to enjoy a promenade. Music was furnished by Napolitano's band.

Through the kindness of the city council, the American visitors were invited to a "drive" about the city, on the last day of the meeting. The Parliament Buildings, Universities, the city buildings, etc., were visited. After the drive the gentlemen left for their own homes.

Who is free? the man that masters his own will.—*Epicetetus*.

The talent of success is nothing more than doing what you can do well, and doing well whatever you do, without a thought of fame.—*Longfellow*.

Our bodies are our gardens, to the which our wills are gardeners; so that if we will plant nettles, or sow lettuce, set hyssop, and weed up thyme, supply it with one gender of herbs, or distract it with many, either to have it sterile with idleness, or manured with industry, why, the power and corrigible authority of this lies in our wills.—*Othello*, i. 3.

A HISTORY OF PORTAGE LA PRAIRIE.

BY A. H. FINCH.

PORTAGE LA PRAIRIE, on the main line of the C. P. R., is the headquarters of the Manitoba and North Western Railway and the terminus of the Northern Pacific and is situated in the heart of the world famous Portage Plains, the best agricultural region in the world to-day, only two places equalling it in the quality, quantity and constancy of its wheat yield; these being the delta of the Nile and the Plains of Esdraelon in Palestine.

Historically Portage is the most interesting place in the North-West, eclipsing even Winnipeg itself. For ages it has been the connecting land link between the northern and southern waters, ever since the Assiniboine ceased to flow into Lake Manitoba and made for itself a new channel into the Red at Winnipeg. Then the Portage began to lengthen till at the present writing it is some ten miles.

From 1730 to 1750 there was a Catholic Mission established across the river, on the land now known as "The Island," the river having since receded and found a new channel a mile or so further south, leaving "The Island" surrounded by the old bed, which in the near future will be flooded at small expense and be turned into one of the most delightful inland lakes imaginable, and Portage will then take her rightful place as the most delightful summer resort in the Canadian North-West.

Trading houses were established in connection with the Mission, and in 1780 the Crees and Assiniboines made a joint attack. They found three trading houses belonging to three distinct companies with quite a village of traders' huts opposite the

Mission, and where Portage now stands, two they took, killing the occupants, but were repulsed from the third and vanquished so completely that they left their dead and wounded to the white man, and their depredations ceased.

Later, when the Sioux Indians swarmed in from Dakota and Minnesota, the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Trading Company built strong fortifications for protection of life and property.

The Metis or Half-breeds established a prosperous colony where Portage now stands, purchasing land from their brethren the Indians, and in 1850 a Catholic Mission Church and Parsonage was established among them.

In 1859-60 Archdeacon Cochrane purchased the present site of Portage from the Saltieus, paying for it in goods. The chief later sold the Island and Slough River for the consideration that each settler should give him a bushel of wheat annually till he died. This was faithfully carried out.

In 1861, the first eastern emigrant, John McLean, pitched his tent among the Indians and Metis, who looked with jealous eye on the encroachments of the white man. By the time of the Rebellion in 1869-70, there was a flourishing colony of an even fifty households—farmers and merchants, from the east, and, loyalists to a man, they nearly all were put in durance vile in Fort Garry. But their families and properties were unmolested.

Previously having no assistance from the central government, and constantly harassed by the feuds of the different trading companies, and

yet more barbarous contending tribes of Indians, the settlers had for mutual protection formed a government on the republic model, placing their leader, Thos. Spence, at its head as president. Soon, however, correspondence with the Imperial authorities amicably settled all difficulties.

In 1871, the first steam flour mill was built; formerly a wind mill on the Slough Road did all their grinding. This year, also, semi-weekly postal service was established with Winnipeg.

In 1872, the population was about 300; in 1881, about 1,000; in 1883, about 4,000, but when the town collapsed it dwindled to about 2,000; since when it has steadily increased to over 5,000.

Now, in 1893, we look about us and see all the marks of prosperity of a flourishing city—public buildings, churches and houses equal to any in the land.

Looking west can be seen the

“smoke of the begging lodges of the lazy Assiniboines,” to modernize the poet’s phrase. These still persistently resist the white man’s gospel, but eagerly accept his “toagh-ly.”

Over here to the east we see the smoky but more pretentious lodges of the renegade Minnesota Sioux. These are more amenable to the white man’s better ways, and between their lodges and the town is established a flourishing school where the children of both sexes are boarded, clothed and schooled and trained in all arts of civilized life. While much good has already been done in past years, one look at the kind, gentle, intelligent Christian faces of the two ladies who devote their time to this is a patent of still more good being accomplished in the future, near and remote.

If this hurried sketch interests you, come see for yourself this City of the Plains, beautiful for situation, the joy of this northern land.—*Manitoban.*

RELIGION AND EDUCATION AS ALLIES.

AS soon as we consider what religion really is, and what education is, we perceive that they are allies. Religion is the life of fellowship with God; more briefly still, it is the God-like life. It involves, therefore, the development of “what is likest God” within us. Education is culture, training, discipline. Religion and education alike have it as their aim to bring our best powers into exercise—to give us the best possible use of all our gifts for the work of life.

It does not follow that religion and education are identical, but it does follow that neither can do its greatest work for us without the other. Education is still training on the intellectual side; religion is training on the

spiritual side. But all the elements of our life exist together in the unity of personal life; all our powers cooperate and interact, and no part of our being can be neglected and left uncultivated without involving serious harm and loss to the entire man.

Look at this fact first from the side of religion. Fix in mind a person who has a conscientious and devout spirit, but without mental training. How unclear is apt to be his grasp of religious truth, how narrow his view of religious duty! Such persons usually exalt into pre-eminence some idea or practice which is by no means central in religion, and fail to make that which is all-important controlling and determining in their religious life.

Religion needs to be more than conscientious, it needs to be enlightened. The religious man ought to be more than devout; he ought, if possible, to be intelligent.

A moral and healthy religious life is greatly promoted by clear thought on the great themes of religion. The principles of Christianity offer themselves to the mind as subjects for reflection, and challenge our best powers. Such great ideas as the idea of God, the idea of righteousness, of grace, of faith, require some forth-putting of the mind's powers, in order to their just appreciation. What are called the simple truths of religion are really great and deep truths, which may well tax the thought of the educated man.

Or look at the matter from the side of education. Can any education be adequate which takes no account of the highest elements of our nature? Can we attain the best command of ourselves without attention to the life of the spirit which allies us to God? Religion connects all our life with God, and with His plan and purpose for us. It lifts all duty and all experience into conscious relation to Him and His moral order. All training which does not co-operate with this high aim of religion stops short of its noblest end. The growth which we call religious—that is, the growth in God-like character—and the growth we call education—that is, the training of the mind to do its best work—ought to bear us onward to the same goal—the best development of our entire manhood.

The alliance which should exist between religion and education is seen when we remember that both—when rightly understood—are essentially unselfish; both are a preparation for service. That this is true of religion is self-evident. Religion is, as has been said, the God-like life, and it is God's very nature to give, to serve,

to bless. The whole life of Jesus is the interpretation of religion to us as a life of service. He came to minister. He went about doing good. He poured out His life for others, and has set the perfect pattern of service for us. The religious life is the life of self-giving. It is the opposite of selfishness, which is the paralysis of the spiritual life and the root and essence of all sin.

In this respect, too, education is the natural ally of religion. It is the bringing out of what would otherwise be latent within us. It is making more of ourselves than we should be without it. It is the multiplication of our capacities so that we can be something more in the world than we could be without it. No doubt this increase of power which education gives may be selfishly used, but it is clear that such a use is a perversion, contrary to its true idea. All great educational movements and institutions have sprung out of impulse of service.

There are few things more impressive in all our history than the way in which almost all our institutions of higher learning have been founded and sustained by private voluntary benefactions. Who does not know that these institutions owe their origin and support to men who were intent upon serving their fellow-men by increasing the facilities for education? Unless an educated man is false to every obligation which his opportunities create, and false to the great idea and motive which underlies our educational system, he must feel that his training has for its purpose to lead him out of himself, to enlarge and quicken his sympathies for others, and to make his life a means of usefulness and helpfulness among men.

Religion and education have a point of contact in the fact that both contemplate and secure the enrichment of personal life. While both religion and education should lead us

to make the most of ourselves for others, they also enable us to make the most of ourselves *for ourselves*. They make life—each in its own way—fuller and richer than it would otherwise be. How pitifully small and petty is the life of many persons! No breadth of view, no largeness of interest, no resources for thought!

It is one of the inestimable benefits of training, that it gives us a larger outlook on the world and life. The treasures of knowledge and thought which the race has garnered through the ages, are in some measure opened to us; a taste of something besides the merely commonplace has been cultivated; an interest has been awakened in ideas. Life will always be the larger for us on this account. It will have a range and elevation of which no change and no condition can well deprive it. All real mental training opens to us a larger, freer world. So also—and in a pre-eminent degree—does religion. The interests which it includes are the greatest; the motives by which it is inspired, the noblest; the truths which it leads us to contemplate, the sublimest. What can enrich life and make it interesting to live, if it be not the consideration of the life of Jesus Christ, and the effort to make the principles of that life the ruling forces of our own?

If people could only free their minds from superficial and one-sided and false views of religion, how objections to it would melt away! What can be the real objection to a life which is built upon the principles of love, service, and helpfulness, which Jesus enthroned? Why should any manly man hesitate to avow that the life of unselfishness is the best, and that he will try to live it? No man can be repelled by religion when its true simplicity and reasonableness are understood.

Both education and religion involve

the contemplation and study of God and of His works. If science does not lead us to God, it does, at least, point the way to Him. It in our study of nature and history we stop short at the idea of law or force as the explanation of things, we are simply stopping at a word which can explain nothing. Religion, then, comes and speaks the name of God—a person behind and over all. Study may not lead us to God, but it may well show us the need of Him; and when He is once recognized, then study and worship meet and blend, as when Newton declared that in contemplating the heavens he was reading God's thoughts after Him.

Education should open to religious thought new realms by disclosing the wonders of God's work in nature and in man. Religion should elevate all knowledge by making us feel that all life is sacred, and that all beauty and all truth are but the outshining of the glory of the invisible God.—*The Sunday School Times*.

To know what to do is good; to know how to do it is better; to know what, how, and why, is best.

