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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

FOR THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

THE ANNUAL SCHOOL MEETINGS.

Last Monday in September
 THE ~~third Monday in the present month~~ is the day on which our School Law requires the annual School meetings to be held in all the School Sections throughout the Province. To the friends of Education, and for our Public Schools, the day above named is one of much interest, as the deliberations and decisions of those School meetings must assuredly be for good or harm.

The following is the usual order of business in these meetings;—1st, to elect a Chairman; 2nd, to elect a Secretary; 3rd, to elect new Trustees, or a new Trustee, as the case may require; 4th, to receive the Report of the Trustees; 5th, to determine, by vote of a majority of rate payers present, the amount of money to be raised by the section for the ensuing year.

We shall make a few remarks on some of the points in the above outline. After the organization of the meeting, the Chairman being in his place, the meeting will proceed to the election of a Secretary. In this duty the Electors should exercise mature judgment and sound discretion, and inasmuch as an accurate record of the business of the meeting is to be handed to the Inspectors for the County, and may become the basis of future action, the record of the meeting should, as far as possible, be correct and intelligible, that, when consulted, the will of the meeting may be well understood. With a view, therefore, to this desirable accuracy, the meeting should elect for Secretary, if one such is eligible, a person of honest, business-like habits, able to make a correct minute of the business of the meeting, and to record its decisions.

The presenting of the report of the Trustees for the year now expiring will be the next business in order; and it is presumable that this report has been prepared with careful attention to all the requirements of the sections, and that it places before the rate payers a detailed account of the expenses of the past year, so that every man may understand how school matters stand. Not unfrequently confusion, almost without remedy, results from the negligent and inaccurate manner in which Trustees prepare and present, in their report, the business of the Section. Rate Payers are not generally satisfied with reports of business which they do not understand, doubts insinuate themselves, and the suspicious mind is prepared to believe that confused statements were purposely confused, to conceal fraud. The report should, therefore, be as distinct and definite as possible, going into all necessary details, and making an honest and open exposure of the whole interest of the school. Attention to this, we are persuaded, will prevent a large amount of needless debate, loss of time, and sectional partyism. Trustees should feel it a duty, owed to the section, to look well to the suggestions now made, and the intelligent rate payers should, as an imperative duty, insist in having from retiring Trustees, an explicit statement of the whole income and expenditure of the year. In this way the Section will understand its position, and have a fair opportunity for making provision for future success.

The choice of Trustees, or of one Trustee, will probably be the next business in the School meeting. Among rate payers the question is frequently heard, who shall be Trustees? and the inquiry is one of no little value to the School interest. Judging from the actions of some few sections, we fear that not a few individuals answer this interrogation by replying, "any one at all no matter who." In some few instances opposition to the School Law is a qualification of some value. Alas for the Section where such is the case! Who should be Trustees? Who should not be? Enemies to the School Law, the indifferent, the indolent, or evading friends, are by no means, if escape from such is

possible, to be exalted to the responsible and honorable position of Trustee. From such, the friends of education can expect nothing but obstruction, and during their term of office, the interest of the section will know only neglect.

If a stern, determined, uncompromising conflict in a school meeting is admissible, it is when a party hostile to the interest to the school, or with a view to impede progress, attempts to force unsuitable men upon the Section, as Trustees. Opposition, then becomes the duty of every man who values the education of his children. Be assured that enemies, or indifferent men will not—cannot, exercise a fostering care for the interest they assume to encourage and protect. If there is an intelligent, clear headed, and sound hearted friend to education in the Section, we urge you by all means, to draw forth all possible influence and give all your strength to have such an one elected Trustee. The effort you make to accomplish your purpose, the object being secured, is well made and will be amply repaid. In placing the School interest in such hands, you express your estimate of honest intelligence, and have, in the character of the Trustee you elect, a guarantee for deserved success. The influence of such Trustees will appear in all School matters, and the wisdom of the choice will be profitable to all. The necessity of having for Trustees the best and most intelligent friends of our School System ought to impress itself deeply on the minds of the people, for as yet a few enemies of our School System lurk in the ranks of friends, ready at any time, to lay unhallowed hands upon this essential appendage to the progress and elevation of our Country. And what a field of usefulness is presented to Trustees interested in the work to which they are appointed? Whether we regard it in its progress or contemplate the future labors, we fail not, to perceive every motive proper to excite a generous mind to honorable activity. As Trustees they are carrying forward and giving increased momentum to agencies which in their results can never cease, and which from their very nature will gather increased force, and have a widened range for good, to be enjoyed in other years and by coming generations.

Who are to vote? The chairman, it is expected, will be sustained in his enforcement of the law which we submit.

SECTION 2ND OF THE AMENDED ACT.

"2. On depositing with the Secretary of Trustees, previous to, or at any annual School meeting, the sum of one dollar, any person liable to pay such poll-tax, though not rated in respect of real or personal property, shall be qualified to vote in the election of Trustees at such meeting, and at any other meeting held for the election of Trustees within a year from such deposit, except the same be refunded as hereinafter provided, nevertheless, that a majority of the Trustees shall be persons rated in respect of real or personal property. Money deposited as above shall be refunded on demand in every case where no assessment is authorized by such meeting; otherwise it shall be retained as payment of the poll-tax of the depositor."

From the above it will be seen, that any person paying a poll-tax of one Dollar, as well as any person paying tax on property may vote for Trustees, thus the law wisely gives young men for the small tax of one Dollar, the privilege of voting on one of the great interests of their country. Though they may have no property they are made, in the exercise of this privilege, to realize that they have a country, and are recognized as identified with its best interests, and are holding and exercising with those around them the dignity of a common manhood. We regard this fact as a most valuable feature in the present School Law. It is not so much the worth of a dollar. The country can live and advance without this; but will do badly without just that manly influence and power, which young men exercise and cultivate, when by vote they assume the valued and inalienable birthright of Englishmen. There is

moral beauty in seeing young men, though as yet they may have no free hold, taking an active interest in education. Mark such, they will be men for their country's good ere many years have fled. It is difficult to imagine a young man of real worth, willing to ignore his position as a member of a community and with the sordid motive of saving one dollar, sinking all his conception of manly dignity into selfishness. Find a Section where the young men value the privilege of a vote on educational matters, and cheerfully and promptly pay their poll-tax, and that Section has a bright and prosperous future. Education and the accompanying blessings will there thrive and bear fruit, as a luxuriant tree, in its own native soil.

Another important duty devolving upon the annual meeting is the voting of a sum of money for the ensuing year. When this question is up, the meeting should labor to have a distinct and intelligible prospective view of the year for which provisions are now to be made. Several considerations must be presented, and honestly deliberated upon, if the incoming year is to be one of progress? There is the School House, is it sufficiently ample for the Section? Is it warm? Is it ventilated? Are its surroundings such as they ought to be? It is hard for the Trustees to carry on a School in an insufficient House, and for children to love their school and be interested in its exercises unless they are warm and otherwise comfortable. The meeting should look to this part of the Trustees report, for it is to be expected that the retiring Trustees will report upon the state of the premises, and if improvements are required, recommend a generous appropriation of money. Are there Books in the School? We mean books which are the property of the Section: upon this also the Trustees should report, for in a strict construction of the School Law, a Section not supplied with books for free use is not entitled to a participation in the grant. This part of the law has not been enforced, there however should be a constant approximation to this provision. We have heard of an instance where a Teacher obtained books at the reduced price, and sold them to the pupils at a small profit for his own benefit. We hope such violations of Law are rare, but Inspectors and Trustees should unite to guard this part of the Law from such abuse. The Books which Mr. McKinlay is authorized to sell at reduced prices, are, when purchased, the property of the School Section, and the affidavit required can be appended only when so purchased. Trustees should therefore be guarded in their transactions. The supply of Books should be well understood, and the annual meeting is the proper time and place for its consideration, and when the requirements of the Section are known, the meeting will, it is hoped, make a liberal appropriation.

An important matter yet remains for deliberation. The Teachers and the Salary. These two thoughts naturally associate. A good Teacher and a low Salary, or a good man and poor pay, are expressions the compatibility of which one fails to discover. Consider the work required of the Teacher, his relations to the children's future position in life, the power placed in his hands; and at once the generous heart is prompted to act liberally. All our feelings constrain us to urge the Teachers' claim. If they are incompetent do not have them at any price, but if otherwise, and are faithful to their trust, sustain them well, for good Teachers are blessings in the community where they labor. By all means, if you are resolved upon a good School, vote a generous support.

From the above suggestions, it is apparent that the annual meetings for deliberating and deciding these important matters are such as demand the serious attention of the people. Associated with them are weighty interests, and the rate payers of the Sections should make such gatherings the subjects of previous thought,—the points for deliberation should be honestly debated and preparation for action made. If, however, from the past we contemplate the future, assurance arise that in the hundreds of meetings to be held on the 17th inst., the interest of Free Public Schools will not fail for want of vigor and decision on the part of friends.

Teacher, when tempted to speak in anger, remember this: one angry word may do what hours of patient toil can not undo.

THE MINUTE OF COUNCIL.

IN this Province, as in most places, the "Teachers of Schools" labor in their profession under many disadvantages. They are, in comparison with the members of other professions not more honorable, or as a rule less useful, perhaps, poorly paid. They can look forward to but little promotion; there are few judgeships, no woosack, in their profession to lure them on. Their work is not blazoned in the public places, nor shouted from the housetop, nor published in the daily papers. They labor in secret. No man can put his finger on the exact results of their work; it is intangible; you can no more find out its progress than you can find the process of the sunshine in the ripened fruits, or of the rainfall in the freshened fields. In silence and secrecy their work goes on in factories where, so to speak, the raw material of mind is worked up into shape and usefulness. Their's is a thankless work, too, in a great measure. The country pays them a reasonable sum for their services, but there is small sympathy in an act of parliament, and not much soothing flattery can be forced from matter-of-fact trustees. There would be some satisfaction for a teacher in feeling that his boys' hearts went out in loyal affection to meet his paternal care. But even this satisfaction is often denied him, and day after day he is forced to labor on in many cases among pupils who are utterly thankless, and who will no more yield any kindly return of thankful attention and patient study to his constant care than the rock will yield return of flour or grain to the rain or the sunshine. Besides all these disadvantages, teachers are a class to themselves, apart and distinct from all other bodies. There is no union among themselves, they have no communication with the teachers of other provinces and countries. They are matched and marked, ticketed, certificated, confined within limits as to spheres of labor and rates of remuneration, and they move as it were to the exasperating harshness of the music of an act of parliament. They have no power to alter the condition of their lives, except by changing their professions. They have not the same resources as other professional men who find it no difficult matter to transfer themselves to other countries. They find abroad the same unpleasant restrictions, the same narrowness, the same jealousy of each other. These are disadvantages which must, and do, weigh heavily on the lives of teachers. Their desire ought to be to get rid of some of them, to render the profession more liberal, to get united with each other at home, acquainted with other bodies and other associations abroad, to make the conditions of life as easy for each other as circumstances will allow of, setting aside or smoothing over so far as is compatible with good sense and credulity all minor differences and narrow jealousies, and cultivating that *esprit de corps* which so enlivens and elevates the body that is moved by it. To this good effect the Minute of Council published in the last number of this *Journal* seems to and does tend. It is a measure that is dictated by a judicious liberality and timely kindness on the part of the Council of Instruction, and that relieves the body of teachers from the possible reproach of being narrow enough to wish to exclude from the benefits a new system those who had labored with good effect, though in an irregular manner, under the old, and to confine within the limits of the Province the privilege of teaching in our schools, shutting out from that occupation any one who had not complied with the strict letter of our law, though he had complied with a possibly stricter law elsewhere. Old systems die hard: and never die all at once; life lingers long after usefulness has departed. Acts of parliament are remorseless in a relentless hand, but no government has ever used the power given them by an act of parliament in a relentless manner, when the system it was intended to destroy or supersede had still its roots among the people. This was, and in part is, the case with the present school law. The old system of things had become insufficient for our needs, and the new one was prepared and imposed upon the Province. It was an admirable system. It has done and is doing a good work for us; a work we cannot put our hand upon, but which we begin to recognize. But under the old system of schools there have grown up from youth to age a generation of men. They were useful and are useful, and so far as their labors went, give all the return that could have been expected from the conditions under which they labored and the pay that they received. The Council of Instruc-

tion have no desire to press upon these old servitors the yoke of a new act of parliament, the necessities of a new time. We would not fling an old postman into the gutters when his hands could not carry the heavy bags of these plethoric times, nor send an old policeman adrift because he could not compete with the athletic and beautiful beings who do us the honor to lounge at the corners and grace the public promenades for certain hundreds of dollars a year. And certainly the teachers of the Province would be justly indignant if the men who had grown old in the good service were oppressed and hindered in their work for the little term that remains. Such an act would be an insult to the Craft, to our Service. The Council of Public Instruction has therefore wisely decided to allow all who hold licenses under the older system to continue their work by exchanging the older licenses for new ones, and by presenting at the same time certificates of moral worth and successful labor in their vocations. This is wise and kindly. It inflicts no injury upon education. It shows thoughtfulness in public officers. It will commend itself to teachers in general who would be grieved to see any harshness practiced on their co-laborers in any rank. The Council have also decided to allow teachers holding licenses from other British institutions for the training of teachers to exchange, on petition and on presentation of proper certificates as may be seen, their licenses for licenses of a similar class in this Province, provided that such application be made within one year. This is approaching to the liberal provisions of the other professions. The legal profession admits the degree of any British college as a certificate of scholarship, entitling a student to an allowance of one year in his studies, and a barrister of Great Britain may practice in Colonial courts merely on application and presentation of certain certificates. The medical profession also allows physicians to practice under the diplomas of recognized medical colleges. This part of the Minute might even be made more liberal in the interests of the profession of teachers who would thus become in some respects less a sect than they are. The Minute will doubtless be received with favor by all the teaching body. They do not fear that they will be injured by the men of the old school, nor of any influence of strangers. The Minute is intended to be a benefit to men of the profession, and the profession will receive it as such. The government in approving of it have been actuated by a judicious and wise liberality.—*Com.*

MATHEMATICAL SCALE.

