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THE CANADA  
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY  
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NOVEMBER, 1892.

T E N N Y S O N .

TENNYSON is dead! He had been with us so long—his work to the very last had been so strong, so fresh, that we could not think of him as an old man that could not long be with us. Three score and ten years, and by reason of strength four score, which must be labour and sorrow—such is the limit of human life. But the four score years of our great poet hardly seemed to impair his strength or even to diminish his elasticity of thought and feeling. Intellectually and artistically, “his eye was not dim, nor his natural force abated.” His last published drama was as fresh and breezy as the work of a boy.

Yet he has been called from us; and he has so enriched us and the world that we cannot grudge him his well-earned rest. Although a thrill has passed through the whole English world at the sad news of our loss, we can hardly say we are the poorer for his going, he has left us such rich possessions, such glorious creations behind him. And yet how we grieve. When Schiller was taken away at the age of forty-six, even Goethe, the self-sufficient, the calm and imperturbable, was moved to the depths of

his nature. “Schiller is ill!” they feared to tell him more. But he guessed. In the night they heard him weeping. Goethe weeping! the man who seemed raised so high above ordinary human cares. In the morning he said to a friend: “Schiller was very ill yesterday, was he not?” She could only sob, but not answer. “He is dead!” said Goethe. “You have said it.” “He is dead,” he repeated, and covered his eyes with his hands. Schiller was only forty-six, and Tennyson was nearly twice his age when he died; yet we, too, hardly believing, are broken-hearted as we say, “He is dead.”

When Alfred Tennyson was eleven years of age he received intelligence of the death of Lord Byron, and was deeply moved. “Byron is dead,” he kept repeating. Like all young men of that period, he had been powerfully affected by the passionate genius of the ill-fated poet. But Byron’s influence in English literature is small compared with that of Tennyson.

It is perhaps too early to estimate confidently the place of Lord Tennyson in English literature, even as many parts of his uneventful history are still matters of uncertainty; but

on some points we may arrive at conclusions which are not likely to be disputed.

Few literary men have been more variously gifted than the late Poet Laureate, and few have used those gifts more conscientiously. In addition, there is hardly another example in English literature of a poet whose genius developed in a more perfectly normal manner, deepening, gathering strength and richness from first to last, so that even in extreme old age there was hardly a trace of decadence. The last volume of poems, "Demeter," etc., etc., closes with an ode which may be described as simply perfect, nothing of its kind having ever equalled it. It is "Crossing the Bar." His last published volume, "The Foresters," is an absolute prodigy, if written, as we are told, during the last year or two. It is hardly possible to believe that some parts of it, at least, do not belong to an early period of his literary life.

In his early poems we have that wonderful charm of language, that purity of mellifluousness which never forsook him. As he goes on he gains in picturesqueness, in incisiveness, in those wonderful utterances of the deepest thoughts and emotions of the heart which are as moving as they are true. Then he begins, as in the "Princess," to deal with some of the burning questions of the day, and shows his power of psychological analysis, of social diagnosis, his faculty of seeing not one side only of a problem, but all its sides, its truth and its falsehood, its claims and its limitations, its sublimity and its absurdity, its rights and its dangers. Then in the great poem, "In Memoriam," he sounds the depths of human life and divine government, revealing at once his sense of all the sadness and sorrow of man's earthly destiny sustained by a sublime optimism which refuses to think that God's government can fail.

There is no failure in "Maud," the next poem of any length. Here, too, he shows his sympathy with his age, and his scorn of its meanness and paltriness. There is nothing in this great poem which is unworthy of its writer. Its hero is a true representative of a class which had sprung up of moody dreamers whose malady needed to be healed by the power of action, even as the "smooth-faced, snub-nosed rogue" needed to be roused from his sordid swindling by a rising patriotism responsive to dangers from without. Some one has spoken of Tennyson being destitute of passion. Such an one could hardly have read the songs in "Maud."