FROZEN FLOWERS—The great steamships plying between Australia and England are provided with freezing machinery, by which mutton, frozen, is preserved and delivered in London in fine condition. Australian flowers preserved in ice are also carried to London. Recently at a special meeting of the committees of the National Chrysanthemum Society held in London, some frozen blooms of chrysanthemums sent from Sydney, New South Wales, were exhibited. Four large incurved and other Japanese blooms, inclosed in great blocks of ice, 18 inches square and 8 inches deep, had been sent by Mr. R. Forsythe, of Sydney.

USES OF EDUCATION.

EDUCATION, intellectual and moral, is the only means yet discovered that is always sure to help people to help themselves. Any other species of aid may enervate the beneficiary, and lead to a habit of dependence on outside help. But intellectual and moral education develops self-respect, fertility of resources, knowledge of human nature, and aspiration for a better condition in life. It produces that divine discontent which goads on the individual, and will not let him rest. How does the school produce this important result? The school has undertaken to perform two quite different and opposite educational functions. The first produces intellectual training, and the second the training of the will.

The school, for its intellectual function, causes the pupil to learn certain arts, such as reading and writing, which make possible communication with one's fellow men, and impart certain rudimentary insights or general elementary ideas with which practical thinking may be done, and the pupil be set on the way to comprehend his environment of nature, and of humanity and history. There is taught in the humblest of schools something of arithmetic, the science and art of numbers, by whose aid material nature is divided and combined—the most practical of all knowledge of nature because it relates to the fundamental conditions of the existence of nature, the quantitative structure of time and space themselves. A little geography, also, is taught; the pupil acquires the idea of the inter relation of each locality with every other. Each place produces something for the world-market, and in return it receives numerous

commodities of useful and ornamental articles of food, clothing, and shelter. The great cosmopolitan idea of the human race and its unity of interests is born of geography, and even the smattering of it which the poorly taught pupil gets enwraps this great general idea, which is fertile and productive, a veritable knowledge of power from the start.

All school studies, moreover, deal with language, the embodiment of the reason, not of the individual, but of the Anglo-Saxon stock or people. Now, the steps of becoming conscious of words involved in writing and spelling, and in making out the meaning, and, finally, in the study of grammatical distinctions between the parts of speech, bring to the pupil a power of abstraction, a power of discriminating form from contents, substance from accidents, activity from passivity, subjective from objective, which makes him a thinker. For thinking depends on the mastery of categories, the ability to analyze a subject and get at its essential elements and see their necessary relations. The people who are taught to analyze their speech into words have a constant elementary training through life that makes them reflective and analytic as compared with a totally illiterate people. This explains to some degree the effect upon a lower race of adopting the language of a higher race. It brings up into consciousness, by furnishing exact expression for them, complicated series of ideas which remain sunk below the mental horizon of the savage. It enables the rudimentary intelligence to ascend from the thought of isolated things to the thought of their relations and interdependencies.

The school teaches also literature,

and trains the pupil to read by setting him lessons consisting of extracts from literary works of art. These are selected for their intensity, and for their peculiar merits in expressing situations of the soul brought about by external or internal circumstances. Language itself contains the categories of thought, and the study of grammatical structure makes one conscious of phases of ideas which flit past without notice in the mind of the illiterate person. Literary genius invents modes of utterance for feelings and thoughts that were hitherto below the surface of consciousness. It brings them above its level, and makes them forever after conscious and articulate. Especially in the realm of ethical and religious ideas, the thoughts that furnish the regulative forms for living

and acting, literature is pre-eminent for its usefulness. Literature may be said, therefore, to reveal human nature. Its very elementary study in school makes the pupil acquainted with a hundred or more pieces of literary art, expressing for him with felicity his rarer and higher moods of feeling and thought. When, in mature age, we look back over our lives and recall to mind the influence that our schooldays brought us, the time spent over the school readers seems quite naturally to have been the most valuable part of our education. Our thoughts on the conduct of life have been stimulated by it, and this ethical knowledge is of all knowledge the nearest related to self-preservation.—*Wm. T. Harris, in the Atlantic Monthly.*

CHRISTMAS GIVING.

HAPLESS is the lot of that man who, in this Christmas-time, has no gift to give or no gift to receive. Melancholy must claim him for her own, and life to him must be a condition of utter and unrelieved cheerlessness. Now, when the Christmas fires are kindled on countless hearths, when all mankind is given over to merry-making and well-wishing, when Kris Kringle usurps all other rule, he who has no home is indeed a woful wight; and he who has a home and yet provides no Christmas-tree is a wretch for whose neglect there is no extenuation.

It sometimes goes hard with those who cling to the notion that Christmas Day should be an occasion of quiet, devout, contemplative religious ceremonials, that the popular observance is marked by feasting, hilarity, good-humor, and the giving of gifts.

Such persons are not your true philosophers. Christ himself declared that His followers would be known by the fruits of their devotion. And generosity is most assuredly a Christian grace. Because there may appear a very long stretch of sequences between the Adoration of the Magi and Mr. Pickwick's frolic under the mistletoe, they are sequences, nevertheless; for, while the solemn ceremony of the one was a recognition by direction, the other was a recognition by indirection—in the one case there was kneeling in the presence of the Christ-child; in the other, a manifestation of that temper of kindness which is the sweetest illustration of the Christian spirit.

The interchange of tokens of affectionate regard on Christmas Day is quite in accord with the injunction to love our neighbors as ourselves. The

fundamental principle of the Christian religion is exemplified in the gift. All the forms of the day's celebrations are protestations against selfishness. Christ constantly insisted upon self-denial, self-restraint and self-subordination. One's duty to others is variously enjoined in the Scriptures. Therefore the Christmas-gift comprises the essence of the religion He taught—a religion which, instilling charity into the hearts of men, was to make all men happier through the efforts of each individual to make his fellow happier. The modern method of commemorating the Advent is entirely fitting, even though we give ourselves over to the Good Genius of the Christmas-tree, with only incidental regard to the bells that “knoll to church.” The most important observance is that beneath the branches of the gift-bearing evergreen when all hearts grow young in the atmosphere of good-cheer and loving-kindness. It is there that each one sees the happy results of his own beneficence, and finds his full reward in the consciousness of the pervading gladness. Such is the blessedness of practical Christianity; such the beautiful outcome of a religion intended to solace, to ameliorate and to compensate—a religion of a Master who finds His most grateful worship in the kindly acts of His children “one to another.”

Here, in America, the sprites and elves and genii of ancient love have not thrived in the popular fancy. Even such superstitions as the Puritans brought over were forgotten or ignored by their children. The occupation of the New World kept their minds too busy with the duties at hand to allow them to ponder upon the supernatural. The American with each succeeding generation grew more practical-minded, and the Christmas fairies slipped into oblivion along with the faith in the

divine right of kings. Kris Kringle survived because he was a convenient appropriation, and because, perhaps, he was such an extravagant old fellow, whose largess was quite in harmony with the somewhat prodigal American disposition. But he alone has survived. He alone has any sort of actuality to the American child. Cinderella and Queen Titania and all the rest of them are read of and enjoyed, but without much faith in their existence. They are contemplated rather as charming creatures of admitted unreality. But St. Nicholas is still expected, and eyes are shut to his mythical nature, despite base-burners and registers and furnaces. Force a child to a confession of belief or unbelief in his reality, the decision would probably be in the negative; but the delusion is fondly cherished, notwithstanding. He is, as remarked, such a delightful convenience. He invests the Christmas-tree with just enough mystery to give exquisiteness to the pleasure of its unveiling—and long may he live to defy the image-breaking spirit of the age! He is the embodiment of good-cheer; the genial instrument of impartial benevolence. He does not object if all his gifts bear the signet of father or mother, uncle or aunt, neighbor or friend. He is quite above such trivial incongruities. The sentiment of mutual good-will remains. Such is his mission; such was the mission of the angels who sang to the shepherds of Judea.—*The Christian Guardian.*

Use thy youth so that thou mayest have comfort to remember it when it has forsaken thee, and not sigh and grieve at the account thereof. Use it as the springtime which soon departeth, and wherein thou oughtest to plant and sow all provisions for a long and happy life.—*Sir Walter Raleigh.*

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

GOOD order is the first end to be sought in the government of the school.

It may be added that a school is in good order when every pupil in his own place and in good spirit is attending to his own business in such way as not to disturb or hinder any other pupil. I now proceed to consider some of the other ends to be sought.

2. *To restrain and correct whatever is wrong in the conduct and habits of pupils.* The ordinary school is not exactly a reformatory; yet the teacher as well as the parent must be vigilant in checking and overcoming the tendencies of children to evil. In nearly every school are some pupils of depraved tendencies: and unless there are strong counter-acting and correcting influences, they will contaminate and pervert others. Especially is this true of large schools in cities and towns. Without a strong, watchful teacher, such schools are liable to become schools of vice. Under almost any conditions, the demoralizing tendency of a large school, when not well controlled, is great. It is often surprising with what readiness children from good homes fall into the practices of evil companions in schools under weak or lax government. Rudeness, falsehood, profanity and vileness are very contagious.

On the other hand, a strong teacher, with high moral character and purpose, is a great power for good. In such case it is literally true that one can chase a thousand.

It is not enough that the teacher be vigilant and skilful in detecting and punishing evil-doers, though this is well as far as it goes. He must build up the good as well as

destroy the evil. The great desideratum is a health-giving and invigorating moral atmosphere, and this, only an upright, pure and strong teacher can beget. What great incentives to purify himself and be strong are ever before the teacher whose eyes are open to see his work! This is one of the blessed compensations of the business of teaching. With a discovery of its possibilities there is apt to come an intense desire to realize one's ideal in his own life and character, and this for the sake of his pupils rather than himself.

3. *To beget the habit and spirit of obedience.* The great lesson of life, is the lesson of obedience. Schiller tells us that the first great law is to obey, and

"Obedience is the Christian's crown."

One of the sacred writers has said, "to obey is better than sacrifice." The teachers of the land can do no greater service to the State than to train their pupils to obedience. Moral lessons and lessons in civics are well enough; but they have their chief value as auxiliaries in begetting the spirit of obedience. Without the spirit and habit of obedience, no amount of moral and civic instruction or of formal acts of devotion will avail much. I would rather have my child in a school where he is trained to implicit obedience, than in one where long scripture lessons are read and long prayers are said, with slackness in the matter of obedience. Scripture lessons and prayers are good in their place (and they may properly have a place in school), but the great thing is training in right life and conduct.