For the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, by A. M. CHISHOLM.

HOW to become acquainted with Chisholm's Mathematical Scale step by step.

Miscellaneous Problems that may be solved at one sitting on Chisholm's Mathematical Scale.

NOTE.—Set 100 on Index or F on the perpendicular of 80 on side A or top, (any other setting will give similar results according to data used).

TO MULTIPLY BY 8.

Assume 80 on side A as 8, then all or any quantity on Index or F multiplied by 8, will cut or be in contact with the perpendicular of the product on side A: Thus 8 times 9 = 72 on A and every other number or quantity on F will cut the product on A. But 90 (on F) x 8 should be read 720 on A, or if 80 x 90 the figures read should be 7200.

NOTE.—If 100 on Index or F be placed on the perpendicular of any number or quantity, on A similar and correct products will be obtained.

TO MULTIPLY BY A VULGAR FRACTION.

The denominator of a vulgar fraction should be taken on F or Index, and if correctly brought in contact with any perpendicular of less value on side A, it will represent a vulgar fraction. In this position of F we find that 50 on it cuts 40 = a fraction

of $\frac{40}{50}$ or $\frac{4}{5}$. Many others will now appear such as $\frac{60}{75}$ $\frac{64}{80}$ &c., &c., which are all evidently fractions of the same value; and any whole number taken on Index or F multiplied by any of these fractions will cut the perpendicular of the product on A: Thus 80 on F x $\frac{40}{50}$ or $\frac{4}{5}$ will give for product 64. But if the 80 thus

taken be assumed as 8 the product will read 6 and $\frac{4}{10}$ (but $\frac{4}{10} = \frac{2}{5}$) as the product of any quantity multiplied by a fraction either vulgar or decimal will always be less than the multiplicand. The product of any other number taken on F must now become obvious to the operator.

MULTIPLICATION BY DECIMAL FRACTIONS.

NOTE.—It may be remarked here that when the denominator of a vulgar fraction is brought in contact with the perpendicular of its numerator, as before directed, 100 on Index or F will always cut the perpendicular of a decimal of the same value: Thus when 50 on Index cuts 40 on side A, 100 on Index will cut the perpendicular of 8 or 80 on side A, which 8 or 80 is the decimal corresponding to $\frac{40}{50}$ or $\frac{4}{5}$; and so it will in all cases.—

Therefore multiplication by decimals is performed as in whole numbers: the different value in the product is indicated by the decimal point. Thus 9 on F multiplied by 8 will read 7. 2 on A, and 6 on F multiplied by 8 will produce 1. 8 on A, and 12 on F will in the same way produce 9.6 on A. It is presumed that this much will suffice for illustration in decimals.

DIVISION OF WHOLE NUMBERS.

Division being the reverse of multiplication, the dividend is to be taken on side A: its perpendicular traced to Index or F will cut the quotient thereon in whole numbers, and the remainder—if any—in decimal fractions, or the remainder may be reckoned from quotient on F, towards the perpendicular of the dividend on A.

EXAMPLE.

80 on A divided by 8 will cut 10 on F, or 800 on A divided by 8 will cut 100 for quotient on F, and also 90 on A will cut 11.25, or from 11 on F to perpendicular of 90 on A will be 2—the remainder in whole numbers.

100 on A divided by 8 will cut 12.5 on F, or from 12 on F to perpendicular of 100 on A will be 4—the remainder.

Division by a vulgar fraction is performed by placing the denominator on F in contact with the perpendicular of the numerator on A. Then the perpendicular of any dividend taken on A will cut the quotient on F.

EXAMPLE.

8 on A divided by $\frac{40}{50}$ or $\frac{4}{5}$ will cut 10 on F, or 80 on A will cut 100 on F, &c., &c.

NOTE.—Whenever F or Index is in a position for a vulgar fraction, it is also in a position for a decimal fraction of the same value, and its application is more convenient.

Division by decimals is performed as in whole numbers, except as to the placing of the decimal point in the quotient. To the learned there is no difficulty in the proper placing of the decimal point, but to the pupil it must be taught, whether using the "scale" or figures.

EXAMPLE.

(Index thus far still in the same position.)

1st. 8 on A—8 its perpendicular traced to Index will thereon cut 100 or 800 on A will quote 1000.

2nd. 7 on A will quote 875 on F, or 70 on A will quote 87.5 on F, or 700 on A will quote 8.75 on F, or 9 on A divided by 8 will quote 11.25 on F, or 10 on A will quote 12.5 on F &c., &c.

PROPORTION.

The juvenile pupil may not yet have observed that multiplication and division are proportions. The point has been disputed by eminent teachers till convinced of the fact that because one of the terms is a unit, it is suppressed as it makes no change in the terms. This we shall presently see.

NOTE.—The pupil must know that quantities on scales may be assumed to any extent. Thus 100 on F may be assumed as 1 or 10, or 100 or 1000 &c., and so also .01 on side A or B in like manner. Neither must it be forgotten that the position of F or Index has not been changed in all the foregoing operations, nor will it be changed until notice is given.

Case 1st. As 100 on F, assumed as 1 is to 80, assumed as 8 on side A, so is 9 on F to 72 on A, and so is 100 on F, assumed as 10 to 80 on A, and so is 110 on F assumed as 11 to 88 on A, and so is any quantity on F to a fourth proportional on A, and the same as multiplication by 8.

Again, as 8 on A is to 1 on F, so is 7 on A to .875—its fourth proportional—on F, and as 8 on A is to 10 on F, so is 7 on A to 8.75 on F, and as 80 on A is to 100 on F, so is 70 on A to 78.5 on F, and so is any number or quantity on A to a fourth proportional on F. And these are results obtained by multiplication by 8.

The foregoing may appear at first sight frivolous, but yet it is considered necessary as elementary training for the "scale."

Some teachers believe in a word and a blow, and the word is always a harsh word.

HAVE AN EYE UPON THE FOUNDATION.

IN a recent examination of candidates for admission to a high school, 142 were examined, and 118 of them admitted.

The examination in arithmetic fell under my own supervision. The paper comprised twenty questions and problems, the first of which was this; in the number 8,421, the 4 expresses how many times as much as the 2? Twenty-eight gave the correct answer, twenty times as much. Some of them gave it directly from inspection; but most of them obtained the answer by dividing, in a formal manner, 100 by 20. Two others obtained an approximately correct answer by dividing 100 by 21, the error, probably resulting from heedlessness. Thirty-two others gave for an answer, ten times as much, discriminating correctly in regard to the places of the figures, without regarding the difference in the figures themselves. Of the remaining eighty answers, not one indicated any knowledge of the fundamental law of numeration. The answers were various, and absurd as can be imagined. Thus; 2, 4, 200, 400, 360, 398, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, .2, .02, etc., many attempting no answer whatever.

The age of these candidates averages perhaps a very little short of fifteen years. Many of those who failed of admission will not return to school again. And many of those who were admitted, will drop out of school before they reach the last year of the course, to which alone arithmetic is assigned.

Who have no reason to suppose that this examination is peculiar. Other examinations may reveal facts equally startling. Here, then, is a large class of young men, who have finished their school education, ignorant of the very rudiments of arithmetic! Have they received from our schools all they are entitled to? Is it necessary that so many young men shall enter upon the practical duties of life so poorly qualified? Shall the boasted improvements in education always exhibit such disgraceful failures?

There is much said in these times about the disproportion of time spent upon arithmetic. That must give place, it is said, to one and another of the new subjects that are crowding into our schools.

In view of these facts, it becomes teachers, and all interested in education, to consider whether such results are satisfactory, or all that ought to be expected. If they are not sufficient, and not all that could be reasonably looked for or demanded, then the cause of the deficiency should be sought, and the remedy applied.

If the cause be found in defective methods of teaching, the remedy is obviously in the improving of those methods. If it be in the lack of time, then it becomes necessary to consider the relative importance of arithmetic, and those new studies which have been allowed to divide the time with arithmetic. If the cause be in the nature of the subject and of the youthful mind, then a majority of our scholars may as well despair of a competent knowledge of arithmetic, and devote their time to something that promise better results.

This question, doubtless, affords room for difference of opinion. But it is decided, I believe, by competent judges, among whom may be reckoned the late lamented principal of the Boston English High School, than whom no one would demand a better judge on this subject. In his lecture delivered before the American Institute of Instruction, in 1834, he says: the power of reasoning is an essential attribute of man, and if there be any department of human science attainable by all, it must be mathematics, since there is no other kind of reasoning, in which the data are so well defined, the steps of the process so short and ultimately connected, and the result so perfectly satisfactory.

The authorities are ample, that though all minds are not equally adapted to mathematical reasoning, yet they are sufficiently well adapted to secure, with rational teaching and zealous learning, on the part of a great majority of those who graduate from our grammar schools, far better results than are shown in the examination here described.

Before it be determined that insufficient time is now allowed for arithmetic, it would be well for teachers to look well to their methods. It may be that their theory is faulty. It may be that they overlook something in the very foundation, or assume, contrary to fact, that the foundation, is all right; and thus it is, that the superstructure falls at the time of trial.

I was once sitting by a distinguished teacher, while he was conducting a recitation on the laws for scanning Latin poetry. As a scholar was repeating a rule in which the word *penult* occurred, I suggested to the teacher a doubt, whether the scholar knew the meaning of that word. Of course he does, answered the teacher. But on trial, it was proved that he and several others in the class were not possessed of that knowledge. The teacher was astonished; and doubtless has ever since looked more carefully to the foundation he was building upon. Had the teachers of those candidates been more careful to know that their pupils were well grounded on the laws of numeration, before permitting them to proceed blindly in the application of those laws in complicated processes, how much of the disappointment and mortification of both teachers and scholars might have been spared, and how different might be the future of many of those scholars.

It becomes those teachers who think the shortest way to get

their pupils into the High School, is to teach them the forms of knowledge only, spending little or no time upon the principles which underlie those forms, to consider whether they are consulting the best interests of those pupils, even if they should succeed in entering them to the High School. Scholars who enter the High School with barely sufficient rank to admit them, and that obtained chiefly from other studies than arithmetic, commence the study of algebra at a great disadvantage. The course of studies is arranged on the presumption, that the scholars, on entering, have sufficiently completed the grammar school course. What then shall be done with those scholars, who have not sufficient arithmetic to ground algebra upon? Shall the deficiency be ignored, and they be required "to deliver their tale" of algebra, and be charged with "idleness" or stupidity, if they complain of their hardship? Surely "they are in evil case," as many a teacher might testify. Or shall a teacher ignore the course of study, and, looking well to the foundation, teach algebra by beginning with the necessary principles of arithmetic? Will not the later course conduce, not only to the success of the teacher, but also to the success and happiness of the scholar.

A course of study, running through several grades of schools, fails of its object, unless the scholars pursuing it shall, to a certain degree, complete the several studies in their order. A deficiency here and there will be sure to cause disturbance in the succeeding parts of the course, especially when one study depends upon another, as in the mathematics. There is a duty devolving upon each individual teacher, to see that all is right in his part of the course. But no teacher should ignore the deficiencies of a subordinate teacher, and present the absurdity of attempting to build upon an insufficient foundation.

J. S. R.

COMMENCEMENT AT ACADIA.

A constantly increasing interest attaches to the public exercises which on the first day of each September mark the commencement of another college year. If there are none who hail with greater delight the coming of the much needed rest of a vacation than the hard working college student and professor, there are few who come back with greater pleasure to their appropriate labor. The return to a locality in whose splendid scenery nature has displayed so much of her matchless power to elevate and refine, the renewal of old associations, the welcoming of those who come in to take the vows of learning and fill the places left vacant by a year's progress, the presentation of prizes, and the annual oration, are matters possessing a pleasing interest to all, and which must hereafter form the subject of many welcome reminiscences to both student and teacher.

THE COLLEGE

commences this year with a larger number of students than it has had heretofore. We look upon this as a promise of that increased prosperity for which we so eagerly strive. Let us fully estimate the value of our College to us as a Christian body; let us realize the duty of sustaining it—the privilege of being engaged in a work which must be productive of such lasting benefits; let us be united throughout these three Provinces, feeling that Acadia belongs no more to Nova Scotia than to New Brunswick, to neither of these more than to Prince Edward Island, and we shall soon have within our walls double the number of students now in attendance.

There is one class of persons to whom especially the present time offers golden opportunities—our young men. More perfect communication, more general appreciation of the value of education, and especially the vast improvement in our Common School system, afford to those who have yet their lives before them advantages, the worth of which can hardly be overestimated. With youth and health, and the blessing of God which always attends worthy endeavor, any one who wills it may secure for himself that liberal culture which fits men for the higher positions of usefulness—always open to those who are prepared to fill them.

THE ANNUAL ADDRESS

was delivered by Dr. Crawley. Its subject—"Freedom of Thought"—was well calculated to exhibit the power which the reverend gentlemen possess, not only of understanding the many-sidedness of truth, but of helping others to appreciate it, and the nice discrimination and thorough mastery of his subject which enable him to free the name of so important a characteristic of manliness from the reproach brought upon it by misuse. It was an eloquent plea for intellectual independence, outspoken and honest, and at the same time reverent and teachable. The higher education deserves the name of liberal culture, because it stimulates the mind to that open investigation which is necessary to the fullest acceptance of truth. If we are to do battle successfully against the skepticism which takes the name of science, we must be prepared to oppose it with proof instead of dogmatism. The same is true of religious speculations. While there are many who receive the

truth, needing no other evidence than a sort of intuitive recognition of its excellence, there are others to whom it becomes necessary at some time in their lives to re-examine every stone in the foundation of their faith. Such enquiry should not be discouraged for, if honest, it must result in fuller appreciation of the great doctrines of Christianity, Especially are we, as Baptists, bound by the principles we profess, by our antecedents, educational and religious, to contend for religion and intellectual independence.