I doubt whether even teachers themselves realize how great a power

for good lies in the training of the public schools in the direction of obedience. And here I wish to testify to the great gain that has been made. The discipline of the schools is far better than it was at a time within the recollection of many now living. Teachers have greater power and higher skill in governing. There is far less of antagonism and harsh discipline, and far more of gentleness and refinement. The pupils are more tractable and obedient. The restraining and uplifting influence of the schools is very great. Many a young anarchist is taught lessons in the schools that will last him for a lifetime.

If it be said that law-breaking, recklessness and crime abound, let it be remembered that many powerful agencies for evil are at work, and were it not for the counteracting influence of the schools and churches, the outlook would be gloomy indeed. Our land seems to be more than ever the dumping-ground for the refuse of the old world's population, and these herd in our great commercial centres, making each a danger centre. Out of the children of this mixed multitude the schools must make American citizens; and never before in the world's history were schools so well fitted for so great a work as are the American free schools of to-day. Let teachers be encouraged to renewed zeal and higher endeavour.

4. *To beget a sense of individual responsibility.* Daniel Webster was once asked what he considered the greatest thought that had ever occupied his mind. He replied, "The thought of my own individual accountability." And it is a thought that tends to impress every right-minded person most profoundly. It is a serious thing to live the life of a man or a woman in the world, knowing that every one of us must

render a strict account, that even "every idle word that men shall speak they shall give account thereof." There is not much strength or stability of character without a considerable measure of this sense of oughtness; and its strong development in any one is almost a guarantee of safety in the voyage of life. Its development in pupils is a matter of growth and cultivation. Teachers are apt to feel that little can be done in this direction, and so put forth little effort. Perhaps it is *caught* rather than *taught*. Certain it is that the teacher who acts from a deep sense of his own accountability, and whose first question is always, What is the right thing to do? will steadily gain ground. In all dealings with pupils in matters of conduct, it is well to appeal to their sense of duty even though it be known to be weak. There is no better or surer way of quickening this sense. Did you do right? Is your record clean? Is your conscience clear? are questions which, coming from the lips of a faithful and earnest teacher, can scarcely fail of an effect. The discovery of the want of moral sense in pupils should stimulate rather than discourage effort.

Of course the years before school life begins is the important period. The moral sense and moral standards of children are largely the product of the influences which surround them during this early period. In this there is a strong reason for public kindergartens in the cities, for the large class of children whose infant lives are spent in an atmosphere of vice and crime, and whose early moral training would be otherwise entirely neglected. It would be true economy as well as true philanthropy to provide free kindergartens for these children, with compulsory attendance from the age of three or four to six or seven.

But I am more and more impressed with the weight of responsibility which comes upon our public school teachers for this same class of children. For many of them the public school is almost their only opportunity; and I am sure that teachers of warm heart and earnest purpose can do much for them.

5. *To beget self control.* There is probably no better test of the government of a school. That school is best governed that has in it most of self-government. The school that is kept under by the vigilant eye and the strong hand of the teacher, and is ready to break into disorder whenever the teacher's back is turned, is not well governed, no matter how quiet and orderly it may be under the teacher's eye.

It should be the aim of the teacher to beget such a spirit in his school that he can at any moment without warning leave the room, in the full confidence that for a reasonable time good order will be maintained and the work of the school go on without his presence. This is not an unattainable ideal, in proof of which I might cite numerous examples. A large grammar school in Southern Ohio has been known to run in good order for an entire half-day, without the teacher or a substitute. Work being assigned for the entire session, the pupils did it and retired in good order at the proper time. I knew a school in Cleveland, of about third year or second reader grade, that ran in perfect order for a full week, in the care of a little girl who was a member of the school. These may be considered exceptional cases, but they point out the direction in which the teacher's efforts should be bent.

The immediate results of judicious effort in this direction are most gratifying to both teacher and

pupils. The government becomes easy for the teacher and pleasing to the pupils. But the more remote and more important results are seen in the growing power of self-control in the pupils, and these are valuable beyond estimate. The chief business of each individual life in this world is to get self-mastery. The master of self is master of all. The highest praise is "not to the strong man 'who taketh a city,' but to the strong man who 'ruleth his own spirit.'" This strong man is he who, by discipline, exercises a constant control over his thoughts, his speech, and his acts. Nine-tenths of the vicious desires that degrade society, and which, when indulged, swell into the crimes that disgrace it, would shrink into insignificance before the advance of valiant self-discipline, self-respect, and self-control. By the watchful exercise of these virtues, purity of mind and heart becomes habitual, and the character is built up in chastity, virtue, and temperance."

Such results are worth the teacher's highest thought and best effort, and the encouraging thing is that they are in large measure attainable. Let the teacher seek first for himself personal worth and high ideals, then press steadily onward.

6. *To keep pupils up to their best.* This is an ideal which has grown apace in my mind as the years go by. It ought to be the ideal of every teacher, toward the realization of which he should ever strive intensely. Every pupil at his best—what a grand attainment! It would preclude all over-strain as well as all inattention and idling. It would imply riveted attention, intense application, to the work in hand,—thoroughness of investigation, persistence to the point of complete comprehension, and clear and smooth expression. It

would also imply the best effort of each in conduct—best effort at resistance of evil, best exercise of right thought and feeling, full purpose and volition in the direction of the right and good, and prompt and efficient action.

Does it not appear that there are grand possibilities in the govern-

ment of the school, to him that has been born into the spirit of the true teacher?—*Ohio Monthly*.

It was always yet the trick of our English nation, if they have a good thing to make it too common.—2 *Henry IV.*, i. 2.

THE HEBREW PROPHET.

THE *Literary Digest* reprints the following instructive passage from a recent French work by Cardinal Meignan, Archbishop of Tours.

The name of Prophet, which was introduced into the Bible by its Greek translators, does not signify only one who predicts, but also, and, perhaps, principally, one who speaks in place of another. The business of a prophet, while it included an announcement of future events, was to manifest the divine wishes, whatever they might be, even when they did not relate to events of the present hour. We must take care not to forget this when studying the history of Israel, especially from the time of Samuel until after the Babylonian Captivity. There is strong risk of not understanding that history, if we take the prophets merely for diviners of a superior order, and if we think those alone worthy of that name, who have transmitted to us a portion of their work by writings. Alongside of Isaiah, of Jeremiah, of Ezekiel, of Daniel, and the twelve minor prophets—so named on account of the shortness of their works, which could all be written on one roll of parchment—we must place a very great number of others who wrote nothing, but whose acts and words are narrated with admiration in the historic

books of the Bible. Of these prophets, many are not even designated by name; but there are several of them, like Samuel, Elias, Elisha, and, some degrees below them, Nathan, Abiah, Jehu, who are numbered among the greatest men of Israel.

The prophets then are at the same time seers who, instructed by divine revelation, announce to their contemporaries future events, and men of action whom Jehovah gives to His people to keep them, or lead them back, in the way of right. While these two missions tend to the same end, the advent of the Messiah, they manifest themselves each in a manner so distinct from the other that they must be studied apart.

It did not suffice, in fact, to announce several centuries in advance the triumph of the perfect religion. It was necessary to render that religion possible, by preventing idolatry from being substituted for monotheism, by keeping among the Jews a nucleus of the faithful, despite the neighborhood of, and the contact with, pagans. The danger of idolatry, which began towards the end of the reign of Solomon, became so great at the time of the schism of the Ten Tribes, that prophets were for several centuries totally absorbed in this conflict.

What a struggle that was, and what importance it had for the future of the world? On the one side was the only true religion, the highest morality, the most sublime notion of God, the regenerating idea, which developed by the Gospel, was to produce at a future day all human civilization; on the other side was the paganism of Syrian modes of worship, with its voluptuous or bloody practices, its debauchery in honor of Astarte, its human sacrifices in honor of Moloch. Let the prophets be vanquished, and there was an end to belief in one God, an end to the ideal morality which thereafter the rest of the world would never have been capable of discovering by its own efforts. Never was cause more worthy of divine aid; never was there more justification for the intervention of that providence which, in the darkest ages, does not cease to guide humanity surely to its supreme end; and certainly this higher intervention in the history of the prophets is incontestable.

For what, in fact, are the prophets, if you refuse to acknowledge that they were divine messengers? Men without a mission, the most of them in no way connected with the priesthood, and who yet take it on themselves to lecture their people, the kings, and even the priests; unfortunate censors, who thrust themselves forward constantly to address reproaches to people with whom they have not the slightest right to interfere; diviners of evil augury, who never announce aught but chastisement, or if they speak sometimes of an era of happiness, always postpone that era to a far-distant future. Would you liken them to the mahdis who often sprung up in Islam, proclaiming that they are, and sometimes believing themselves to be, envoys of Allah? These mahdis, however, are fanatics and warrior chiefs who put themselves at the head of popular

movements, while the prophets of Israel, indifferent to honors, to money, to power, while engrossed above all with spiritual good and in fulfilling their mission in all sorts of dangers, took refuge in a rough solitude, or in the distant dwellings where their poor brothers dwelt in rude encampments, in those primitive and comfortless monasteries which are called their schools. This is the sort of persons who triumphed over the seductions of idolatry, who resisted victoriously powerful empires; who, without, perhaps, comprehending fully the important part they played, preserved, developed, transmitted the precious germ of the divine promises; or, if you prefer such phraseology, the trembling and fragile light, which, hidden in an obscure corner of the world, was little by little to grow stronger and brighter until later on it illuminated all the human race.

The prophets were bitterly opposed by the people, the kings and the priests. Jeremiah was put in prison as a traitor to his country, and escaped death by an accident only. The lives of these Hebrew prophets were one long warfare, while endeavoring to reform the spirit of the government in general, and establish principles of right, of justice and social morality. To effect all this was the greatest, most difficult, and most important part of their task. Their gift of prophecy and the fulfillment of their predictions by the events of subsequent history were secondary matters.

If happiness has not her seat
And centre in the breast,
We may be wise, or rich, or great,
But never can be blest.—*Burns.*

Time is infinitely long, and every day is a vessel into which much may be poured, if we fill it up to the brim.—*Goethe.*

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

DECEMBER.

THE beauty of the midnight sky is now very much enhanced by the proximity of Jupiter to the brightest region of the heavens, and the observer has very direct evidence of the superior brilliancy of the planet as compared even with the brightest of the fixed stars, Sirius, yet the great lustre of the latter is most remarkable when we come to consider the immense distance which separates it from our system.

A comparison among the stars as to relative magnitude has led to some general theorems regarding their distances, on the assumption, however, that they are uniformly distributed in space, and that they vary but slightly in volume and intrinsic brilliancy. The law that light varies inversely as the square of the distance is of course the basis of calculations of this kind.

The formula reached to determine the distance of a star of n magnitude in terms of the distance of a 1st mag. star is

$$D = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}} \right]^{n-1}$$

δ being .422, the logarithm of the ratio by which the brightness increases from magnitude to magnitude. This is accepted by Prof. Newcomb as giving a near approach to accuracy, and notwithstanding many exceptions it probably enables us to form some idea of the stellar universe.

We have in our winter sky one remarkable exception. The brilliant Sirius is $4\frac{1}{2}$ magnitudes brighter than Alcyone, the principal star of the beautiful cluster, the Pleiades, and the above formula would place Alcyone at 4.51 times the distance of Sirius, or at the distance of 75.3 years of light journey. But the beautiful Pleiad,

though it has resisted all attempts at a determination of its parallax by ordinary methods is estimated to be at a distance of 267 years of light travel (J. Ellard Gore, F. R. A. S.), from the consideration of the proper motion of stars in its neighbourhood, and must consequently be incomparably brighter than Sirius, and presumably vastly larger.

The observer will have several evenings in December when Jupiter may be studied to advantage; all the phenomena of the satellites are visible at Toronto from the 12th to 15th and from 27th to 31st. The planet having now passed opposition we see the east surface of the shadow cone which it casts into space, and the occultations of the satellites occur at the west side of Jupiter's disc, while before opposition the satellites disappeared in the shadow before reaching a line tangent to the disc.

It may be of interest to note that the question of inherent light in Jupiter is an open one; it has been claimed that the light of the giant planet is all reflected, notwithstanding that he is considered young in planet life. There is a profitable field for the observer in the study of such questions.

Venus, now at her greatest elongation east and in crescent phase, outrivals Jupiter in brilliance; she forms a beautiful picture with the young moon on Dec. 12th.

The observer armed with moderate optical aid may pick up Neptune on the evening of Dec. 21st: the moon transits the meridian at 11 p. m., the planet preceding it by 15 mins and 5 degs. south; preceding the planet 6 mins., and 2 degs. north the 4th mag. star Tau Tauri culminates. Neptune

may be known by the pale greenish disc which it presents in the telescope.

Saturn is now a beautiful object in the morning sky, rising at about 2 a.m. He is easily observed, just east of

Spica, the first mag. star of Virgo, and about 4 degs. north. The northern surface of the ring is now visible at an elevation of 13 degs., the whole system being in admirable position for study at the telescope.

CONTRIBUTIONS.

To the Editor of THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY :

SIR,—The principle of conducting university matriculation examinations for honours and scholarships in a number of centres throughout the province, instead of holding them in the Convocation Hall of the university, where all the candidates can compete on the same footing, is so manifestly unjust, except to those who write in their own schools, that the wonder is any one can be found to advocate it. The last matriculation examination was the means of bringing discredit on the university, and on the candidates as well. There had been no demand for such a radical change. Everyone was satisfied with the old and tried method of awarding scholarship at the university, and the advocacy of the vicious system, inaugurated last mid-summer, looks like an attempt to make those examinations serve some purpose, not in the interest of the candidates, or that of the university. The system is a bad one and can not be defended on any grounds whatever. Sending out university professors to conduct these examinations, instead of leaving them to the care of the local examining board, will not remove the objection to the system, while it will certainly add to the cost of the examinations, and we surely pay enough for examinations in this province without adding other burdens of

expense. A fair award cannot be made when pupils compete for these scholarships under different circumstances. The conditions should be the same for all, and besides all this, the risks are far too great, especially when no good purpose is to be served by the change.

In selecting the places for these examinations my school could not well be passed over. I, therefore, urge a return to the old and tried method, simply as a question of principle.

It may be that the university has no intention of permitting a repetition of last summer's experiment, or that the department will not urge it. Let us hope, for the sake of fair play to the small schools, that honcr and scholarship candidates will all write in the university examination hall under the eye of the same presiding examiner.

HEAD MASTER

ONTARIO, Nov. 28th, 1893.

To the Editor of the MONTHLY :

SIR—May I take the liberty of making a suggestion which has often occurred to me, and which, if approved and acted on, would, I think, add to the interest and usefulness of the MONTHLY.

There are doubtless among its numerous readers many teachers who, like myself, have not the time, the inclination, or, it may be, the courage,

to prepare formal articles for publication, but who, nevertheless, often feel that they would like to obtain information or hear the opinions of their fellow teachers in regard to some part of their work as teachers or students. For myself, I know that as a teacher of English I often have my attention drawn to points in regard to which I should like to hear or see the opinion not merely of my colleagues but of experienced teachers of English in other schools.

My suggestion, then, is this: Could we not have a special department (something like the "Around the Table," "Contributors' Club," or "Notes and Queries" of some other periodicals, to which teachers should

be at liberty and should be specially invited to contribute questions, answers, explanations, suggestions, criticisms, or notes on special points? Many of us while acting as sub-examiners enjoyed the brief discussions on points that came up for consideration in connection with the papers we were examining, and a department such as I have suggested would afford an opportunity—and a better one, because more extended and less hurried—all the year round.

What say you, Mr. Editor, and what, with your permission, say my fellow teachers who read the MONTHLY?

Yours, etc., MASTER.

[We shall be very glad to do everything that we can for such a special Department.—EDITOR.]

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Writs for first Election.

42. For the First Election of Members to serve in the House of Commons the Governor-General shall cause Writs (*a*) to be issued by such Person, in such Form, and addressed to such Returning Officers as he thinks fit.

The Person issuing Writs (*b*) under this Section shall have the like Powers as are possessed at the Union by the Officers charged with the issuing of Writs for the Election of Members to serve in the respective House of Assembly or Legislative Assembly of the province of Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick; and the Returning Officers (*c*) to whom Writs are directed under this Section shall have the like Powers as are possessed at the Union by the Officers charged with the returning of Writs for the Election of Members to serve in the same respective House of Assembly or Legislative Assembly.

As to Casual Vacancies.

43 In case a Vacancy (*d*) in the Representation in the House of Commons of any Electoral District happens before the Meeting of the Parliament, or after the Meeting of the Parliament before Provision is made by the Parliament in this Behalf, the Provisions of the last foregoing Section of this Act shall extend and apply to the issuing and returning of a Writ in respect of such vacant District.

NOTES:

(*a*). *Writs* are issued to the returning officers ordering them to have members of the House of Commons elected for the constituencies. The writs must be returned to Ottawa within the number of days specified in them, and must contain the names of the newly-elected members.

(*b*), (*c*). *The person issuing writs: the returning officers*: This clause was evidently intended to make the provincial law—as it stood in

the three provinces respectively at the union, in relation to the issuers of writs and returning officers—apply to the first election of members of the House of Commons.

(d), *In the case of a vacancy*: S. 43. provides that the provincial law as explained in notes (b), (c), shall continue in force until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides.

As to election of Speaker of House of Commons.

44. The House of Commons on its first assembling after a General Election shall proceed with all practicable Speed to elect One of its Members to be Speaker.

As to filling up vacancy in office of Speaker.

45. In case of a Vacany happening in the Office of Speaker by Death, Resignation or otherwise, the House of Commons shall with all practicable Speed proceed to elect another of its Members to be Speaker.

Speaker to preside.

46. The Speaker shall preside at all Meetings of the House of Commons.

Provision in case of absence of Speaker.

47. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, in case of the Absence for any Reason of the Speaker from the Chair of the House of Commons for a Period of Forty-eight consecutive Hours, the House may elect another of its Members to act as Speaker, and the Member so elected shall during the Continuance of such Absence of the Speaker have and execute all the Powers, Privileges and Duties of Speaker.

Quorum of House of Commons.

48. The Presence of at least Twenty Members of the House of Commons shall be necessary to constitute a Meeting of the house for the Exercise of its Powers; and for that Purpose the Speaker shall be reckoned as a Member.

Voting in House of Commons.

49. Questions arising in the House of Commons shall be decided by a

Majority of Voices other than that of the Speaker, and when the Voices are equal, but not otherwise, the Speaker shall have a Vote.

NOTES :

Section 87 of the B.N.A. Act provides that S.S. 44—49 inclusive “shall extend and apply to the legislative assemblies of Ontario and Quebec.”

The following “Rules, Orders and Forms of Proceeding of the House of Commons of Canada” are quoted to explain the “Powers, Privileges and Duties” of the speaker :

1. The time for the ordinary meeting of the house is at three o'clock in the afternoon of each sitting day, and if at that hour there be no quorum, Mr. Speaker may take the chair and adjourn.

3. When the house adjourns, the members shall keep their seats until the speaker has left the chair.

8. The speaker shall preserve order and decorum, and shall decide questions of order, subject to an appeal to the house.

10. Every member desiring to speak is to rise in his place, uncovered, and address himself to Mr. Speaker.

17. When the speaker is putting a question, no member shall walk out of, or across, the house, or make any noise or disturbance; and when a member is speaking, no member shall interrupt him, except to order, nor pass between him and the chair; and no member may pass between the chair and the table, nor between the chair and the mace, when the mace has been taken off the table by the sergeant.

Standing orders of the House of Commons of Canada.

No. 2. *Resolved*: That the member elected to serve as deputy speaker and chairman of committees shall be required to possess the full and practical knowledge of the language which is not that of the speaker for the time being.