The manner in which Dr. Crawley's address was received by his audience, show that his students are well able to estimate at its true value the rare coinage of his vigorous mind. May he long be spared to us, to receive the honor due him for his valuable services, past and present, and the lively interest he shows in everything which concerns the well being of Acadia and its students.

THE PRIZES.

The President of the Associated Alumni—Prof. Jones—then presented the prizes. There were two Matriculation prizes, and two class prizes won last year, but not awarded. The successful competitors were, for the Matriculation prize, W. G. Parsons, and G. F. Currie; for the (last year) Freshman and Sophomore class prizes respectively, G. O. Gates and W. T. Pipes.

Dr. Sawyer then addressed to the students a few words of hearty, welcome to the pleasures and responsibilities of College life.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

PART ONE.

"Literature is the immortality of speech. It embalms for all ages the departed kings of learning, and watches over their repose in the eternal pyramids of Fame."

ONE hundred and ten years ago the Leviathan of Literature, Samuel Johnson, wrote: "The riches of the English language are much greater than they are commonly supposed," and the eleven decades that have since elapsed, have emphasized his words by the thousands of volumes, which writes in Old and New England have added to the stores he contemplated.

There has been much thought envolved from the English mind, and during the past twelve centuries, this has been recorded in the books of our language. Come with me into a great library. The volumes are arranged in accordance with the topics of which they treat. Over one alcove we read *Law*; over another *Medicine*; over another *Science*; and over another *Philosophy*. Does the literature of which we are treating include all of these volumes? We are told that it does not.

True, we speak, and very properly, of the literature of the law, of theology, of science; but when we speak of literature in general, we refer to something that is universal, catholic, and which appeals to man as man simply. We must, therefore, exclude from our idea of literature all which relates to the positive sciences. Such books appeal not to man as man, but to students in the pursuit of knowledge of a special sort. DeQuincey has well said that there is a literature of knowledge and a literature of power. The former fills the mind, the latter strengthens it. It is the latter which we propose to investigate.

The literature of power is neglected in our schools. Our plan—it was the plan of the Dark Ages also—is to rely upon the authors of Greece and Rome as the means to the development of mental strength. Let us not join in the hue and cry injudiciously raised against the classics as school studies. They must not be excluded. Our motto should not be "No Latin and Greek," but rather "More English." A thorough study of our native speech in its wonderful growth, fascinating literature, and composite derivation, affords a stimulating drill, and leads to comprehensive thought as well as to great delicacy of taste. "It is common," says Dr. Johnson again, to "overlook what is near, by keeping the eye fixed upon something remote," and this is what we are doing when we neglect our own literature to cultivate acquaintance with that of another land. Shall we not encourage our sons and daughters to wander over the charming fields of poetry, guided by our Chaucer, Milton, Shakespeare, Watts and Tennyson? Is it a small privilege for them to search out the different beauties of the prose of Bacon, Herbert, Addison, Johnson, Froude, Motley, Hawthorne and Teackeray? Aye, will not loving communion with the masters of thought and expression ennoble our children, strengthen their minds, and beget in them a praise-worthy ambition to develop their own resources?

Suppose we had in one room a series of thirteen alcoves upon the shelves of which were chronologically arranged specimens of the books written in England and America during each of the centuries since the year six hundred. The number of volumes need not be very large to give us a fair view of the whole of our best writers. Let us now, in imagination, look through this collection.

As we open the few antique volumes in the alcoves of the earliest dates, we find that we can scarcely understand them. The lan-

guage, the letters, the spelling and the style are all strange to us. Further examination reveals the fact that our literature, which has now attained magnificent proportions, has passed through many stages of growth, as well in regard to the subjects treated as to the style and spirit of its authors. To trace this growth and to enquire for its causes will be our interesting study.

Looking over one alcove after another, we are attracted by that one covering the period between fifteen and sixteen hundred, because the names of the authors and the titles of the books are familiar and intelligible to us. Not far apart we find the works of Shakspeare, Bacon, Edmund Spenser, Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Ben. Johnson, while near them is the Bible of King James, in the very words so familiar to-day. Standing before this alcove, we notice that the language of the books on one side is less and less like what we now call English, while those on the other hand are all written in the mature language of to-day, with but minor variations.

We are prepared to say that at some date between fifteen and sixteen hundred our language and literature were changed, or at least that one side they were in a state of immaturity, and on the other in a state of maturity. The year 1558 is a convenient one to use for the division, for it marks the opening of the brilliant reign of England's greatest queen.

We have, then, two grand divisions of our subject—Immaturity and Maturity. As the blooming peach in our orchard did not arrive at the perfection that so charms the eye and pleases the taste in a moment, but was ripened by the continuous rays of many sunny days, so our literature did not drop one form and assume another at once. Maturity in both cases was the result of growth as gradual as only to be appreciated in a comprehensive view of the process.

This view we shall get by examining the books in each of the divisions we have now made. Let us take the period of *Immaturity*. The first division we shall very naturally call the period of *Original English*. Writers have sometimes applied the term Anglo-Saxon to the language of this period, using a modern term by which it was intended to indicate the composite nature of the language. The term Anglo-Saxon was, however, not used at the period, and it has been shown by Max Miller and others of the highest authority that the language was English, and was so called by those who spoke it. The period of Original English may be said to end about the year 1150.

A new influence was exerted upon our language and literature after the conquest by the Normans. The introduction of a new social political and linguistic power resulted in a conflict between the English—which is a Gothic language—and the French—which is of Romanic origin. Thus many foreign words were introduced, the form of Original English was broken up, and we shall find it convenient to speak of the century between 1150 1250 as the period *Broken English*.

The natural result of this state of affairs was that learned men began to look upon English as an unstable language, and those who wrote used Latin, which was understood all over Europe. Thus for a century, our language, though still used by the people, was dead so far as literature is concerned. It has been called the period of stagnation, but it was stagnation that we notice in the seed before it appears above the ground. During the time England was severed from Normandy, the two races on British soil had become somewhat amalgamated, the universities of Oxford and Cambridge were chartered by Henry III., and the Magna Charta was signed by King John. Let us write *Dead English* over the period from 1250 to 1350.

The superficial student of English history will remember the revived national spirit that was so marked in the earlier years of the reign of Edward III., when the yeomanry were asserting their claims to liberty, and were using solid arguments upon the field of battle. The pages of history are marked by the names of Cressy and Poitiers which bring up the deeds of Edward, the the Black Prince and their yeoman soldiery. Literature was revived with patriotism, and among the writers are the poets Chaucer and Spenser, the translators of the Bible, John Wiclif and William Tindale, and the author of the Vision concerning Piers Plowman. This influence is apparent from 1350 to 1558, which we may call the period of *Reviving English*.

And now we have reached the beginning of the period of *Maturity*. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 caused the expulsion of many learned men from that city. Leo X., when he became Pope of Rome, and before that time, invited these men to Italy, where they established famous schools, and exerted an influence over all Europe. The period is known as that of the Revival of Letters, and we may call it, so far as our literature is concerned, the period of the *Italian Influence*. It was a time of progress in every department of human activity, a fact which will become apparent both to the student of the history and literature of the period.

There was all this time a strife in England upon religious topics. The Puritans had arisen and were earnestly inculcating their views. Their religious and political power increased until in 1649 they beheaded Charles I. in front of his own palace of Whitehall. Then for eleven years Cromwell and his partisans ruled the country. This strife and its result had a deep and lasting influence upon literature. On our book-shelves we find the works of Fuller, Jeremy Taylor, John Bunyan, Richard Baxter, and of

many more whose names and books are still green in our memory. We must write in distinct characters over this division, the *Puritan Influence*. This period extends from 1649 to 1660, but the Puritan influence was felt in literature both before and after those dates.

In the latter year Charles II, who had been luxuriating in the gay court of Louis XIV, was restored to the throne of his ancestors, and his bad example brought many dissipations into England. There was a sudden and marked change in fashions, morals and literature. The Puritans and their sober black dress were ridiculed. The theatres, which they had closed, were opened. Lady Castelmaine, Mrs. Stewart and Nell Gwynne presented examples of voluptuous sensuality, which the minor members of court circles were not slow to imitate. But literature was marked by the debasing writing of the comic dramatists whom Macaulay has held up to deserved obloquy, and much of the other literature was also sensualized. Still there was purity in the nation. When Charles II. landed on his native soil he was presented with a costly copy of the Bible, and, in deference to the better sentiments of his subjects, the royal hypocrite kissed the sacred volume, declaring that he loved it above everything else. Could he have paid a greater compliment to the true nature of the honest English heart?

From 1660 to 1700, however, example proved stronger than precept, and our literature, instead of being sober, manly, deep, and earnest, became frivolous, effeminate, superficial, and trifling.

The next change showed a state of affairs entirely new. The essays of Addison and his associates, addressed to the higher classes, appear to have begotten the newspaper addressed to the people. The son of a non-conformist butcher, who was, of course, shut out from the public schools and universities, obtained an insight of life and nature, and wrote for the people with boldness and acceptance. From the days of Daniel Defoe to the present time, the people have not wanted champions, nor have they been slow to assert their rights, and their influence is manifest in the publications from 1700 to the present time. Popular taste has not always made the same demands upon authors, and we shall be interested to trace the changes in the standard of literary excellence during this, which we may call the period of the *People's Influence*.

The years between 1700 and 1745 were those of the literary life of Alexander Pope, who attained a somewhat exceptional popularity. He aimed at elegance and finish in composition as good in themselves, and without being a truly great man or writer, his example made a mark upon the literature of the day. We may, therefore, speak of this as the *Age of Pope*.

The central light in literary circles in England from 1745 to 1800, was Samuel Johnson. He wrote with earnestness and force, and in a peculiar style, all of which characteristics he impressed upon much of the literature of the time. Let us call this the *Age of Johnson*.

The first generation of the present century saw a galaxy of poetical writers arise and flourish. They were influenced to some extent by the new romantic school of Germany, which aimed to overthrow the artificial and pedantic style, which effort was of beneficial influence. We shall call this the *Age of Poetical Romance*.

The year 1830 saw the downfall of Charles X. in France, and the death of the last of the Georges in England, and, during the years that have passed since, the advance of the world in freedom and material prosperity has been greater than in any former period of the same duration. This material progress has given tone to literature. We cannot now continue the discussion, and must be satisfied with the general remark that no department of letters has progressed so rapidly as that of *Prose Romance*, to which the original impetus was given by Sir Walter Scott in his ever famous *Waverley Novels*.

Let us now look over our shelves, and see how we have systematized the books on our shelves. The divisions are few and simple.

First, there are two grand periods of *Immaturity and Maturity*, corresponding with the stages of growth in the realm of Nature, which are marked by the year of Queen Elizabeth's accession in 1558.

In the first of these we found four stages of growth.

- I. *Original English*, previous to 1150.
- II. *Broken English*, 1150—1250.
- III. *Dead English*, 1250—1350.
- IV. *Reviving English*, 1350—1558.

In the second grand division we also marked four stages of growth, named from the influences by which they were caused.

- I. *The Italian Influence*, 1558—1649.
- II. *The Puritan Influence*, 1649—1660.
- III. *The French Influence*, 1660—1700.
- IV. *The People's Influence*, 1700—1870.

The last of these sub-divisions we found convenient to consider under its four aspects.

- I. *The Age of Pope*, 1700—1745.
- II. *The Age of Johnson*, 1745—1800.
- III. *The Age of Poetical Romance*, 1800—1830.
- IV. *The Age of Prose Romance*, 1830—1870.

These divisions are natural, and being in groups of four, easily remembered. Let us take them up one after another and examine them more minutely. The schedule we have delineated shall constitute the *prenotion* which Lord Bacon recommends every one to

establish at the outset of an investigation. "Without such an antecedent general apprehension," says Dr. Shedd in his *Philosophy of History*, "the mind is at a loss where to begin, and which way to proceed. The true idea of any object, is a species of preparatory knowledge which throws light over the whole field of inquiry, and introduces an orderly method into the whole course of examination. It is the clue which leads through the labyrinth; the key to the problem to be solved."

Let us keep our key in mind, and the labyrinth of literature will be plain and easily comprehended.

ARTHA GILMAN.

TEACHING.

THE criticism is frequently made in regard to our public schools, that there is but little teaching done in them. The school machinery is brought to a wonderful state of perfection, and run under a high pressure; but the production is simply so much text-book. A high class-average on a text-book examination is the end and aim of all school work.

That this criticism applied sweepingly to our schools is unjust we well know; yet there is some foundation for it. All acquainted with the general working of our school system know that much which passes for teaching is not teaching, and none know it better than teachers themselves, and none deplore it more than do many of them.

They who thus criticize are apt to charge this narrowness of purpose and lowness of aim upon the teachers. But it must be remembered that but few public school teachers are free to arrange the course of study for their schools, or free even to make the assigned course subservient what may seem to them the best interests of their scholars. They are parts of a system, and must do the prescribed work. Every city and large town must have its pyramid of schools, its sides sloping up from the primary through the grammar to its apex, the high. In cities large enough to admit of such regular gradation, this pyramid must be built up in steps; so many rise to the primary, so many to the intermediate and grammar, etc. Each step is built of so much reading, spelling, arithmetic; so much penmanship, grammar, geography, etc. Now, each must run evenly all round the pyramid; so the workmen assigned are so busy getting in the full amount of material in the given time, that they cannot pay much regard to the whole structure, or consider whether the material will hold well together. They do what is assigned them; and when the measure has been applied and the right elevation proved, they have performed their part, and are commended as good workmen.

Many as are the advantages of a finely-graded system of schools, there are some disadvantages. In developing a child into true manhood or womanhood, the division of labor cannot be wisely made so minute as in manufacturing a pin. However great the number of teachers, each should have the ultimate result in view, and superintendents and examiners who have authority to direct the work and pronounce upon its character, should be vigilant in detecting all sham work, and conscientious in approving only the true; else much evil as well as much good may come from our graded systems.