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

BIBLE STUDY AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.—The description by Dr. Kent of what he was able to accomplish in his long trip through the West tends to confirm the opinion which has been forming in the minds of educators for a long time, that there is everywhere a latent interest in the study of the Bible, which is easily aroused into activity by an enthusiastic organizer. "The Literary Study of the Bible" is a phrase which has become familiar through the lecture-studies of Mr. Moulton. It tells its own story. Why should not the Bible be studied as a piece of literature just as Shakespeare is studied? There are thousands of people who cherish its teachings, and try to shape their lives by them, who yet have never approached the book as students, who have a very inadequate knowledge of it as a book, of its history, its growth, its content. The American Institute of Sacred Literature has done a great work in awakening desire for just such study of the Bible, and University Extension comes to supplement and extend these labours. Those who have attempted to organize clubs for the study of the Bible have been surprised at the ease with which they have succeeded in enlisting the interest of the people, often of various denominations, or of no denomination at all. As Dr. Kent clearly shows, the Sunday school cannot supply the necessary knowledge. There is need for careful, systematic study under the direction of some trained leader. The University Extension system is just the one to meet this popular demand for Bible study, and there is evidence that in many places this winter there will be given courses of lecture-studies upon this book, which has had such a tremendous influence upon the

history of the race, and which for that reason, if for no other, should be examined with thoughtful consideration by those who desire to be well-educated, just as they might wish to study Homer or Milton or the sagas of the Norsemen.—*The University Extension World.*

SCHOLARSHIPS.—The correspondence in the daily journals on the subject of scholarship deserves public attention, and raises grave questions with regard to the practical good of scholarships. At present there would seem to be a scramble between Oxford and Cambridge and between College and College to get hold of the cleverest and most promising students. With a view to the obtaining of scholarships little boys and girls are placed under training almost as soon as they have left the nursery. The private governess prepares the pupil for the little Preparatory School, and the little Preparatory School for the big Preparatory School, and that in its turn for the scholarships at our Public schools. So that up to the age of eighteen or nineteen the learner is kept under constant training for one object. We do not deny that there are advantages in this steady pursuit of one definite aim, however narrow it may be; it develops power in a particular direction; it strengthens the will; it secures a high standard of scholarship; but, on the other hand, it is apt to leave out of sight whatever does not contribute to the main object kept in view, and so narrows education in many important respects while deepening it in one or two. There are two strong objections to the whole system. The racer is run too young, and is liable to be ruined in the process. The prize does not always fall to the most

deserving ; it too often goes to the best "coached," and the best coaching is a luxury to be enjoyed only by the rich. In this way the competitors suffer and the cause of education itself suffers. Children are injured in body, mind and soul ; mediocrity is forced up into a position that does not belong to it ; and the instrument that was intended to help the poor child of genius is employed to save the pockets of the wealthy.—*The School Guardian.*

FOOTBALL.—There is little doubt that football is by far the most dangerous of the games commonly played by boys and young men. Yet there are few of us who would like to see it put down, and the Headmaster of Loretto, who has been a notable athlete in his day, is certainly not one of those few. Therefore the more attention is due to Dr. Almond's protest against certain brutalizing and "gate money" tendencies, which he declares to be on the increase :—

"—the effect of recent legislation has been to make the game faster. Everything for pace and show-off,

because crowds like a quick game and dislike what is, to them, the tedium of the old honest scrummage game. The effect of this is that more boys and men are excluded from the game than used to be the case. Boys with a weakness of the heart are excluded because of its pace, men have to stop playing sooner, and take their place amongst a crowd of sightseers, who would be much better engaged in taking exercise of some kind themselves. I have often felt, and said, that if the game develops on its present lines any further, schools ought to have a Union and rules of their own."

These remarks of his are called forth by the vigorous attempt now being made to put down "shinguards." The attack is based on the opportunities it gives those who wear them to take advantage of these safeguards to injure other players ; but Dr. Almond's opinion is (and he is supported by medical testimony) that some such protection is absolutely necessary as the game is played now.—*The Educational Times.*

PUBLIC OPINION.

THE MASTER OF BALLIOL.—Oxford has lost the most remarkable of her many eminent educationists by the death of Professor Jowett. The late Master of Balliol was at once scholar, teacher, and man of affairs—a rare combination, it will be admitted. Moreover, he had the subtle knack of impressing his personality on all with whom he came into contact. It is said that he had a peculiar ambition to influence such of his pupils as were likely to have distinguished careers. As a man he had an intense admiration for Johnson, and much of Johnson's fierce impatience of interference or opposition. He loved to rule

alone : but then he ruled with conspicuous success. There have been more famous as well as abler men than Dr. Jowett at Oxford, but during recent years, at least, there has been none of his imperious force. His chief source of strength was that he was not too severely academic ; in the midst of his most absorbing labours he never forgot that there was a great world outside the university walls. Abominating prigs, he was not afraid to say scathing things in a scathing way. Yet many of his pupils who are now filling distinguished offices will remember with gratitude his hard but beneficent discipline.

As a man of letters he is not widely known, nor is his original work of the highest quality. It will not compare favourably with the work of Cardinal Newman, or Mr. Froude, or Mr. Pater (to confine ourselves to Oxford), but it is distinctly good; and there are indications it might have been better had his energy been less or his leisure greater. His translations from the Greek classics are masterpieces. He did not trouble himself too much about verbal niceties, and he was not above taking a liberty with his author. But spirit and sense were always faithfully rendered. To use Emerson's phrase, he nestled in the brain of Plato; what is more, he made the ancient Greek interesting to the modern Englishman. The achievement, it will be admitted, was not a slight one.—*The Publishers' Circular*.

DR. JOWETT, MASTER OF BALLIOL.—Many are there who remember that it was he who first caused them to think out the meaning of words on which they had never before bestowed a thought, for he had a positive hatred for all that was merely high-sounding and not practical. His ideal of life was the interweaving of knowledge and activity to the fullest measure of both, and his own life was the honest endeavour to realize his ideal. There is a legend that he once concluded a sermon on "money" with the remark, "the love of money is the root of all evil—and I advise you each to have something in the bank," a combination of abstract wisdom and practical commonsense which it would be hard to beat. With this specimen of his practical theology squares another story as to his doctrinal views. One of his pupils, in the course of a friendly conversation, went so far as to aver that he had been unable in any philosophy or creed to discover evidence for the existence of any God. The Master shut his lips in the dread-

ed *aposiopesis* which was the recognized calm prelude to the lightning. "Well, Mr. A——," he said at length, "I can only say that if you cannot find yourself a God before luncheon to-morrow, I must send you back to your friends." "All religions," he said on another occasion, "are identical in their bearing on right conduct: it is only in point of scientific explanations that they are different."—*The Educational Times*.

MASSING OF CHILDREN.—The statement of Maj. McClaugbry, chief of the Chicago police, that first among the causes of crime is "criminal parentage, association, and neglect of children by their parents," every teacher can testify to as being correct. The incorrigibles in a school, without an exception we believe, will be found to be unfortunately born or of those who are severely let alone by their parents. But as it is certain that these children must be reached through the emotions and the will to be influenced, a duty, religious it may be well called, rests upon every teacher having such under her charge (and who has not?) to study the peculiarities of the individual child. Away, we say, with this massing of children for purposes of instruction. To place sixty or fifty children in a room and expect that the young teacher shall not only teach according to the methods of the idealists, but shall deal successfully with the two or three vicious phenomena in her class is preposterous.—*The School Journal*.

More is got from one book on which the thought settles for a definite end in knowledge, than from libraries skimmed over by wandering eyes. A cottage flower gives honey to the bee, a king's garden none to the butterfly.—*Lord Lytton*

GEOGRAPHY.

HOW FAR AWAY ARE THE STARS?—Of the hundred million or more stars which are visible with astronomical instruments, the distances from the earth of only a very few have been measured with even an approximation to accuracy. Most of the stars appear to be so far away that the change in their apparent place caused by viewing them from opposite sides of the earth's orbit—and that orbit is about one hundred and eighty-six million miles across—is so slight that it escapes certain detection. Only about fifty stars have thus far yielded definite results in the attempt to measure their distances, and even those results are too often exceedingly conflicting and uncertain. The nearest star thus far discovered is one of the first magnitude, not visible from the United States or Europe. It is the star called Alpha in the constellation of the Centaur in the southern hemisphere of the heavens.

The distance of this star appears to be something like twenty trillions of miles, or about two hundred and fifteen thousand times as great as the distance of the sun from the earth. The next nearest star, as far as known, is a little sixth-magnitude twinkler, barely visible to the naked eye, in the constellation of Cygnus, popularly called the Northern Cross. The distance of this star, which is known to astronomers as 61 Cygni, is variously estimated at from forty to sixty trillion miles, or two or three times that of the brightest star in the Centaur. The brightness of the stars, as we see them, is, then, no measure of their comparative distance. A very bright star may be much more distant than a very faint one, the difference being due to the greater magnitude of the more distant star. Sirius, or the dog-star, for instance,

which scintillates so splendidly in the winter sky, is more distant than the little star 61 Cygni, the latter being in fact a very much smaller sun than ours, while Sirius is a far larger one. It thus appears that while the efforts to measure the distances of the stars have not been very successful, yet they have resulted in giving us a wonderful insight into the arrangement of the universe of suns in the midst of which we dwell. They have proved that large stars and small stars are scattered through space at various distances from one another and from us; that the dimensions of the blazing bodies which we call stars or suns, vary to an enormous extent, and that our own sun, great, glorious and overpowering as it seems to us, really belongs to a quite inferior rank.

But it is possible that before many years our knowledge of the distances of the stars may be greatly extended. Spectroscopic investigation in the case of binary stars, as those are called which circle in pairs around their common centre of gravity, is beginning to help us a little in this direction. Recently, for instance, Mr. G. W. Colles, Jr., has calculated, from the results of such investigation, the mean distance of ninety-five stars situated in the northern hemisphere of the heavens, and he finds it equal to the distance which light would travel in about one hundred and fifty years. That distance is not less than eight hundred and seventy trillion miles, or more than forty-three times as great as the distance of the nearest known star, Alpha Centauri. Yet enormous as such a distance is, it is nearly certain that the average distance of all the stars composing the visible universe is still greater. And here and there the starry heavens, even in their richest regions, present black

and apparently empty spaces through which we seem to look out from the bounds of the visible universe into fathomless depths beyond. But is there any thoughtful mind which can avoid asking itself the question, "What lies beyond? When we come to the outermost star of the universe, what then?" That is a question which even astronomy, with all its marvellous wealth of discovery and achievement, cannot answer—at least not yet.—*Youth's Companion*.

THE POWER OF TELESCOPES.—Prof. Holden says that if the brightness of a star seen with the eye alone is one, with a 2-inch telescope, it is 100 times as bright; with a 4-inch telescope, 400 times; 8-inch telescope, 1,600 times; 16 inch telescope, 6,400 times; 32-inch telescope, 25,600 times; 36-inch telescope, 32,400 times. That is, stars can be seen with the 36-inch telescope which are 30,000 times fainter than the faintest stars visible to the naked eye. While the magnifying power which can be successfully used on the 5-inch telescope is not above 400, the 36-inch telescope will permit a magnifying power of more than 2,000 diameters on suitable objects, stars for example. With such a telescope the moon appears the same as it would with the naked eye 200 miles away. This is the same as saying that objects about 300 feet square can be recognized, so that no village or great canal, or even large edifice, can be built on the moon without our knowledge.—*The School Journal*.

M. de Lucy, a French naturalist, has shown that the wing-area of flying animals varies from about 49 square feet per pound of weight in the gnat, and 5 square feet in the swallow, to half a square foot per pound of weight in the Australian crane, which weighs 21 pounds and yet flies well. If we were to adopt the last or smallest propor-

tion, a man weighing 12 stone would require a pair of wings each of them 14 feet long by 3 feet broad, or double the area of an ordinary room door, to carry him, without taking into account the weight of the wings themselves. To pick out other aerial instances it may not be generally known that a frigate-bird can travel at the rate of a hundred miles an hour by chronograph, and live in the air a week at a time, day and night, without touching a roost; that large and heavy birds can remain almost motionless in air for hours without flapping their wings; that birds can exert continuously about three times the horse power per pound of weight that man can, and about the same amount more than a horse can. The energy given out by birds is, in fact, weight for weight, unparalleled in nature.—*Pall Mall Gazette*.

DAY OF THE WEEK FOR ANY DATE.

Let A = number of given year;

B = number of the day in the year;

C = number of leap years from A. D. 1 to the beginning of the year, that is, $(A - 1) \div 4$, neglecting the remainder.

Add these numbers together, and from the total subtract D = the number of secular years which were not leap years (100, 200, 300, 500, etc.); divide the sum by 7, and the remainder will be the day of the week.

Example: June 18, 1815.

$$1815 + 169 + 453 - 14 = 2423.$$

$2423 \div 7$ gives the remainder 1, showing that the day is Sunday.

This holds for any century according to the Gregorian Calendar. For the Julian reckoning the rule is the same, only omit the number D, and write 2 in its place.

Example: Oct. 14, 1066.

$$1066 + 287 + 266 - 2 = 1617.$$

$1617 \div 7$ gives the remainder 0 (or 7), showing that the day is Saturday.—*Nature*.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

SCHOOLS OF COMMERCE.

The result of the enquiry into the origin of Schools of Commerce is that they have been founded by private citizens, or by private corporations or companies. In this direction more already has been done in France, Germany and Austria than in Great Britain, and very much more than in the United States of America. The results of neglect are becoming very plain to business men in Britain by the places of their young countrymen being taken by young men from the Continent. For this reason, amongst others, business men and educators in England have been forced to look into the question of so called commercial education. And we are glad to see that this education of business men is being placed on a proper basis. Modern languages, mathematics, natural products of the various countries of the world, as well as the branches hitherto called commercial, are found on the programme of the modern Commercial School. Universities and colleges are directing the attention of their students to these subjects more than ever before. What is Canada doing in this direction? What can Canada do? Canada is a young country comparatively speaking, and, therefore, fairly, we should not expect much of her, business men and Boards of Trade. Handsome gifts are made from time to time by our countrymen in Montreal to educational work of the highest character, but donations to what are distinctively known as Schools of Commerce are yet to be made. Who is he that is to lead in this way first? or which Board of Trade in Canada will take the initiative in the special work which has been found to prosper so well under the care of enterprise?

NUMBERING OUR DAYS.

If we sit down at set of sun
And count the things that we have done,
And, counting, find
One self-denying act, one word
That eased the heart of him who heard,
One glance most kind
That fell like sunshine where it went,
Then we may count the day well spent.

But, if through all the livelong day,
We've eased no heart by yea or nay;
If, through it all,
We've nothing done that we can trace,
That brought the sunshine to a face;
No act most small,
That helped some soul and nothing cost,
Then count that day as worse than lost.

—George Eliot.

THE POSITION OF ANTAGONISM.—
Another mistake which young teachers often make is to try to get as much work out of the class as possible. This forces the pupils, in self-defence, to try to do as little work as possible, and introduces that feeling of opposition between teacher and pupils which is one of the most objectionable elements in school life. Healthy and satisfactory intellectual work is never done where this feeling prevails, and it sows the seeds of selfishness in the pupils' minds, for it forces them, even when the tendency is not already there, to consider their own gratification rather than common ends. The child is in the position of a man who finds that he will be despoiled of his rightful possessions, his natural inheritance, and needful food, unless he fights to preserve them. He therefore fights, seeing no other way out of the difficulty; and the habit of fighting, once acquired, is often continued even if he is placed in a position where it is no longer necessary. If children were not at school forced into a position of antagonism there would be less self-seeking in later life.—*The Journal of Education.*

SCHOOL WORK.

I.—QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR.

BOOK IV. CHAPTERS 1-5.

1. Translate chapter 5 into good idiomatic English.

2. Parse *mobiles, nihil, quærant, plerique, ficta*.

3. Construction of *consuetudinis, rumoribus*, (both), *quorum*.

4. *Consilium capentis*. Give the alternative construction.

5. Point out and classify the subjunctives in the chapter.

6. *Circumsistat. . . . cogant*. Point out and account for the syntactical peculiarity.

7. Exemplify from the chapter four affixes used in forming nouns.

8. Mention any peculiarity of *novis, vulgus, necesse*, respectively.

9. *Censilia ineunt*. What other compounds of *eo* are transitive.

10. *Novis rebus student*. Name ten other Latin verbs that are followed by the dative instead of the accusative.

II.—Translate idiomatically :

(a) *Sed privati ac separati agri apud eos nihil est.*

(b) *Maximam partem lacte atque pecore vivunt multumque sunt in venationibus.*

(c) *Haec quotidiana exercitatione summi ut sint laboris efficiunt.*

(d) *Public maximam putant esse laudem quam latissime a suis finibus vacare agro.*

III.—(1) Conjugate *laentur, sinunt, manserint, vivunt, redigerunt*.

(2) Compare *parva, celeriter, turpius, humiliiores, magis*.

(3) Give the nominative, genitive and gender of *lacte, cibi, jumentis, pedibus, sedibus*.

(4) Mark the quantity of the penult of

invicem, remanent, disciplina, incolunt, agricultura.

(5) Distinguish *ceperint*, and *ceperint, eques*, and *equitatus, consistere*, and *constituere*.

(6) Derive *jumentis, ventitant, vectigales, tridni, simulaverant*.

(7) Mention any peculiarity of *comptures, reverti, audent, vim*.

(8) Give the corresponding singular or plural forms of *incertis rumoribus, quaque re, summi laboris equestribus procliis, omni hoc itinere, generis, ejusdem*.

IV.—Translate into idiomatic Latin :

1. Our reason for remaining so many days in this place is that owing to the want of boats we have not been able to cross the river.

2. Let us cross the Rhine into their territories before they can collect their forces to prevent us.

3. Fearing this, we sent forward a few horsemen to learn what the enemy were doing.

4. The same night one of the scouts informed Cæsar of the approach of an immense host of Germans.

5. The year following, in the consulship of Balbus and Cato, the tribes that inhabited this region were driven out by the Germans.

6. To fight on horseback, to reach the town, to live mostly on milk and eggs, to remain at home the rest of the summer, not to be in accordance with my custom or that of the Roman people.

EXERCISES IN ENGLISH.

1. Which of the following forms is correct ?

(a) One of our boys fell in (off) the dock yesterday.

(b) There's a boy who (whom) you might suppose would be able to do it.

(c) It is one of the worst cases that has (have) come under my notice.

(d) I'm not a man that will allow myself (himself) to be imposed on.

(e) I've often wished that it were (was) possible to do that.

2. Point out any misused words and substitute proper ones.

(a) I have every confidence in his honesty.

(b) The whole of the boys were kept in this afternoon.

(c) It seems funny that no one thought of looking there.

(d) They all seem bound to make trouble.

(e) You have as much right to be punished as I have.

(f) Where did you make the raise of that edition?

3. Point out any thing faulty in the following sentences and make the necessary changes :

(a) If any one that don't understand how I got that will raise their hand, I will go over it again.

(b) We guarantee to execute any work that may be entrusted to us in a satisfactory manner.

(c) I hope you will be able to find out from someone what sort of a place it is before we get there.

(d) It looks sort of suspicious that neither of them were at school this afternoon.

(e) Our prices will be found as low if not lower than that of any other firm for good work.

(f) There ain't one of the boys I don't believe but what has been to some of the meetings.

(g) Wholly absorbed in the study of his books and specimens we saw but little of him during the session.

(h) Ordinarily I dare say one chairman wouldn't but venture to arbitrarily interrupt a speaker in that way.

4. State if you can the distinction between *by* and *with* and apply your answer to fill the blanks in the following :

(a) I was struck—a remark that he made.

(b) I fear it will be attended—serious consequences.

(c) They were surrounded—enemies.

(d) She seemed overcome—grief at the thought.

(e) They were soon overwhelmed—the waves.

(f) They were evidently impressed—importance of it.

(g) He had been wounded—an arrow.

(h) We were attracted—the beauty of the surroundings.

(i) The words are accompanied—the music.

(j) We were encouraged—these signs.

5. State, if you can, the principle which determines the use of an adjective or an adverb after such verbs as *look, feel*, etc., and illustrate your answer by sentences in which the following are used correctly, 'Feel keen (keenly),' 'Looked pleasant (pleasantly),' 'Smells suspicious (suspiciously),' 'Tastes sour (slightly),' 'Kept cool (coolly),' 'Turn cold (coldly),' 'Prove correct (correctly).'

And yet, dear heart, remembering thee,

Am I not richer than of old?