What is teaching? Let us illustrate. Take penmanship. Some years ago there appeared in Boston, one A. R. Dunton. He was a masterly penman, and understood the whole matter of penmanship, root and branch. He had a system of writing he wished to introduce into the schools. He called the teachers together and explained it to them; gave them a series of lessons to show them how to teach it; went into the schools and showed how to teach it to the scholars; and the consequence was a remarkable change in the condition of this branch of study in the Boston schools. Before, writing was practised in all the schools a stated length of time and a certain number of books used up. The copy was placed before the scholar, and he was told to work slowly and try to imitate that copy. Some having a natural gift in that direction succeeded pretty well, but most would write a very bad line under the copy and spend the writing hour in imitating that. In only a few schools was there a different state of things. It is evident that though there was much that was called writing practiced, there was very little teaching.

But mark the change. The teachers had found out there was an art of penmanship, its principles had been explained to them, they understood it, they were earnest and enthusiastic in regard to it. They no longer spent the writing hour adding credits or writing letters to their friends: but were at the black-board showing what was to be done, and how it was to be done, anticipating difficulties and showing how to overcome them; were going from scholar to scholar giving such individual instruction and help as was needed. This was teaching, true teaching. The result was marvellous. The teachers taught writing, and even the most unskilful scholars learned to write.

Again. Some months ago, a scholar in the second class of one of our city grammar schools was troubled and almost sick, because she had so many pages of history to learn. She had been absent on account of sickness, and was required to make up her lost lessons. The great difficulty was that she must recite all

these pages word for word. We inquired if her teacher usually compelled her class to recite in that way, and her answer was "yes." This mode of learning history was once quite common. In Dorchester, a very respectable gentleman of the old school came in one day to examine our class in history. His first question was in regard to the discovery of America. A scholar commenced to give an account of it. "Stop," he said, "let me find the place." That found, he put his finger on the line, and said "now, go on." We had to explain that the scholars had not learned the words of the book, but had sought rather the facts of history. He acquiesced at once; but such was not the method of study and recitation in his day.

Now, it is obvious that learning page after page of some historical text-book to recite verbatim, is not studying history; nor is simply hearing such recitation teaching history. Go into the alcove of the Boston Athenæum devoted to historical works, and as you look upon the long rows of books, one above another, consider what progress in history a scholar can make upon that old method! It could not much exceed that of a mouse which had commenced gnawing some book in one corner of the alcove.

But let the teacher understand history, be able to unfold the principles of its development, map out its great divisions, give an outline of its great facts, show how these may be associated and retained in the memory, awaken a desire to know in regard to important historical events, and indicate where in the assigned text-book or in other works the desired knowledge can be found, and he is teaching history, and putting his scholars in a position to avail themselves, if they wish, of all historical knowledge.

So of arithmetic, grammar, geography, and all branches of school study. Merely compelling scholars to learn lessons from books and hearing them recited is not teaching. It does not require a very high order of mind, nor much skill, to do that. It isn't worth the minimum salary paid in our most parsimonious towns. But teaching is opening up these subjects to young minds, calling the faculties of these minds into activity, removing individual hindrances, encouraging and directing. Not the text books are to be taught, but the subjects the text-books aim to set forth. The teacher therefore must be greater than the text book, and must understand the conditions and modes of action of the minds with which he has to do. The best there is in him will be taxed to the utmost to secure the highest results.—Cramped he undoubtedly is, and must be, in working out the part assigned to him in a carefully-arranged system, but he still may ever have the great ends of education in view, and so teach us to secure to his pupils the greatest ultimate good, rather than to enable them to get the highest per cent at the next examination for promotion.—*Mass'ns. Teacher.*

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

(From the New York Teacher.)

PERIOD OF ORIGINAL ENGLISH.

A DISCUSSION of our literature previous to the year 1558, involves the consideration of philosophy and the science of language, for, as has been observed, the earlier changes are more marked in the language, while the later growth is apparent in the organic nature of the literature itself.

The science of language, or comparative philology, is of recent development. The idea of using philosophy in philological studies had been expressed by Lord Bacon, but previous to the present century it had not taken a very firm hold upon the minds even of the learned. In 1605 Bacon divided Grammar into two parts—the one literary, and the other philosophical. He conceived the second to be a noble kind of grammar, and said that "if any one well versed in various languages, both the learned and vulgar, should treat of their various properties, and show wherein each of them excelled and fell short—thus languages might be enriched by mutual commerce, and one beautiful image of speech, or one grand model of language for justly expressing the sense of the mind, formed like the Venus of Apelles, from the excellencies of several." He said further, that words are the traces of impressions of reason, and argued that as impressions afford some indication of the body that made them, they are worthy of deep philosophical investigation.

In 1710, Gottfried Wilhelm von Leibnitz strongly urged the study of language upon exact scientific principles; and three years later suggested to Peter the Great that the translation of the Lord's Prayer, the Ten Commandments, etc., into the various languages of his dominion would increase his Majesty's glory, aid the study of language, and advance Christianity. But Leibnitz, like Lord Bacon, was in advance of his age; and it was not until two generations had passed that his suggestion bore fruit. At that time Catherine II. caused the publication of a comparative glossary of two hundred and seventy-two languages of Africa, America, Asia, and Europe. This awakened much interest, and the study of language has since been pursued upon more scientific principles.

A new impetus was given by Sir William Jones, one of the most remarkable linguists of his day. A thorough student of Oriental literature, he became deeply impressed with the value of Sanscrit as a guide to the scientific knowledge of many cognate languages. He asserted as probable that Latin, Greek, and the Gothic and Celtic tongues originated in it. In 1784 he founded the Asiatic Society, and from that time progress was very rapid in philological studies.

Sanscrit is the learned language of Hindustan, and has not been spoken for over two thousand years. Its name indicates that it is the polished language. It embodies the sacred Vedas, and, in the well-considered words of Maxmüller, exhibits the most ancient chapter in the history of the human intellect. Some of the fruits of this venerable tongue are presented in Furrar's *Families of Speech*. It has tended to counteract the too great devotion to classical studies. These had given the mind of Europe a one-sided and injurious development. It has further rendered possible the working out of a true philosophy of history, and has proved "that all those nations that have been most remarkable in the history of the past, and which must be all but universally dominant in the history of the future, sprang from one common cradle, and are closely united by identity of origin and similar of gifts." The languages in the class referred to are called Indo-European or Aryan, and to it belong the Sanscrit, Teutonic, Slavonic, Celtic, and Romanic tongues, each of which exists in various branches.

About forty years ago, Jacob Grimm laid the foundation for the historical investigation of language in his German grammar, one of the greatest philological works of the age. He also discovered what is now called "Grimm's Law" of the interchange of consonants in the corresponding words of the different Aryan languages. A simple example will suffice to show this change in the consonants. *Pitar* in Sanscrit became *fadar* in Gothic, *vadar* in Low German, and *father* in English. Nine hundred Sanscrit roots have been found thus appearing with similar permutations in the languages of Europe.

This hasty glance at the science of language must suffice for the present. Further study of it would make it more interesting, and would show its great importance in its literary, philosophical, political, historical, and religious relations.

Let us look over the languages of Europe. We find them in five classes:

I. The *Celtic*, which is now found only in the Highlands of Scotland, the wildest parts of Ireland, the Isle of Man, the mountainous regions of Wales and Cornwall, and Brittany. The Celtic in the early emigrations from the East, and their language, after having crossed over the continent of Europe, is now only found lingering on its extreme western border, where it is year by year losing its claim to be called a living speech.

II. The *Romanic*, which is found in Italy, France, Spain and Portugal. These all originated in the language of the ancient Romans, and exhibit evident traces of their Latin origin.

III. The *Gothic*, which exists in two divisions. The first includes the *Scandinavian* languages, among which are those of Iceland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden. The second includes *Frisic*, High and Low German, Dutch and English, which are called *Teutonic*.

IV. The *Slavonic*, of which the principal divisions are the Russian and Polish. This class of language covers a vast extent of territory in Europe, Asia, and North America.

V. *Uralic*, which is used by the Fins and Laplanders. It receives its name from the Ural mountains, and extends into Asia.

By looking on a map of Europe, we find that the migrations of the nations have pushed the *Celtic* language to the extreme western verge; that the *Romanic* are confined to the southern part; the *Slavonic* to the eastern; and the *Uralic* to the northern countries, while the great central portion is occupied by nations speaking the *Gothic* tongues. This distribution of languages is not an arrangement of man, but the fulfilment of a design which has governed the movements of nations for many generations.

The language which we use is described as belonging to the Teutonic division of the Gothic branch of the Indo-European tribe of languages, and the classification we have just made will show us that the description is a true one. We have already learned that the changes in English have been gradual; let us now remember that they not been radical—that the roots may be traced back pure and unmixed through Lower German and Gothic to their home in the birth-place of the Aryan language. Max Müller, probably the highest authority on this subject, says: "Not a single drop of foreign blood has entered into the organic system of the English language. The grammar, the blood, the soul of the language is as pure and unmixed as spoken in the British Isles as it was when spoken on the German Ocean by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes of the Continent."

We are now prepared to enter more particularly upon the study of the earlier expressions of our language. We find them in rude lyric poetry. To this class belongs also the *Rig-Veda*, the earliest of the Hindu writings, and the Book of Job, attributed to nearly the same period, is in Hebrew poetry. So, too, in France, there were the *troubadours*; among the Scandinavians were the *scalds*; the Greeks had their *rhapsodists*, and our forefathers took delight in the song of the *Gleeman*. The office of each of these classes was to publish literature. It is natural that the poetry should thus precede prose, because it expresses those sentiments which occupy

the uncultivated mind which is not prepared to confine its attention to the reasoning and discussions that, with equal naturalness, are committed to prose.

Let us imagine ourselves in one of the great festive halls of a thousand years ago. The Englishmen before us are ready to join in ale-drinking, and to hear the glee-man's song. The hall is well adapted to its use, being lofty and broad, with arched roof, having hearth-stones and great wood fires down the middle. We notice the gilded liquorvats, the benches for the warriors, and the dais for the chief and his thanes, and his wife. The appearance of the bard causes a temporary quiet, and we call upon him to recite our earliest epic poem. Taking an honorable position, he begins the romantic tale of *Beourelf*. He sings of the cruel devastations of a monster, Grim Grendel—how he came forth from the fens and the fastnesses, and killed the thane's boardsharers. Now, pointing southward, he tells of the sailing of a wrough-stem, foamy-neck vessel, bearing Beourelf and his chosen champions to the shore-cliffs and wide headlands of the north. As the stirring song progresses, we see the strong mendelark, their bright ring-shirts clanking and glistening as they come over the bulwarks to the beach. The reception by the warden, the march to the mead-house, the interview with the thane, and the festivities in his presence, the terrific combat between Grim Grendel whom no weapon could hurt; and Beourelf, whose hand-grip was that of thirty men—the conquest of the monster by the man—these and many other tales are told us; while the thrumming of the harp stirs the warriors, and causes our own hearts to beat responsive to the romantic stories of the prowess and chivalry of the early Englishmen.

Turning now from the ale-drinkers, let us look upon the sober inmates of the monastery of Whitby, which was in York, not far from the mouth of the river Erke. It is the voice of the humblest of the inmates that we hear, and this is what he sings:

"For us it is very right that we praise with our words, love in minds, the keeper of the Hosts, Glory-King of Hosts! He is the source of power, the head of all his great creation, Lord Almighty. He never had beginning nor was made, nor cometh any end to the eternal Lord; but his power is everlasting over Heavenly thrones. With high majesty, faithful and strong, he ruleth the depths of the firmament that were set wide and far for the children of glory, the guardians of souls!"

Let us listen as he continues, and tells of the creation, the fall of the angels, the fall of man, to the stories of the patriarchs, the incarnation, the ascension, and of the last judgment. Treating of satan, he gives us a version of his speech when hot thoughts welled within him, as he compared the narrow place of his punishment with the abode of beauty that he formerly knew, high in heaven's kingdom. Here are the words of the poet giving the supposed language of the arch-fiend:—

"That is to me of sorrow the greatest that Adam, who was wrought of earth, shall possess my strong seat: that it shall be to him in delight, while we endure this torment, misery in hell. Oh! that I had the power of my hands, but round me lie iron bonds. I am powerless! Here is a vast fire, above, and underneath! Never did I see a loathier landship; the flame abateth not, hot over hell. My feet are bound, my hands manacled, so that I cannot with these limbonds escape!"

We are reminded of John Milton, and his *Paradise Lost*, which was published only a few years before the paraphrase of Coedmon had a second time been brought to the eyes of the world.

The limits of this paper will only admit of reference to two more writers in the period of original English. Thus we shall by no means exhaust the fruit of the literary laborers of the age, because a very large portion was committed to the Latin language which it is not our province to consider. Latin was considered stable, and English was not used upon the continent. Whoever, therefore, wrote for a wide circle, or for other generations, was led to use the Latin language.

Literature in this period reached the highest point in the days of Alfred the Great. He was an author of merit who united to deep patriotism a strong love for the early national poetry. He learned Latin late in life in order that he might bring the works of classic authors within the reach of his people.

Among his translations are the historical works of the venerable Bede, some moral and religious treatises, and the Psalms of David. He was engaged upon the last when he died in 901. In a preface to one of his works, King Alfred says: "*When I thought how the learning of the Latin language before this was decayed through the English people, though many could read English writing, then I began, among other divers and manifold affairs of this kingdom, to translate into the English the book which is named in Latin Pastoralise, [and in English Herdsmen's Book, sometimes word for word, sometimes meaning for meaning, as I learned it of Plegmund my archbishop, and of Asser my bishop, and of Grimbold my presbyter, and of John my presbyter. After I had thus learnt it so that I understood it as well as my understanding could allow me, I translated it into English, and I will send one copy to each bishop's see in my kingdom.]"*

Notice that in speaking of his language and people, Alfred always call them English—never Anglo-Saxon. The latter term appears first in Asser's biography of Alfred, written about 910, and first published in 1564. The term *Angul-Saxonum* is not used to

express the union of Angles and Saxons, but to distinguish the Saxons of England from those of the continent.

The Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, or National Chronicle, which relates the history of Britain from Caesar's invasion to the year 1151, belongs to the period of original English. The student may be in danger of deriving confused impressions of its importance from the differing opinions which learned men have expressed of its value. Mr. Marsh apparently underrates it, calling it "a dry chronological record, not in the same lifeless tone important and trifling events, without the slightest tinge of dramatic color, of criticism in weighing evidence of judgment in the selection of facts narrated." Mr. Thomas Arnold considers it by far the most important prose work that has come down to us from the period, and Henry Morley gives it "the first place among authorities for early English history."

The National Chronicle is more full in its record of events after the year 853. It exists in several manuscripts, and it is probable that one writer transcribed and continued the narrative of his predecessor. Thus they not only recorded facts, but exhibited the gradual breaking up of the original form of the language in a most interesting manner. The earliest manuscript ends with the year 801. It is not all prose, but the writer incorporates occasional verse, as under date of 937 when he allows his feelings to break out in a rhythmical account of the "Battle of Brunanburh." This has been called the "Waterloo Ode" of the tenth century, in reference to its record of the most complete and bloody victory that King Athelstane gained over the combined forces of the Danes, Welsh and Scots. This poem is available for modern readers in a version to be found in "Freeman's Early English History for Children," published by MacMillan & Co., London. This song is attractive, apart from its historic and romantic interest, on account of the expressive words it contains. Among these are "ring-giver," "linden Shields," "Gods-candle," "trusting-place," "battle-stead," "war-bawk," "that grey deer the wolf," in the last of which we find an explanation of Shakespeare's line, "mice and rats and such small deer," "deer" meaning "beast," and being the "thier" of the Germans.

Let the student of this period turn to the splendid pages of Scott's *Ivanhoe*, and he will have spread before his enraptured view the old English feasting-halls, the pomp and picturesqueness of chivalry, thrilling pictures of life in its light and dark aspects, and he will mark, as some one has said, the tendency to fall into habits of indolence that inhered in the emigrants from the plains of Holstein, and the barren forests of Hanover, which all the stirring scenes of this warlike era could hardly counter-vail. Thus the pen of the master may cast a bright light upon the past which will scatter its mists, and bring to our view the real life of the early ages in our fore-fathers' homes. Thus the study of ancient letters will be enlivened by the realistic charms of the historical novel, the true English spirit implanted in our nature, and our minds will be expanded as this literature of power finds a welcome to our understandings and to our hearts!

We have now seen the beginnings of our literature. In the National Chronicle we observed some of its more substantial traits; in the epic of Beowulf we marked the breathing forth of the spirit of romance; in the labors of King Alfred we were pointed to its traits of patriotism; in writings of Cædmon that strong religious element which appears to underlie so much of the writing in our language became exultant and almost sublime; while in all of it we have been struck by a clear utterance, an elevated aim, a well-defined purpose, and a strong heart-power, traits which we shall be able to trace all down the centuries as we progress in our fascinating work!

ARTHUR GILMAN.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

THIS constant harmony between the state of education and the advance of science, is furthered in Germany, by the absence of anything like a curriculum. This is a very important point. There are, properly speaking, no chairs; there are only professors. The Faculty is not formed by the combination of a certain number of courses; it is a corporation of professors, who teach after their own fashion. In proportion as the sciences advance, not only are new men added to the Faculty, but each professor varies his instruction according to the tendency of the times, instead of being obliged to conform, even in appearance, to the announcement of a programme which was countersigned by a minister of state some twenty years before.

If he makes mistakes, if he follows the wrong path, the *privat-dozenten* are there; they will not fail in their own interest to supply any omission in the instruction of the professors. If a place is made vacant by the death of a professor, it is not thought necessary to appoint some plodding dullard to fill it, whose only merit is that he has religiously followed the beaten path. The Faculty does not bind itself to continue any of its courses. In the last six years, the Faculty of Philosophy at Berlin has had

to replace three ordinary professors, two of chemistry, and one of astronomy; it has secured a physician, a mathematician, and a palaeontologist.

The German system of education, thanks to this freedom of the professors, which is the very basis of the method, has acquired a multiplicity, variety, and adaptability which is far beyond the reach of the most enlightened and foreseeing central administration. Every branch of science, no matter how special, though it be the growth of yesterday, has the right of citizenship in the university, and invites students. We should like to give an entire list of the courses delivered during the last semester in one of the greater Faculties of Philosophy. There would be found all the natural, historical, and social sciences more or less fully represented, according to the interest of the times; the theory of micrometric observations by the side of post-natal Moliere's plays by the side of the monuments of the Trojan cycle. French civil law is expounded at Munich, Würzburg, Freiburg in Breisgau, Berne, and Heidelberg. Instruction is given in various ways. One professor comments upon a work he is about to publish, another simply describes a journey he has made. It is not unusual for a course on the literature of a foreign language to be held in that tongue, in French, Italian, or English. At some of the older Universities, the lectures are given in Latin. At Prague, there are some young *privat-docenten* who instruct in the Czech language.

Each professor holds generally two courses at the same time, or even three, for which he charges different fees. On the programmes they are styled *publice*, *privatum*, *privatissime*. The lectures *publice* are those for which the student has only the minimum fee to pay. These are the most numerous. The others are, if it is desired, a sort of conferences, or actual recitations, the price of which is sometimes higher, but which none the less are announced upon the official programme, and are often held in the rooms of the University. They are generally upon some very special point, or are of a more practical nature than the others. One professor may lecture in one of his courses on meteorology, and in the other on experimental physics. Bopp lectured *publice* on Sanskrit, and *privatum* on the comparative grammar of Greek, Latin, and German.

Very little importance is attached to the form. The lectures have no oratorical pretensions. The only care of the professors is to be understood. Some, in the great cities, have occasionally tried to break through the old academic simplicity by inviting the outside public. At Berlin, we saw an attempt of this sort on the part of DuBois-Reymond. On one evening of every week, the citizens of Berlin would crowd into the great amphitheatre of the University, which, however, does not contain more than 360 places. The students were few, the majority were men of a certain age, scientific amateurs, old students of the University, who were not sorry to be once more within the walls which had witnessed their youthful studies. The learned professor read his lecture, which he tried to make eloquent. It was upon the recent progress made in the department of biology—spontaneous generation, the antiquity of man, palaeontology, he treated of them all. This method of lecturing, of which one can form an idea from the conferences of the Sorbonne, save that there were no ladies present, and that no experiments were made simply to amuse the audience, was so opposed to the old University usages, that it could not fail to give rise to some slight feelings of jealousy. When the students saw this eminent physiologist discussing thus all varieties of subjects, they said, somewhat maliciously, that he aspired to succeed Humboldt. They said, too that these lectures, given before a public composed solely of amateurs, were of no use for the progress of science, and that DuBois-Reymond would have done better to leave the business of vulgarizing knowledge to those who had not advanced it, as he had done.

Nowhere in Germany are there large halls like those at Paris or in some of our provincial towns. The lecture-rooms are small, often inconvenient, and poorly lighted. In fact, the first corner one can find is good enough. Von Siebold, at Munich, lectures in the garret of the museum. A sort of intimacy is very soon established between the professor and his pupils by the very special nature of the lectures, and the small number of students who attend them. A few years ago, Ewald, the celebrated oriental scholar, at Gottingen, was confined to his bed by illness. He gave his lectures in his chamber. The students, seated around the bed, were busy writing, while Madame Ewald attended to her household duties. It is nothing uncommon for the lectures even *public* lectures, to be given at the professor's house. Five or six of us attended Eherenberg's lectures. He received us in his study, in the midst of his microscopes, his books, and his menagerie of infusoria bottled in tubes. We would talk about the last meeting, ask the explanation of some matter which would cause a long digression; in looking for one creature in the tubes, we would come upon another, and the lecture had to be begun anew; or else it was some obscure reference that had to be explained, and we rummaged through the library; and the result was, that with all their interruptions and irregularities, these lectures were most excellent and profitable.

This disdain of all show, and this simplicity, are not mere

matters of fashion; they are related to the very essence of German instruction. The professor teaches as he works; his courses are only an exposition of his method. He explores and shows how a subject is to be explored. It has been said that a German professor "works aloud" before his pupils; the phrase is very accurate. In France, our scientific professors confine themselves to showing the results that have been acquired. This is, moreover, the official method established by the existence of a programme for the lectures of the Faculty. Last year Herr Von Sybel, professor of history at the University of Bonn, criticised our system very sharply in an academic discourse upon German and foreign universities. He said: "In France, the teacher announces the results of researches which have often been very long and laborious, but he does not say a word to his hearers of the intellectual operations by which these results have been reached. In Germany, on the other hand, the endeavor is to teach the student the method of a science. The attempt is made, not to make him a savant, but to give him a clear idea of the problems of science, and of the operations by which these problems are solved." In a general way these remarks are well founded. His mistake is that he extends them to all French teaching. There are exceptions; we might mention courses at the College de France, which correspond exactly to Von Sybel's ideal. The professor has no programme; he teaches what he pleases, the most special subject or the obscurest question, and he seeks to enlighten himself as well as his hearers; his lecture-room becomes his laboratory while he is instructing. Instead of a great number of pupils, never to be found at a course of this sort, he has disciples, he founds a school. This is higher education in its loftiest aspirations.

GEORGE FOUCHET.

INCOMPLETENESS.

BY ADELAIDE PROCTOR.

Nothing resting in its own completeness;
Can have worth or beauty; but alone
Because it leads and tends to further sweetness,
Fuller, higher, deeper than its own.

Spring's real glory dwells not in the meaning,
Gracious though it be, of her blue hours;
But is hidden in her tender leaning
To the summer's richer wealth of flower..

Dawn is fair because the mists fade slowly
Into day, which floods the world with light:
Twilight's mystery is so sweet and holy
Just because it ends in starry night.

Childhood's smiles unconscious graces borrow
From strife, that in a far off future lies;
And angel glances (veiled now by life's sorrow)
Draw our hearts to some beloved eyes.

Life is only bright when it proceedeth
Toward a truer, deeper life above;
Human love is sweetest when it leadeth
To a more divine and perfect love.

Learn the mystery of progression duty;
Do not call each glorious change decay;
But know we only hold our treasures truly
When it seems as if they passed away.

Nor dare to blame God's gifts for incompleteness;
In that want their beauty less; they roll
Toward some infinite depth of love and sweetness,
Bearing onward man's reluctant soul.

We have just received a catalogue of the Medical Department of Dalhousie University, and are happy to learn that the Governors have established a full course of Medical Instruction of six months duration. The college offers all the facilities and appliances of older institutions, and must offer a great inducement to medical students of the maritime provinces. We compliment the Governors upon their success in establishing this first medical school in the lower provinces, and trust the day may not be far distant when it shall take a high stand among the Medical Schools of this Continent.

CONDENSED HISTORY OF STEAM.

ABOUT two hundred and eighty years *v. c.*, Hero, of Alexandria, formed a toy which exhibited some of the powers of steam, and was moved by its power.

A. D. 450. Anthemius, an architect, arranged several caldrons of water, each covered with the wide bottom of a leather tube, which rose to a narrow top, with pipes extended to the rafters of the adjoining building. A fire was kindled beneath the caldrons, and the house was shaken by the efforts of the steam ascending the tubes. This is the first notice of the power of steam recorded.

In 1543, June 17th. Blasco D. Garay, tried a steam-boat of 209 tons with tolerable success, at Barcelona, Spain. It consisted of a caldron of boiling water, and a movable wheel on each side of the ship. It was laid aside as impracticable. A present, however, was made to Garay.

In 1825. the first railroad was constructed at Newcastle-on-Tyne.

The first idea of a steam-engine in England was in the Marquis of Winchester's *History of Inventions*, A. D. 1762.

In 1710, Newcomen made the first steam-engine in England.

In 1718, patents were granted to Savery for the first application of the steam-engine.

In 1764, James Watt made the first perfect steam-engine in England.

1730, Jonathan Hulls set forth the idea of steam navigation.

In 1778, Thomas Faine first proposed this application in America.

In 1781, Marquis Souffroy constructed one in Saone.

In 1785, two Americans published a work on it.

In 1789, William Tymington made a voyage in one on the Forth and Clyde Canal.

In 1802, this experiment was repeated.

In 1782, Ramsey propelled a boat by steam to New York.

In 1783, John Fitch, of Philadelphia, navigated a boat by a steam-engine on the Delaware.

In 1793, Robert Fulton first began to apply his attention to steam.—*From the New York Teacher.*

SCHOOL APPARATUS.

THE blacksmith, the carpenter, the tailor, the mechanic of whatever calling, is not—so far as accomplishing anything is concerned—any better off for his knowledge, unless he has at the same time suitable tools to work with. And so it is in teaching; the teacher must have certain school-room apparatus, certain tools to work with, if he is to accomplish what is expected of him. Yet how seldom is it that he is provided with proper instrumentalities for carrying on his work. He may, indeed, "understand all mysteries and all knowledge;" and yet, as a man understanding all these, but without "charity" is "nothing"—so the teacher understanding all these, but without suitable school-room apparatus, is "nothing," or the next to nothing.

Time was when it was scarcely dreamed that the teacher required anything in the way of apparatus, as we now understand the term. He entered upon his duties without any resources whatever, except a few imperfect and now happily obsolete textbooks and his own mental acquirements. The raw material of youthful intellect was given into his hands to be shaped into a form of beauty and excellence, and yet the teacher was expected to effect this without instrumentalities, without apparatus—to make bricks without straw! As well almost might the smith be required to forge a chain, or the carpenter build a house, without the proper implements to work with.

It was a long step in the right direction when blackboards were first introduced. It was such an innovation upon the ideas of the educational autediluvians, that in many localities it is not even yet recognized as a necessary adjunct to good teaching; and school-houses in which the blackboard is still wanting are not difficult to find. But the blackboard has been introduced as a general thing into our schools, and wherever there is a live teacher, it is considered a *sine qua non*—an essential to school-room success.