Safe in thy immortality,

What chance can reach the wealth I hold?

What chance can mar the pearl and gold

Thy love hath left in trust with me?

And while in life's late afternoon,

When cool and long the shadows grow,

I walk to meet the night that soon

Shall shape and shadow overflow,

I cannot feel that thou art far,

Since near at need the angels are;

And when the sunset gates unbar,

Shall I not see thee waiting stand,

And white against the evening star,

The welcome of thy beckoning hand?

—Whittier's *Snow Bound*.

1. Classify, and give the relation of the words, *remembering, safe, long, shape, near, waiting, white, welcome*.

2. Classify the following phrases and give the relation of each: 'of old,' 'with me,' 'in life's late afternoon,' 'at need,' 'against the evening star.'

3. Write out in full, classify and give the relation of the clauses to which the following words belong, 'safe,' 'hath left,' 'grow,' 'near.'

4. Select (a) all the compound, (b) all the derivative, (c) all the inflected words in the passage.

5. Point out and name any figures of speech.

6. Point out any words that you think are not of native origin.

7. Select any four verbs and show by reference to their use in this passage and by using them in other sentences that the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not a permanent one.

8. Select examples of (a) nouns used as adjectives, and (b) adjectives used as nouns

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1893,

HIGH SCHOOL PRIMARY.

ARITHMETIC, MENSURATION AND COMMERCIAL TRANSACTIONS.

Examiners: A. R. Bain, LL.D.; A. T. DeLury, B.A.; A. C. McKay, B.A.

1. (a) Find by the contracted method, correct to four places, 79384×5238 .

(b) Explain how to find the vulgar fraction which equals $.572$.

1. (a) 4 1581.

$$(b) .572 \times 1000 = 572.72$$

$$\frac{572 \times 10}{10} = 572$$

$$\frac{572 \times 990}{10} = 572.5$$

$$.572 = \frac{572 - 5}{990} = \frac{567}{990}$$

2. A bookseller deducts 10% from the marked price of his books, and after this has a gain of 25%. He sells a book for \$7.20. Find the cost price of the book, and what per cent. the marked price is in advance of the cost price.

2. 125% of cost price = \$7.20.

$$\therefore \text{cost price} = \$7.20 \times \frac{100}{125} = \$5.76.$$

Marked price = 110% of \$7.20 = \$7.92
 $\$7.92 - \$5.76 = \$2.16 = \text{advance of marked on cost price.}$

On \$5.76 advance is \$2.16.

" \$1.00 " " 37½.

Ans:—\$5.76. 37½%

3. Divide \$916.00 among A, B and C, so that 5% of A's share may equal 7½% of B's, and 12½% of B's may equal 20% of C's.

3. Suppose A's share = \$1.00.

then B's " = 66⅔.

and C's " = 41⅔.

\$916 divided in these proportions gives:—

A—\$439.68.

B— 293.12.

C— 183.20.

4. A buys 600 yds. of silk, at 95 cents a yd., and sells it at once, receiving in payment a 90-day note for \$700.00, which he at once discounts at a bank at 6% per annum. Find the gain.

4. 600 yds @ 95 cents a yd. = \$570.00.

Present value of \$700.00 due in 90 days, allowing 6% per annum discount.

$$= \$689 \frac{109}{365}$$

$$\text{Gain} = \$689 \frac{109}{365} - \$570 = \$119 \frac{109}{365} \text{ Ans.}$$

5. (a) A man has the choice of loaning his money at 7½% Compound Interest, or at 8% Simple Interest, money and interest to be paid at end of 3 years. Show which is the better investment.

(b) A man rents a farm for 2 years at \$441.00 per annum, the rent for any year being supposed to be paid at end of that year. Money being worth 5% per annum, Compound Interest, find what sum would now pay the two years' rent.

5. (a) Amount of \$1 for 3 years @ 7½% Compound Interest = $(1.075)^3 = \$1.241 +$

Amount of \$1 for three years @ 8% Simple Interest = \$1.24.

∴ Compound Interest at 7½% is better.

(b) \$820 would now pay the two years' rent.

6. A man invests \$6000 in 5% stock at 120; at the end of one year, having just received the yearly dividend, he sells at 121½. How much better off is he than if he had loaned his money at 5% per annum?

7. A starts to walk from P to Q at the rate of 4 miles an hour, and one hour afterwards B starts from P and overtakes A in 4 hours. Walking on, B arrives at Q 2 hours before A. Find the distance from P to Q.

7. B gains 4 miles in 4 hours, or 1 mile in 1 hour. A walks 3 hours longer than B, in which he walks 12 miles. ∴ B must walk for 12 hours altogether, or 60 miles.

8. (a) The sides of a triangle are 40, 45, 50 feet respectively. Find the length of the perpendicular from the vertex to the side 45 feet.

(b) A road runs round a circular pond; the outer circumference is 440 yards, and the

width of the road is 20 yards. Find the area of the pond.

$$8. (a) \text{ Area of } \triangle = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{27.5 + 17.5 + 12.5 + 67.5} = 284.97 +$$

$$\therefore \text{ Length of perpendicular} = \frac{2 + 284.97}{45} = 12.66 \text{ ft.}$$

$$(b) \text{ Diameter of outer circle} = \frac{7}{22} \text{ of } 440 = 140 \text{ yards.}$$

$$\text{Diameter of inner circle} = 140 - 40 = 100 \text{ yds.}$$

9. A spherical shell, internal diameter 14 inches, is filled with water. Its contents are poured into a cylindrical vessel whose internal radius is 14 inches; find the depth of the water in the cylinder.

$$9. \text{ Cub. conts. of sphere} = \frac{4}{3} \text{ of } 7^3 \times \frac{22}{7} \text{ c. in.}$$

$$\text{Area of base of cylinder} = 14^2 \times \frac{22}{7} \text{ q. in.}$$

$$\text{Dept.} = \frac{4}{3} \text{ of } 7^3 \times \frac{22}{7} \div \left\{ (14)^2 \times \frac{22}{7} \right\} = 2 \frac{1}{3} \text{ in.}$$

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

The poetry of John Donne, by Edmund Gosse, is an article interesting to students of English literature in the *Littell's Living Age* for Nov. 18. "Sir John" is a good story of Indian life in the same issue.

The *Overland* for December will be a specially good number.

"The Esquimaux Maiden's Romance" by Mark Twain and Walter Besant's "American Notes" are the articles which receive the particular mark of the publishers of the *Cosmopolitan* this month. Some English forms of invitation by Adam Badeau is hardly the kind of thing one expects to see in a high class magazine. One of the very best things in the issue is "Dealing in Futures" by Alice W. Rollins.

The *Quiver* announces excellent material for 1894. In December number two serials are begun, one of which, "Garth Garrickson," is specially good. There is a beautiful coloured frontispiece entitled, "Leaving Home."

Brander Matthews is to tell the young about American Authors, in *St. Nicholas* for 1894.

Rudyard Kipling is to contribute a story to the Christmas number of the *Illustrated London News*, which promises to be of special excellence.

"A Study for Colonel Newcombe" is a reminiscence article on Thackeray by Canon Irvine in the November *Eclectic*. "Weariness" and a "Garden in Stone" are among other interesting papers.

Fresh and beautiful with the spirit of Christmas expressed by evergreens on the cover is the December number of *Scribner's*. The table of contents gives one thrills of pleasure in anticipation. The "Bachelor's Christmas" by Robert Grant, "The Source" by Henry Van Dyke, "How the Captain made Christmas" by T. N. Page, are only a few of the many treats in store.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Macmillan's Classical Series. The Adelphe of Terence. Edited by S. G. Ashmore. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co., through the Copp, Clark Co., Toronto.) This is a good and serviceable edition; there is an introduction covering the necessary ground (Latin comedy and comedians, etc.); there are also full notes and a useful appendix.

The Epistles to the Colossians and to Philemon. Edited by H. C. G. Moule. (Cambridge Press.) This book is welcome. It is pretty evenly divided between text and notes, etc. The Editor's clear and sympathetic teaching, his illustrations, his references to recent books, etc., are satisfying and truly valuable.

We have received from the publishers, Messrs. Ginn & Co., of Boston, a capital textbook on the *Elements of Solid Geometry*, by Prof. Baker of Rochester University. The press-work is beautifully executed and the book is fresh, practical and convenient.

The latest issue of Messrs. Ginn & Co.'s *International Modern Language Series* is *La Prise de la Bastille* by J. Michelet. It is edited, with good notes, by Prof. Luquiens of ⁴¹⁰.

Hauff's *Das Wirthshaus im Spessart* is now issued in *Macmillan's Primary Series of French and German Reading Books*, edited by G. Eugene Fasnacht. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.) 3s. 6d. Excellent notes and vocabularies and a brief biographical notice are prepared by the editor. The simple and charming style of

the author renders his work very suitable for use in schools.

Messrs. Drysdale & Co., of Montreal, have just published Part II. of their *Progressive French Reader* (50c.), edited by Mr. Curtis, French Master of the Montreal High School and L. R. Gregor, B.A., Lecturer in German at McGill University. It is now three years since Part I. appeared, and the editors have evidently bestowed great care on the preparation of this reader. The selections are happily chosen; there are short poems, a few letters, and interesting extracts from Souvestre, Haus Andersen, Alexander Dumas, etc. The book is well printed and well bound and we have pleasure in drawing the attention of our readers to it.

A new edition of *Eysenbach's German Grammar*, revised and largely re-written by W. C. Collar, A.M., head master of Roxbury Latin School, has just appeared from the press of Messrs. Ginn & Co. The notes of the present edition have been abridged, and other parts of the book condensed, by Mrs. Curtis, and the selections for translation are omitted. We have now, therefore, a good abridged edition of the earlier book.

Public School Physiology and Temperance. Toronto: William Briggs. By William Nattress, M.D., M.R.C.S., Eng. (25c.) Dr. Nattress shall speak for himself. "The object of the author has been to put clearly before the teachers and pupils the leading facts concerning the structure and functions of the various organs of the body, and, at the same time, to associate with these facts the physiological actions and effects of alcoholic stimulants and narcotics. The pupil is, in this way, at every turn confronted with the evil effects of alcohol and tobacco, the dangers accompanying their use and the tremendous risk of tampering with such powerful agents of destruction."

Outlines of Rhetoric. By John F. Genung. Boston: Ginn & Co. It will be welcome news to many teachers of English that Prof. Genung has published an elementary Rhetoric. We are not disappointed in this book and we expected a good deal. The author devotes his attention first to the "Mastery

of Materials," and then to the "Organization of Materials;" there is also a very useful appendix of rules, etc. The latter are carefully presented in the book and enforced by examples and exercises. This book will be of much value in teaching composition and rhetoric.

Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine is one of our most valued professional exchanges. Among the articles in a recent number are: "A Few Notes on an Extinct Volcano at Montreal" by Henry Rampard; "Many Uses of Bamboo"; "A Hurricane off the Cuban Coast," etc.

Macmillan's School Library. "Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare." A very neat edition of this English classic, intended for supplementary reading, etc.

Moser: Der Bibliothekar. Edited with introduction and notes by Franz Lange, Ph. D., of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. London: Geo. Bell & Sons. This is the fourth edition of this text book. The introduction and notes are good. Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co.

The Mark in Europe and America. By E. A. Bryan, A.M., President of Vincennes University. Boston: Ginn & Co. This volume is an able and thoughtful review of the discussion on early land tenure. It presents a sketch of the history of the theory during the past forty years and will be found of considerable importance to students of economics.

We have referred more than once to the excellent *Guild and Bible Class Text-Books*, published by Adam & Charles Black (London), and edited by the Rev. Prof. Charteris and the Rev. J. A. McClymont. The editor of the new volume is Prof. Robertson, of Glasgow University, who has for his subject "The Old Testament and its Contents," and in spite of the restriction to very brief space, the learned author has produced a valuable book, moderate in tone, clear and interesting in style, and full of information.

A new and enlarged edition of the Rev. J. A. McClymont's *The New Testament and its Writers* has just been published by Messrs.

A. & C. Black. (3s. 6d.) This is really a new book, and it reflects the greatest credit on all who are responsible for it. The information here given in an accessible and interesting form could formerly be obtained only by consulting many books and expending much time and thought. From the Frontispieces (photographic fac-similes of the original MSS., among which it is interesting to see one of the Lewis Codex) to the Appendix (Note on Patristic Literature), the book is full of good work, and we hope it will have a large and increasing circulation.

Students of the history of the French in North America will be interested in Mr. Wallace's book on *The History of Illinois and Louisiana under the French Rule*, recently published by Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati. There are biographical sketches of Cartier, Champlain, Frontenac, Marquette, La Salle and many others, which are interesting and valuable, as are the brief accounts of the old French towns and villages in Canada and the Mississippi valley. There is a good index.

Macmillan's History Readers, "The House of Hanover." (1s. 6d.) This is the seventh and last of this excellent series of historical reading books. It is well written and well annotated.

Practical Elocution. Fulton & Trueblood. Boston: Ginn & Co. This is a very complete professional work on elocution, which attempts to harmonize the chief systems at present used in schools and colleges. A great many examples are carefully presented.

We have received from the publishers, Messrs. Warwick Bros. & Rutter, "Patriotic Recitations and Arbor Day Exercises." Probably our readers have already seen several reviews of the book, and we must content ourselves with a few brief remarks on its plan and contents. It consists of four parts, the first of which contains a series of talks on public affairs, national holidays, and civic duties, as suggestions for informal conversations conducted in the class. The second and third parts are devoted to selections in prose and verse of a patriotic char-

acter, and the fourth part is on "Arbor Day."

Another edition of the book may shortly appear, in which doubtless all the errors which have escaped the proof-readers of this edition will be corrected (vide p. 138, "Such is not the feelings").

Some of the poetical selections should be omitted in a second edition. Even if they are written by respected citizens, they are not of "high literary merit." (Can any one, for instance, scan this "verse"—p. 109, "Canada wants independent men, men who.") The editor will find many better poems in newspaper files from March to September, 1885.

To teach our children to love their country is one of the noblest duties of parents and teachers, and indeed of all Canadians, and therefore this book has our warmest approval. We are glad that it has been compiled by the Minister of Education. We do think that it would have been better to have put more patriotic selections in our Readers, and then the book would not have been so much needed. Needed it is, e. g. : A country public school teacher asked his highest class, seven in number, this session, how many of them were in favor of annexation, and six of them held up their ignorant hands. It is difficult to say whether this reflects most credit on the teacher, the children or their parents!

Let all our homes, schools and churches teach our children how great Canada is, and how dear she ought to be. Are we waiting for war or some other fearful judgment to teach us the value of our inheritance in the greatest empire the world ever saw. And are we too blind to observe what every year more plainly shows,—all that we are saved from by not forming part of the American Union?

Second annual report of the *Children's Aid Society of Toronto, with Children's Protection Act.* 1893.

Little People's Reader. By Georgia A. Hodskins. Boston: Ginn & Co.

High School Laboratory. Manual of Physics. Boston: Ginn & Co. Three gentle-

men, teachers of Physics in the Chicago High schools, have prepared this book, which is intended as a text-book for the inductive method of teaching physics, and also to provide sufficient laboratory work for matriculants. The topics are well arranged and the experiments interesting and admirably described. Science teachers will find the book a good one.

My Saturday Bird Class. By Margaret Miller. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. An excellent "Nature Reader" for young children.

Twelve years' Queen's Scholarship Questions. 1891-1892 (3s. 6d.) London: Mofatt & Paige.

Supplementary Music for Schools. Nos. 28-37. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Inorganic Chemistry for Beginners. By Sir Henry Roscoe, F.R.S., D.C.L., LL.D., M.P., assisted by Joseph Lunt, B. Sc. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. Intended as a first book in Chemistry, the elementary principles are here very fully treated and simply explained.

The second number of Messrs. Ginn & Co.'s Ethical Series is *The Ethics of Hegel*, by Dr. J. M. Sterrell. We have first a biographical sketch, then an account of the relation of Hegel's ethics to previous ethical thought, an exposition of Hegel's ethics, and an abstract of Hegel's introduction. The volume proper consists of translated selections divided into three parts. I. Abstract Right. II. Morality. III. Ethicality. Dr. Sterrell has performed his difficult and important task with fidelity and success.

We have received from the publishers, Messrs. Ginn & Co., of Boston, a copy of *Carbhart's Field Book*, beautifully executed, containing all the necessary tables for field use, and a great many fully explained problems. The matter is systematically arranged and easy to find. The book will be found exceedingly useful and convenient.

Another volume of French prose from the press of Messrs. Ginn & Co. consists of a number of essays and articles on scientific subjects. The volume is edited and annotated by Prof. Luquiers of Yale.

Polyeucte. By Corneille, with introduction and notes by E. G. W. Brauholtz, M. A., Ph. D., Cambridge: University Press, pp. xv. + 184. (2s.) The present volume is the sixth in the series of 17th century Classics edited by Dr. Brauholtz. The notes are full and scholarly, and about equal the text in volume. The text is preceded by an outline of Corneille's life, an account of the origin of the plot, and an explanation of the prosody—a valuable feature. The print and general style of the book are unexceptionable. It is an important addition to available university texts.

Jeanne d' Arc. By Lamartine, with introduction and notes by Rev. A. C. Clapin, M. A., Cambridge: University Press, pp. viii. + 112, new edition. The story of Jeanne d' Arc is one of perennial interest to the youthful mind, characterized as it is by so many elements of the romantic and marvelous, while Lamartine is an author whose style will always have a certain charm of elegance and finish for readers of French. The text is of such a length (pp. 70) as to be conveniently read in a year in classes. The introduction is biographical and historical, and the notes are brief but adequate. There is an index of proper names, and two excellent maps.

Charlotte Corday. By Ponsard, edited by A. R. Roper, M. A., Cambridge: University Press, 1893, pp. xiv. + 184. (2s.) "Charlotte Corday," the editor observes, "is a sort of compromise between the classical and romantic schools of French drama." It is certainly a privilege to the advanced student to have elegant, thorough and cheap editions, such as the present one, of the landmarks of French literature. The introduction is biographical (of Ponsard), historical and critical. The notes occupy 47 pp. The numerous allusions to the events of the Revolution are clearly explained.

Picciola. By Saintine, edited by Rev. A. C. Clapin, M. A., Cambridge: University Press, pp. 232. (2s.) This book won in its day the *Montyon* prize of the French Academy. It is a story of prison life, full of interest and sentiment. In moral tone it

is quite suitable for young readers. The present edition contains a good biographical sketch of Saintine, a map of the scene of the story, brief notes (many of them merely translations of words and phrases), and an index.

Das Wirthshaus im Spessart. By Hauff, edited by A. Schlottmann, Ph. D. and J. W. Cartmell, M. A., Cambridge: University Press, 1893, pp. x. + 292. (3s. 6d.) There is probably no better reading material for beginners than the stories of Hauff. The present volume contains four tales, making altogether 186 pp. The type is beautifully clear. The notes are judicious, and not too full.

Maria Stuart. By Schiller, edited by Karl Breul, M. A., Ph. D., Cambridge: University Press, 1893 pp. xxxii. + 272. (3s. 6d.) The introduction contains a life of Schiller, the history of the play, its form and contents and a detailed analysis. The notes, occupying 100 pp., are mainly linguistic, though there is a judicious sprinkling of literary references and parallels. In notes it is rare to find such thoroughness coupled with the absence of pedantry, as in this case. The appendices contain variant readings and a very full biography. A full index and genealogical table of the Tudors and Guises complete the volume. The mechanical execution is as near perfection as can be desired. On the whole this is the best edition of this tragedy which has come under our notice.

Thirty Years' War. By Schiller, edited by Karl Breul, M. A., Ph. D., Cambridge: University Press, 1892, pp. xxxii. + 194. (3s.) The Third Book, comprised in this edition, describes perhaps the most dramatic episode of this famous struggle, and ends with the triumph and death of Gustavus Adolphus. Schiller's historic writings are solid reading, and, if properly studied by advanced English students of German, are admirably calculated to extend their knowledge of German, and at the same time to improve their English prose. The introduction of this edition gives the reader a clear idea of the position of Book III. in the whole work. The appendices contain extracts from Wallenstein, and a pretty complete biography. An index to the notes completes the volume. In general style and scope the editing is much like Breul's edition of *Maria Stuart* and deserves like praise.