With the introduction of the blackboard has been inaugurated a new system of teaching. The competent, wide-awake, conscientious teacher finds a constant use for the blackboard. Good use can be made of it in imparting instruction in every branch of common-school study. Its uses are so many, and its advantages so manifest, that we cannot stop to discuss them:

Crowding close upon the introduction of the blackboard, came cards for teaching spelling and elementary reading. Close upon these, again, have come outline maps, charts, etc. The custom of providing these things, however, is still more honored in the breach than in the observance. In addition to these, globes, orreries, and so on, are found in many schools, though not in nearly so many as they should be found.

Teaching with apparatus—by means of tangible objects or representations—has come to be almost the sole practice. The smallest children are taken in the *Kinder-Garten* establishments,

and taught to perform wonders with blocks, wands, scissors and paper. In schools a little more advanced objects are examined, analyzed, and explained; and in institutions of every grade the old-fashioned system of instruction—learning words without meaning—is passing rapidly away. The result is, that while the rising generation has less of that parrot-like knowledge of words which the old system produced, it has a more thorough, useful and practical knowledge of things. "I love the young dogs of this age," said old Dr. Johnson, on one occasion, "they have more wit and humor and knowledge of life than we had; but then added he, "the dogs are not so good scholars." We think "the young dogs of this age" have, as we said above, a more thorough, useful, and practical knowledge of things, and are at the same time quite as "good scholars" as the children of the generations past. This is owing alone to our improved methods of instruction.

It is an important part of the duty of those who have charge of our schools to provide them with suitable apparatus. Rouses and teachers are indispensable; but good apparatus is scarcely less so. Let our teachers have proper implements to work with—then we may reasonably expect work to be done.

T. J. CHAPMAN.

CHARLES DICKENS.

DOUBTLESS in all the world there is no man of letters whose death could cause so widespread and sincere a grief, and a grief that was in very many hearts so profound, as that caused by the death of Mr. Dickens. Not only wherever the English race exists—in the British Islands, in India, at the antipodes, and round the world again to America, where he has given happiness to millions of readers—but also in almost every country, within the limits of civilization, the creations of his pen have for many years been familiar figures, and have attracted to him the strong liking as well as the high admiration of innumerable men and women and children. Every great author has a multitude of friends whom he has never seen and will never see, but there can none be named, of any tongue, who might not be taken away and leave behind regret for his loss in fewer households than have been saddened, the world over, by the death of this most beloved of story-tellers. Opinions might differ as to his place among men of genius; and there have even been more opinions than one as to his right to be ranked among men of genius at all; nor has he been without enemies; nor did it happen to him more than to others to go through life without giving to his enemies some grounds for their attacks; but that he had a generous and loving nature, delighting in happiness and in conferring happiness, was never denied by those who cared for him least; and in hearts that knew the kindness of his he has long had a home. It is good criticism of him—whether or not it was meant to be other than eulogy and a tribute of admiration—when Thackeray, at the end of the "English Humorists," relates of one of his little girls how when she is sad she reads "Nicholas Nickleby;" when she is glad she reads "Nicholas Nickleby;" and when she is tired or ill she reads "Nicholas Nickleby;" and when she does not know what to do there is always "Nicholas Nickleby" to read; and when she has done reading it she begins it over again, and is constantly asking her papa why, instead of writing certain other novels, he does not write one like "Nicholas Nickleby." Mayfair, and Brighton, and the conversation in the club-room windows, and Mr. Pen's indifferentism must indeed have seemed either meaningless or hateful to the soft heart and the untutored taste of the little reader when she put her father's work into comparison with the lampblack-and-lightning picture of the villainy of the wicked old Ralph; and the patience and impatience under all he had to put up with of ragged Newman Noggs; and the cruelty and subsequent righteous downfall of Mr. Squeers; and the badness of young Squeers; and the wretchedness and piteous end of poor Smike; and the heartiness of Mr. John Browdie, and of his Yorkshire puddings and game-pies. In all this, kindness of heart which everybody can appreciate, and a disregard of the niceties of art, or, indeed, an obvious ignorance of them and insensibility to them, are the things most striking.

It is probable that no truly good writer gets his true audience in his own generation. He must wait and he must learn to be content at first with being liked for things in him that are not essential. His true public, which values him for what in him is really and always valuable, is made up from the capable readers and writers of successive generations. We do not know with precisely what accuracy it is said, but they say that of all Dickens' stories the one most successful with the contemporary public was that in which is narrated the life and death of "Little Nell." And it would, perhaps, be impossible to prove—as, indeed, it would be not unconsent with the affection for him that most of his readers feel—that it is for this pathos, or at least for his sympathy with the suffering, rather than for any other quality of his, that most of his admirers admire him. He himself, as he reads his works, seemed to value as much as anything such things as the account of "Tiny Tim" in the "Christ-

mas Carol," and it is to be presumed that so experienced a reader to popular audiences knew what hit the popular taste.

But that in estimating the true greatness of the man we shall do better, as regards success in getting at his exact value, to put out of consideration all the pathetic parts of his writing, and everything in his books by which he has a hold on the tender-heartedness of his readers, there seems to be little doubt. It is not by his "Little Nells," and "Paul Dombey," and "Smikes," and "Tom Pinches;" nor by his attacks on the workhouses and the Circumlocution Office, that he is to live; and his title to enduring fame is more firmly based on the "Pickwick Papers" than on "Bleak House," or the "Old Curiosity Shop," or "Barnaby Rudge," or the "Tale of Two Cities." Strong as he is as a melo-dramatist, and elaborate as he is in his appeals to the feelings, and earnest as he no doubt was in his hatred of injustice, and skilful as he now and again shows himself to be—as for instance in the case of the hero of the "Tale of Two Cities"—in divining the depths and intricacies of a real character, and voluminous as he is—for he must have been one of the most industrious as well as prolific of the authors of our day, and leaves behind him an enormous number of printed pages—noteworthy as he is in these various ways, it seems certain that he is to be read by our children's children for the use he made as a humorist and a humorous caricaturist of his remarkable powers of observation. Mrs. Nickleby and not Lady Dedlock, Mr. Micawber, Tony Weller, the Shepherd, Sam Weller, Mr. Bounderby, Mrs. Jellaby, Mr. Pickwick and Mr. Winkle, Old Willett, Dick Swiveller, Capt. Cuttle, Mr. Pogram, Mr. Hannibal Chollop, Mark Tapley, Mr. Foots, Susan Nipper, Mr. Simon Tappertit, Mr. Wegg, Mr. Alfred Jingle, Mr. Pecksniff, the young man by the name of Guppy, and the young gentleman known as Young Bailey, and greatest of all, Mrs. Gamp the friend of Mrs. Harris—doubtless it is in virtue of having produced these figures, representing with the truth of humorous distortion some laughable trait of character, some class in society, some odd phase of humanity—that the favorite author of our generation will go down the stream of time. Many a generation will read him for his fun that will shed no tears over him—whose tears there will be contemporary pathos to call out, for the benefit of writers who will know how to touch the easier springs of tears as well as any of us know, or any of the men and women knew who made our grandfathers and grandmothers weep and who make none of us weep now.

The list we have given of vividly colored figures which it is not too much to say have now for years been a portion of the mental furniture of millions of mankind, is a long one; but how it might be lengthened everybody knows. There are Master Bitzer and Cousin Feenix, and Joe Bagstock, and Mr. Barkis, and Mr. Venus, and Uriah Heep, and Alies Trotwood, and Mr. Dick, and a hundred more whose right to enumeration might be insisted upon. Perhaps, had the list of his works been shorter we should not now be lamenting the death of the artist, who crowded into his lifetime a quantity of work which gives as strong evidence of his capacity to labor and his industrious habits as the quality of his work gives of the native power of his mind. Dying in his fifty-ninth year, he was the author of eighteen or twenty long novels, of scores of short stories, such as the "Christmas Carol," of columns on columns of writing for periodicals, of two or three of which he was editor, of countless speeches, and of letters unnumbered. This strength and activity he may be excused for having tried too much, for they must have seemed to him unbounded.

He began life as a student of the law, his father, who was at one time a Government clerk, and afterwards a short-hand reporter, having articed him to an attorney, to whose office we may suppose ourselves indebted for some part of Mr. Sampson Brass, and Mr. Swiveller, and Messrs. Dodson & Fogg, and Sergeant Buzfuz, and Mr. Spenslow. Using his eyes on the outsides of attorneys and bailiffs was, however, more to the taste of the student than using them to the insides of law-books, and it was not long before Mr. Dickens found himself on the press, and studying short-hand. He is said to have made a very good parliamentary reporter, and everybody will remember how in "David Copperfield" he describes his troubles as a learner of stenography. Some of his late speeches, too, bear witness to his having experienced some of the trials of the journalist. But as he later discovered, when he attempted to conduct the *Daily News*, that it was not in the higher walks of journalism that he could do his best work, so he early discovered that he could do better work than reporting. He was hardly of age when he published his "Sketches, by Boz," which, although timidly written, are specimens of the vein which very soon afterwards he opened in its full richness. They resemble the sketches now known to all the world as "The Pickwick Papers," which probably may as a whole be called his best work. Here and there in the other books there are to be found particular passages and personages which may perhaps be considered better than anything in "Pickwick." Mrs. Gamp is perhaps still better than Tony Weller; but though Mr. Dickens afterwards brought to his work greater power of thought and greater depth of feeling and more artistic faculty, it may be maintained that his best writing in his proper line he did at the age of twenty-five. Having written the "Pickwick Papers," which at once became irresistibly

popular, Mr. Dickens became convinced, evidently, that he had found his vocation, and thenceforward he was a story teller and humorous caricaturist—now in magazines, now in pamphlets, now in volumes, sometimes melodramatic, sometimes a humanitarian, always with effusive good nature, often with defective taste, never, apparently, without a just notion of the limitations of his powers, but always attaining the story-teller's success of having an immense number of eager listeners, and with each new story making it plainer that as a humorous caricaturist he was without an equal.

Of such a man, living such a life, and of books such as he has left, a thousand things might be said and will be said. Those who knew him personally will long be busy repeating proofs of his activity, his usefulness, his courage, his kindness; and the books are secure of being regarded as a part of the intellectual wealth of the world. It is enough to say of him now and in this place, by way of expressing the respect which it is proper to express at the grave, that he was as widely beloved as he was widely known, and that has so much that is permanently admirable that he can afford to lose most of his present admirers.—*The Nation*.

NOTICE.—School Section No. 1, Windsor, wants a Male Teacher for the Preparatory Department, at the ensuing term. Apply at the Education Office or to D. P. Allison, Esq., Windsor.

GOD RULES.

Yesterday it stormed; this morning
Brightly bloometh all the land.
Free from care, we wait day's dawning:
God holds all in His right hand.

Thou alone on silk and linen
Waste thy thoughts in yonder field.
Angels clothe thy careless lilies
With a beauty past thy dreams.

Build thy house upon the summit.
Sun thyself in places high:
Birds in branches swing above it,
Singing gaily as they fly.

Flowers are clad, and birds so warily,
Though they neither toil nor plan:
So how brightly breaks the morning.
God holds all in His right hand.

—From the *German of J. von Eicheng*

A school, at which negroes will be taught architecture, phonograph, telegraphing, etc., is to be started in Louisville.

ORANGE JORD has given \$30,000 to endow a new professorship at Wesleyan College. His donations amount to \$100,000.

"PEOPLE," says a modern philosopher, "go according to their brains—if these lie in their head, they study; if in their stomach, they eat, if in their heels, they dance."

Rev. Thomas W. Tobey, principal of Paducah Female Seminary, has been appointed professor of ancient languages in Bethel College, Russellville, Ky.

THE renowned French painter MONVOISIN died in April last at Boulogne, in his eightieth year. His most celebrated picture was "The Ninth Thermidor," which subjected the artist to a political persecution. He was compelled in consequence of it to emigrate to the United States, whence he returned to France, only four years ago.

A VERY skilful and successful teacher of children is want to express her indebtedness for much of her success to the following rules which were first put into this shape by Jacob Abbott:

"When you consent, consent cordially." "When you refuse, refuse finally." "When you punish, punish good naturedly." "Commend often." "Never scold."
Some bulky books contain less practical value than these short sentences.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education:

ELOCUTION IN OUR SCHOOLS.

As I have paid particular attention to the study of Elocution, I feel that I may, with propriety, call your attention to this important, but neglected, branch of education. Of all the departments of learning, there is none which is more important, and yet in the public schools, academies and colleges of this Province, good reading is certainly the exception and not the rule. Nor will this state of things ever be removed until our teachers are themselves made acquainted with the principles upon which this art depends. It is one of the anomalies of education, that in an art, so essential, the learner should be left almost without assistance. The series of readers, in present use, contains no instruction whatever upon the subject, and certainly those who maintain that we should conform wholly to nature should know what nature is; what it prescribes; what it excludes.

It appears to me that in an age like the present, when there is so much to be read, and when the public speaker wields an influence so potent, no effort should be spared, in our public schools, to foster and develop the talent for a clear and beautiful style of reading and speaking. In order to effect this, I would suggest that the Normal School should give special attention to the study of Elocution, so that in future teachers from that institution may be able to teach rhetorical reading on correct principles. And that we may meet the large numbers of teachers (many of whom are children) who, through lack of training and technical knowledge, fail to secure good reading, it would be well to have Inspectors who should be able to take classes and drill them in presence of their teachers, thus giving practical examples, (kindly and respectfully done). The Inspectors might also gather the teachers together, from time to time, and drill them upon reading and other subjects, such as the most approved methods of teaching. How much good might thus be done!

P. S.—I would suggest that we have a number of the best English Readers to select from. We want *uniformity*, but not so much of it as to crush out all life and originality that may be in us.

(For the Journal of Education.)

MR. EDITOR,—

Much eloquence has been poured forth, many elaborate and exhaustive arguments constructed, and volumes of every shade of literary merit written to prove that the teachers' vocation is a high and holy one: and no one thoughtful person will deny his assent to the proposition. Indeed language can scarcely portray and certainly cannot overstate the weighty responsibility of those who undertake the instruction of the young. This great truth, however, like many others, is rather in danger in spite of its frequent reiteration, and perhaps in some measure because of it, to fall on careless ears and indifferent minds, and many who are quite willing enough to magnify their office, and thus burn incense at the shrine of their own vanity, do not, judging from their conduct, feel it incumbent on them to add to the dignity of their calling, by any special efforts of their own. Teachers must remember that the *status* of any profession depends upon the worthiness of its aims, the demand for its services, the talent and efficiency of its members, its public spirit, freedom from bigotry, and above all on a genuine *esprit-de-corps*, which ensures coherence and permanency.

He who finds within himself no strivings after a nobler manhood, no resolution, at any cost, to lay aside those petty meanesses that make humanity so contemptible—no absorbing desire to do something for the welfare of those around him—so that their chances of success, in the hard struggle of life, may be more assured, in a word, he who has not enkindled within him such a fire of enthusiasm as shall burn up ignoble pride, moral cowardice and unworthy motives should never become a teacher,

for success depends quite as much upon moral qualities as intellectual attainments.

The Government has given us an admirable system of Free Schools, and all that legislation can accomplish at present has been done,—commodious school houses with appropriate furniture and apparatus, a good supply of books and liberal grants. But much yet remains for us to do, and it will be well for us to remember, that, important as all these things are, they are but the body, the shell, the mere husk, and that many eminent teachers who never had these advantages, have nevertheless deserved so well of their kind, that any failure on our part will be all the more glaring and unpardonable. Now it is a sad fact that hitherto, teaching, as a profession in this Province, has not occupied so honorable a position as it should have done, but from henceforth let teachers vie with each other in their efforts to ennoble it. How is this to be done? We think principally by attention to two things: the *strictest observance of professional etiquette*, and *systematic organization*. If teachers will cultivate a kindly sympathetic disposition towards each other, if they will stifle that mean jealousy which often incites to petty intrigue, if they will be tender of each other's reputation, if they will honorably avoid encroachments on the right and privileges of their fellows, if they will frown down the contemptible practice of underbidding each other, and of going into sections which are supplied and endeavoring to supplant those already occupying the ground by appealing to those whose avarice and ignorance only enquire: "What is the lowest sum for which we can get a teacher?" and not, what are the services of a competent teacher really worth to us? In a word, if teachers will *strictly observe professional etiquette*, they will do much towards securing a higher *status*. We would not insinuate that there are many teachers who would act in this unworthy manner, but the few who would be guilty of this impropriety should be frowned down as morally unfit to have the training of youthful minds.

A word on *organization*. The establishment of the Convention was a step in the right direction, but this alone is not sufficient. Let institutes be formed in every county for mutual encouragement and instruction, and the discussion of all those interesting educational questions which are constantly arising. We should recommend that careful reports be kept of all such meetings, and the publication of an account of such as were particularly interesting, thus from time to time adding valuable items to our educational literature. These organizations, while pleasant to all, would be invaluable to the young and inexperienced. Those who have never attended these meetings have no idea how pleasant they may be made.

A TEACHER,
Yarmouth.

"STAND LIKE THE ANVIL..."

BY BISHOP DOANE.

"Stand like the anvil" when the stroke
Of stalwart men falls fierce and fast;
Norms but more deeply root the oak
Whose brawny arms embrace the blast.

"Stand like the anvil!", when the sparks
Fly far and wide, a fiery shower;
Virtue and truth must still be marks
Where malice proves its want of power.

"Stand like the anvil!" when the bar
Lies red and glowing on its breast:
Duty shall be life's leading star,
And conscious innocence its rest.

"Stand like the anvil!" noise and heat
Are born of earth and die with time;
The soul, like God, its source and seat,
Is solemn, still, serene, sublime.



OFFICIAL NOTICES.

I.

At a meeting of the Council of Public Instruction, held on Saturday the 27th July, New Glasgow was made a station for the examination of candidates for provincial teachers.

A. S. HUNT,
Sec'y. Council Public Instruction.

II. School Books—Superior School Grants.

In consequence of the increased drafts required for Teachers of Common Schools, the Council finds the funds at its disposal inadequate to meet all the expenditures contemplated by the School law. At the same time the Council is desirous of resuming the supply of Books and Apparatus to the Schools at reduced rates for another year. It is therefore ordered, with the concurrence of the Superintendent of Education, that no further sums be paid to competitors for the grant to Superior Schools, and that the sum allowed by the law for that purpose be applied towards furnishing the Schools with Books and Apparatus at the rates fixed by the order of October, 1868. [This Order is not to affect the unpaid grant of the past term.]

October 15th, 1869.

III. Examination of Teachers.

"The half-yearly Examination for license to teach in the Public Schools, shall be held in March and September of each year. Examinations to begin on Tuesday the ninth day preceeding the last Thursday of said months."—*Reg. Council Public Instruction.*

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, That the next semi-annual Examination will begin on

TUESDAY, 20th September next, at 9.30 o'clock, A.M.

Deputy Examiners will be strictly forbidden to admit any person to be examined who fails to be present on the day and hour named.

Candidates are required to forward to the Inspector, not later than SEPTEMBER 1st, a written notification of their intention to be examined, and of the grade of license for which they will apply. No application can be received after this date. Candidates are to undergo Examination in the grade of which they have notified the Inspector. Seats will not be reserved for any who do not forward notification as above. Applications may be made for examination at one of the following stations:

STATION.	ADDRESS.
Sydney.....	E. Outram, Sydney.
Baddeck.....	A. Munro, Boulardarie,
Margaree Forks } Port Hood..... }	John Y. Gunn, Broad Cove.
Arichat.....	Remi Benoit, D'Escousse.
Guysboro' } Sherbrooke } Antigonish.....	S. R. Russell, Guysboro'
Pictou.....	A. McIsaac, Antigonish.
Amherst.....	D. McDonald, New Glasgow.
Truro.....	Rev. W. S. Darragh, Shinimicas,
Halifax.....	H. C. Upham, Great Village.
Windsor.....	J. F. Parsons, 30 Albro St., Hx.
Keatville.....	Rev. D. M. Welton, Windsor.
Bridgetown.....	Rev. Robt. Sommerville, Wolfville
Digby.....	Rev. Geo. Armstrong, Bridgetown
Yarmouth.....	A. W. Savary, Digby.
Shelburne.....	G. J. Farish, Yarmouth.
Liverpool.....	Rev. W. H. Richan, Barrington.
Lunenburg.....	Rev. Will. Duff, Liverpool.
	W. M. B. Lawson, Lunenburg.

Candidates are to furnish their own writing material. Candidates already holding license of any grade from the Council of Public Instruction, are required to give the number of the same at the Examination.

All Candidates for License will be required, on presenting themselves for examination, to furnish a written certificate of good moral character, signed by a minister of Religion, or by two of Her Majesty's Justices of the Peace. These certificates are filed in the Educational Department, together with the other papers relating to the candidate's Examination.

The use of books or manuscripts will be strictly prohibited. Persons not intending to engage as Teachers in the Public Schools will be required, on presenting themselves for Examination, to make payment to the Deputy Examiner as follows:—Grade E, \$0.37; D, \$0.50; C, \$0.75; B, \$1.00; A, \$1.00. Also, teachers wishing to be re-examined in any grade for which they already hold a license, will be required to make payment to the Deputy Examiner as above.

Candidates for license of the grade who have already made an average of 75 or upwards on Grade B, are to work papers on those subjects only which are peculiar to grade A. Such Candidates are required to present themselves for examination (with their licenses or memoranda) on

THURSDAY noon. Other candidates for grade A will present themselves at the opening of the Examination on Tuesday.

An exercise in spelling will be held on Thursday afternoon at 3 o'clock, for Candidates who at any previous examination made an average of 60 or upwards in the Examination for 1st Class, and were debarred from receiving license of the 1st Class by reason of bad spelling. The list will contain a number of ordinary English words to be written at Dictation, and any such candidate not making more than 6 errors will be granted a license of the 1st Class without further examination.

Every person examined will be informed by mail of the result of his or her examination, as soon as decided.

IV. Holidays and Vacations.

Notice is hereby given to Trustees of Schools and others, that CHAPTER XI, of the COMMENTS AND REGULATIONS OF THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. "Of Time in Session, Holidays, and Vacations" has been revised as follows:

HOLIDAYS.

The following Regulations have been added to SECTION 3, of the Chapter above-named.

a. When for any cause the Trustees of a school shall deem it desirable that any prescribed Teaching Day should be given as a Holiday, the school or schools may be kept in session on the Saturday of the week in which such Holiday has been given, and such Saturday shall be held to be in all respects a legal Teaching day.

b. When, owing to illness, or for any other just cause, a teacher loses any number of prescribed teaching days, such teacher shall have the privilege of making up for such lost days, to the extent of six during any Term, by Teaching on Saturdays; But

c. No School shall be kept in session more than five days per week for any two consecutive weeks;

d. Nor shall any Teacher teach more than FIVE DAYS PER WEEK on the average (vacations not being counted) during the period of his engagement in any term.

The anniversary of the QUEEN'S BIRTHDAY shall be a Holiday in all the Public Schools, as heretofore; also any day proclaimed as a public holiday throughout the Province.

VACATIONS.

The following Regulations have been made in lieu of SECTION 4, of the Chapter above-named:—

1. The CHRISTMAS VACATION shall remain as heretofore, the "eight days" being held to mean week-days other than Saturdays.

2. Instead of two vacations during the summer term (a week at seed time and a fortnight at harvest) as heretofore, THREE WEEKS (15 week-days other than Saturdays) shall hereafter be given as vacation during the summer term, at such time or times as the Trustees shall decide: Nevertheless

3. In order that the due inspection of Schools as required by law, may not be interfered with, each Inspector shall have power, notwithstanding anything in the foregoing Regulations, to give notice of the day or days on which he proposes to visit any school or schools in his county for the purpose of inspection, and to require that on the day or days so named such school or schools shall be kept in session.

July 1867.

V. Teachers' Agreements.

The attention of Teachers and Trustees is again called to the necessity of complying with the provisions of the Law in relation to the disposal of the county Fund. It appears from the School Returns of the past Term that some teachers have in their agreements with Trustees in respect to salary, assumed all risk as to the amount to be received from the County Fund. Such proceeding is contrary to the provisions of the law and directly subversive of a most important principle of the School system, since the pecuniary penalty imposed upon the inhabitants of the section by the absence and irregular attendance of pupils is thereby inflicted upon the teacher, while the pecuniary rewards consequent upon a large and regular attendance of pupils at school is diverted from the people to the teacher. These results clearly tend to prevent the growth and development of a sentiment of responsibility and interest among all the inhabitants of each section, and thus measurably defeat the object of the whole system—the education of every child in the Province.

The Superintendent of Education, therefore, calls the attention of Teachers and Trustees to the following

NOTICE.

1. The COUNTY FUND is paid to the TRUSTEES of the section. The amount depends upon the number of pupils, the regularity of their attendance, and the number of prescribed teaching days on which school is open in any section during the term.

2. Teachers must engage with Trustees at a definite sum or rate. The Provincial grant is paid to teachers in addition to such specified sum.

3. The following form of agreement is in accordance with the law:

(FORM OF AGREEMENT.)

Memorandum of Agreement made and entered into the — day of ——— A.D. 18—, between [name of teacher] a duly licensed teacher of the ——— class of (the one part, and [names of Trustees] Trustees of School Section No. ——— in the district of ——— of the second part.

The said [name of teacher] on his (or her) part, in consideration of the below mentioned agreements by the parties of the second part, hereby covenants and agrees with the said [name of Trustees] Trustees as aforesaid and their successors in office, diligently and faithfully to teach a public school in the said section under the authority of the said Trustees and their successors in office during the School Year (or Term) ending on the thirty-first day of October next, (or the thirtieth day of April, as the case may be.)

And the said Trustees and their successors in office on their part covenant and agree with the said [name of teacher] Teacher as aforesaid, to pay the said [name of teacher] out of the School Funds under their control, at the rate of ——— dollars for the School Year (or Term.)

And it is hereby further mutually agreed that both parties to this agreement shall be in all respects subject to the provisions of the School Law and the Regulations made under its authority by the Council of Public Instruction.

In Witness whereof the parties to these presents have hereto subscribed their names on the day and year first above written.

Witness.

[Name of Witness]

[Name of Teacher]
[Names of Trustees]

4. Each Inspector is instructed to report every case of illegal stipulation on the part of teachers, in reference to the County Fund.

VI. To Trustees of Public Schools.

1. "A relation being established between the trustees and the teacher, it becomes the duty of the former, on behalf of the people, to see that the latter are making sure progress, that there is life in the school both intellectual and moral,—in short, that the great ends sought by the education of the young are being realized in the section over which they preside. All may not be able to form a nice judgment upon its intellectual aspect, but none can fail to estimate correctly its social and moral tone. While the law does not sanction the teaching in our public schools of the peculiar views which characterize the different denominations of Christians, it does instruct the teacher "to inculcate by precept and example a respect for religion and the principles of Christian morality." To the Trustees the people must look to see their desires in this respect, so far as is consistent with the spirit of the law, carried into effect by the teacher."—"Comments and Regulations" of Council of Public Instruction, p. 51, reg. 5.

2. Whereas it has been represented to the Council of Public Instruction that Trustees of Public Schools have, in certain cases, required pupils, on pain of forfeiting school privileges, to be present during devotional exercises not approved of by their parents; and whereas such proceeding is contrary to the principles of the School Law, the following additional Regulation is made for the direction of Trustees, the better to ensure the carrying out of the spirit of the Law in this behalf:—

ORDERED, That in cases where the parents or guardians of children in actual attendance on any public school (or department) signify in writing to the Trustees their conscientious objection to any portion of such devotional exercises as may be conducted therein under the sanction of the Trustees, such devotional exercises shall either be so modified as not to offend the religious feelings of those so objecting, or shall be held immediately before the time fixed for the opening or after the time fixed for the close of the daily work of the school; and no children, whose parents or guardians signify conscientious objections thereto, shall be required to be present during such devotional exercises.

March, 1867.

3. "The hours of teaching shall not exceed six each day, exclusive of the hour allowed at noon for recreation. Trustees, however, may determine upon a less number of hours. A short recess should be allowed about the middle of both the morning and afternoon session. In elementary departments, especially, Trustees should exercise special care that the children are not confined in the school room too long."—"Comments and Regulations" of Council of Public Instruction, p. 48, reg. 2.

VII. The Provincial Normal School.

FIRST TERM begins on the first Wednesday in November, and closes on the Friday preceding the last Thursday in March.

SECOND TERM begins on the first Wednesday in May, and closes on the Friday preceding the last Thursday in September.

* * Students cannot be admitted after the first week in each term, except by the consent of the Principal.

FACULTY OF INSTRUCTORS.

NORMAL COLLEGE

Method, and the Natural Sciences:—J. B. CALKIN, Esq.
Principal of the Normal College and Model School
English Language, Geography &c.:—J. A. MACCABE, Esq.
Mathematics:—W. R. MULHOLLAND, Esq.
Music:—Miss M. BECKWITH.

Drawing:—

MODEL SCHOOL.

High School Department, MR. EDWARD BLANCHARD.
Preparatory " MR. JAMES LITTLE.
Senior Elementary " MISS FAULKNER.
Junior do. " MISS A. LEAKE.

None but holders of valid licenses will be admitted to the Normal School as pupil-teachers. The license (or memo) must be presented to the Principal at the opening of the Term.

Extracts from the Regulations of Council of Public Instruction:—
"Before being enrolled a Student at the Normal School, every pupil-teacher shall make the following declaration, and subscribe his or her name thereto: 'I hereby declare that my object in attending the Provincial Normal School, is to qualify myself for the business of teaching; and that my intention is to teach, for a period not less than three years, in the Province of Nova Scotia,—if adjudged a Certificate by the Examiners.' In consideration of this declaration, instruction, stationery, and the use of text books (except Classical) shall be furnished pupil teachers, free of Charge."

Persons wishing to enrol as Candidates for High School or Academy certificates must, in addition to a good knowledge of English, be thoroughly familiar with the Latin and Greek Grammars, and be able to parse with ease any passage in some elementary work in each language. In Mathematics, they must be competent to solve any example in the advanced Nova Scotia Arithmetic, to work quadratic equations in Algebra, and to demonstrate any proposition in the first four books of Euclid."

VIII. Bond of Secretary to Trustees.

"The Secretary of the Trustees shall give a bond to her Majesty, with two sureties, in a sum at least equal to that to be raised by the section during the year, for the faithful performance of the duties of his office;

and the same shall be lodged by the Trustees with the Clerk of the Peace for the county or district."—School Law of 1866, Sect. 42

This bond is to be given annually, or whenever a Secretary is appointed, and Trustees should not fail to forward it by mail or otherwise, to the Clerk of the Peace, immediately after they have appointed their Secretary. The following is a proper form of bond:—

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS, THAT WE, (name of Secretary) as principal, and (names of sureties) as sureties, are held and firmly bound unto our Sovereign Lady VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, &c., in the sum of _____ of lawful money of Nova Scotia, to be paid to our said Lady the Queen, her heirs and successors, for the true payment whereof, we bind ourselves, and each of us by himself, for the whole and every part thereof, and the heirs, executors and administrators of us and each of us, firmly by these presents, sealed with our Seals and dated this _____ day of _____ in the year of Our Lord one thousand eight hundred and _____ and in the _____ year of Her Majesty's reign.

WHEREAS the said _____ has been duly appointed to be Secretary to the Board of Trustees of _____ School Section, No. _____ in the District of _____

NOW THE CONDITION OF THIS OBLIGATION IS SUCH, That if the said (name of Secretary) do and shall from time to time, and at all times hereafter, during his continuance in the said Office, well and faithfully perform all such acts and duties as do or may hereafter appertain to the said Office, by virtue of any law of this Province, in relation to the said Office of Secretary to Trustees, and shall in all respects conform to and observe all such rules, orders, and regulations as now are or may be from time to time established for or in respect of the said office, and shall well and faithfully keep all such accounts, books and papers, as are or may be required to be kept by him in his said office, and shall in all respects well and faithfully perform and execute the duties of the said office; and if on ceasing to hold the said Office, he shall forthwith, on demand, hand over to the Trustees of the said School Section, or to his successor in office, all books, papers, moneys, accounts, and other property in his possession by virtue of his said office of Secretary—then the said obligation to be void—otherwise to be and continue in full force and virtue.

Signed, sealed, and delivered } [Name of Secretary] (Seals)
in the presence of } [Names of Sureties] (Seals)

[Name of Witness.]

WE, THE SUBSCRIBERS, two of her Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of _____ do certify our approbation of _____ (name of Sureties,) within named, as Sureties for the within named _____ (name of Secretary,) and that they are to the best of our knowledge and belief persons of estate and property within the said County of _____ and of good character and credit, and sufficiently able to pay if required, the penalty of the within bond. Given under our hands this _____ day of _____ A. D. 1866 [Names of Magistrates].

IX. Prescribed School Books, Maps and Apparatus.

In pursuance of an Order of the Council of Public Instruction, made October 15th, 1869,

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN

That Prescribed School Books and Apparatus will be supplied to the Trustees of Public Schools, for the ensuing school year, at three-quarters of the prime cost of the same. Diagrams, Maps, and Globes will be supplied at half cost as formerly.

Orders from Trustees of Sections placed, in May last, by the Boards of School Commissioners upon the list of sections entitled to receive special aid, will be filled at half cost. All such orders must be distinctly marked over the top, "POOR SECTION." In making up their orders, Trustees of Poor Sections will deduct one-third from the prices given below; except in the case of Diagrams, Maps, and Globes, which are already marked at half cost.

Trustees will carefully note the following Regulations:—

Reg. 1.—Applications must be made in the following form, and addressed to MESSRS. A. & W. MACKINLAY, HALIFAX, who have been duly authorized to attend to all orders.

(FORM OF APPLICATION.)

(Date)

Messrs. A. & W. Mackinlay,
Halifax,

Srs,—We enclose (or forward by _____) the sum of \$ _____ for, which you will please send us the following articles provided by the Superintendent of Education for use in the public schools. The parcel is to be addressed _____ here give the address in full) and forward by _____ (here state the name of the person, express, company, or vessel; and, if by vessel, direct the parcel to be insured, if so desired.)

LIST OF ARTICLES.

(Here specify distinctly the Books, Maps, &c., required, and the quantity of each sort.)

We certify that each and all of the articles named in the above list are required for use in the Public School (or Schools) under our control, and for no other purpose whatsoever; and we engage strictly to carry out the Regulations of the Council of Public Instruction for the management and preservation of school books and apparatus.

(Signed) _____ } Trustees of _____ School Section,
No. _____, in the County of _____

Reg. 2.—Any application not accompanied with the money will not be attended to.

Reg. 3.—All costs and risk of transportation of parcels must be borne by Trustees, (i. e., by the Sections on behalf of which they act, and not by the Education Department.)

CICERO, de Off. de Sen. de Amicit., 1 vol., 30 cents: de Sen., and de Amicit., 1 vol., (with short notes), paper, 15 cents: Oration for the Poet Archias, (with short notes), paper, 15 cents.

MOEACI, (complete), bound, 30 cents: the Odes, (with short notes), paper, 30 cents.

DICTIONARIES.

White's Junior Scholar's Latin-English Dictionary. \$1.13 cts. each.
 " " English-Latin " 0.82 "
 Greek.—Bryce's First Greek Book. 38 cts. each.
 Bryce's Second Greek Book. 53 "
 Buiton's Greek Grammar. 80 "
 or, Edinburgh Academy Greek Grammar 53 "
 Arnold's Greek Prose Composition. 86 "

AUTHORS—OXFORD EDITIONS.

XENOPHON, Anabasis, bound, 30 cents.
 EURIPIDES, Alcesteis, (with short notes), paper, 15 cents.
 XENOPHON, Memorabilia, bound, 20 cents.
 HOMER, Iliad, (complete) bound, 53 cts.: Lib. I.—VI. (with short notes), 1 vol., paper, 30 cents.

LEXICONS.

Liddell & Scott's Greek-English Lexicon (abrgd.). \$1.13 each.
 Youg's English-Greek Lexicon. 1.40 "

X. Evening Schools.

The Council of Public Instruction has made the following Regulations in reference to Evening Schools:

1. Trustees of Public Schools may establish in their several Sections Evening Schools, for the instruction of persons upwards of 13 years of age, who may be debarred from attendance at the Day School.
2. Such Evening School shall be in session 2½ hours; and in relation to Public Grants, two evening sessions shall count as one day. The Prescribed Register shall be kept, and a Return of the school made in the form directed by the Superintendent.
3. Books and School materials for such Evening Schools will be furnished at the same rate, and subject to the same conditions as for day schools; provided always that no pupil of an Evening School shall have power to demand the use of books free of charge, but shall, on the other hand, have the right of purchasing from the Trustees at half-cost, if he should desire to do so.
4. No portion of Provincial or County funds for Education, shall be appropriated in aid of Evening Schools, unless teachers are duly licensed.
5. The Council would greatly prefer that the Teachers of Evening Schools should be other than Teachers of Day Schools; but where this may not be practicable, it shall be legal for the Teacher of the day school to teach day school four days in the week, and evening schools three evenings in the week.

XI. Address of Inspectors.

J. F. L. Parsons B.A. Halifax.
 Rev. D. M. Welton, M. A. Windsor.
 Rev. Robert Somerville, B.A. Wolfville.
 Rev. G. Armstrong, M.A. Bridgetown.
 A. W. Savary, M.A. Digby.
 G. J. Farish, M.D. Yarmouth.
 Rev. W. H. Ritchie Barrington.
 Rev. Wm. Duff Liverpool.
 W. M. B. Lawson Lunenburg.
 H. C. Upham Great Village.
 Rev. W. S. Darragh, Shinimicas, Cumberland Co.
 Daniel McDonald New Glasgow.
 Angus McIsaac Antigonish.
 S. R. Russell Guysboro'.
 John Y. Gunn Broad Cove.
 Alexander Munro Baddeck.
 Edmund Outram, M.A. Sydney.
 Rémi Benoit D'Escousse.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The opening of the Annual Convention will take place in Pictou, on Tuesday, 27th December next, at 7 p.m.

Local Associations and members of the Provincial Association having any subject to bring before the Convention will please communicate with the Managing Committee before December 1st.

When further arrangements are made, notice will be given in the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

By order of the Committee.

J. HOLLIES, Secretary.

Barrington, June 20th, 1870.

SITUATIONS WANTED!

A NORMAL STUDENT, having taught successfully for two years, desires a permanent situation—Graded School preferred. Term commencing Nov. 1, 1870.
 Address, with particulars. D. H. P.,
 Canning.

The Trustees of School Section No. 51, Preston Road, Dartmouth, wish to engage a 2nd class Male Teacher for the ensuing term.

A young lady of Merigomish, holding a 1st class license, who has been engaged in a miscellaneous school, wishes to be engaged in the intermediate department in a Graded School. She has had considerable experience in teaching, and can give good reference. Apply to the Education Office, Halifax.

A situation in a Graded School by a Teacher of 1st Class, 1½ years experience. Method:—Normal.
 Address J. A. MEEK,
 Wolfville, N. S.

A situation as principal teacher of a Graded School by one who has attended the Provincial Normal School, and holds License Grade B.
 Address, A. M.,
 Acadia College, Wolfville.

A Teacher of two years' experience, and holding a Provincial License of the SECOND CLASS, granted by the Provincial Examiners in September, 1869, desires an engagement for six months, commencing November first.
 Address, stating terms, &c.,
 JAMES R. KNOELL,
 Teacher.
 Melrose, Guysboro' Co.

In a graded School, on the first of May next, by a Female Teacher, holding a Provincial License of the First Class, of 1½ years' experience, and a graduate of the Normal School.
 Good references can be given.
 Address, H. S. H.,
 Mill Village,
 Queens Co.

A FEMALE TEACHER, holding a first-class Prov. License from the Normal School, desires a situation in a graded school. Salary \$200 for the school year. Has two and-a-half years experience, and can give good reference.
 Address, M. A. T.,
 Cross Roads,
 Country Harbour, Co. Guysboro'.

NOTICE.

The subscriber having completed the photographic group of the "Teacher's Convention," held at Halifax last December, will be glad to receive orders for copies. They will be frames about 16 x 20 inches in size.
 W. D. O'DONNELL,
 Barrington Street.

NOTICE.

A Teacher who has taught a Graded School for three years, intends removing to another location, and will be ready at the expiration of the present term to engage in a similar school. The best testimonials can be given. Inquire at the Education Office.

The Journal of Education,

Published every two months, under authority of Act of Parliament—FEBRUARY, APRIL, JUNE, AUGUST, OCTOBER, DECEMBER—and furnished gratuitously to Trustee-Corporations, and to such Teachers as are specified in Sect. 6 (15) of the law concerning Public Schools.

Any person not entitled to a copy free of charge, will have the Journal sent to his address, postage prepaid, on payment of FIFTY CENTS per annum, in advance.

The Journal will be forwarded, postage prepaid, direct from the office of publication to Trustee-Corporations and to Teachers entitled to receive it.

Trustees will file and preserve the Journal as the property of the section they represent, to be handed over to their successors in office. Each number should be properly stitched and cut open before being read.

Teachers wishing situations will have the privilege of inserting a brief advertisement (class of license, experience, references, salary, and address,) for one month, free of charge. Trustees in want of teachers will be allowed a similar privilege.

All Communications intended for insertion in the JOURNAL should be forwarded before the 15th day of the month preceding the month of publication. Communications to be addressed "EDUCATION OFFICE, HALIFAX, N. S."

BLACKADAR BROS., 70½ & 72 Grantville Street, Halifax.