But we are hurrying on, and perhaps it is better that we should pause before we go further, and survey some parts of the literary history of Lord Tennyson somewhat more minutely. Everyone knows the few events which constitute his outward history, his birth at Somersby, in Lincolnshire, in 1809, the year of the birth of Mr. Gladstone and Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes and also of Darwin and Mrs. Browning. The third son of the Rev. Dr. G. Clayton Tennyson, after some time at the Grammar School at Louth he went to Cambridge, where he and his eldest brother Charles entered Trinity College. Here he made the acquaintance of Trench, afterwards Dean of Westminster, and subsequently of Alford, who died Dean of Canterbury; both of whom were of considerable poetic gifts, and both ardent admirers of their great contemporary. But the friendship of greatest influence which he found at Cambridge was that of Arthur Hallam, who became betrothed to Tennyson's favourite sister, and died in 1833, when he was about twenty-four years of age. The events of Tennyson's life, the peculiar qualities of his father and his mother, have been so amply set forth in the newspapers that we

shall probably better consult the interest of our hearers if we restrict our remarks mainly to comments on his writings.

It is said that Tennyson's first efforts in poetry belong to his eighth year, when he covered two sides of a slate with a poem on flowers. He had been challenged by his brother Charles to write poetry, and, when he showed what he had done, he received the assurance, "you have done it." Between the age of eleven and twelve he is said to have written an epic of more than four thousand lines in Scott's metre, in the "Lady of the Lake." About fourteen, he commenced a drama in Iambic metre which is said still to exist. We sincerely hope that it may never be permitted to see the light of day unless its publication had the sanction of its author. Both of Tennyson's brothers, Charles and Frederick, had poetic gifts of a very high order, as their publications have shown.

The first of Alfred's published poems appeared in connection with those of Charles in 1827, under the title of "Poems by Two Brothers." The volume was published in Louth, and brought the authors ten pounds. No intimation has been given of the authorship of the separate poems. Two years later he gained the Chancellor's Gold Medal for the English poem at Cambridge. The subject was "Timbuctoo." In 1830 he put forth "Poems Chiefly Lyrical," forming, generally, the first part of the volumes published in 1842 under the title, "Poems." In 1832 he published "Poems," beginning with the "Lady of Shalott," constituting the second part of the 1842 publication. In 1850 a third edition of this first collection was put forth very much in the form in which we now possess it.

The influences which helped the poetic genius of Tennyson were manifold. Coleridge, Wordsworth, Scott,

Byron, Keats, may be mentioned. The influence of Byron has perhaps been underrated. At any rate, as we have mentioned, Tennyson was deeply moved by the intelligence of his death. "I thought," he said, "the whole world was at an end. I thought everything was over and finished for everyone—that nothing else mattered. I remember I walked out alone, and carved 'Byron is dead' into the sandstone.

There are few things more remarkable in literature than the humility and conscientiousness displayed by Tennyson in dealing with his own early productions and in amending his faults of style and treatment. At his first appearance he was recognized as a true poetic genius by some few sympathetic and unprejudiced souls. But, like other poets—like Wordsworth, like Byron—he was vehemently assailed by the professional critics. John Wilson told him to get rid of his cockney admirers and reform his style. This was on the volume of 1830. The volume of 1833 was assailed by Lockhart in the *Quarterly* with bitter sarcasm, and this was the volume in which first appeared "Æneïde," "Lady Clara Vere de Vere," the "May Queen" and the "Lotos Eaters." It is truly terrible to think what those critics might have done.

Tennyson published no more for nine years when the volume of 1842 appeared, containing the "Morte d'Arthur," a poem which Tennyson has never surpassed, "Dora," "Ulysses," "Locksley Hall," "Break, Break, Break." In this volume Tennyson showed that he could profit by the criticisms, even when exaggerated and unjust, of his reviewers. Unlike Byron, who responded in his wrath by "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," unlike Wordsworth, who exaggerated the weaknesses of his style, and insisted on his admirers accepting his weakest work as though it were

equal to his strongest, Tennyson, with calm faith in his own genius, and yet with a readiness to be taught which showed his real greatness, set to work to amend what was amiss, and to perfect works of genius and art which were worthy of the labour thus bestowed upon them. Let anyone compare the first draught of the "Gardener's Daughter" with its latest form, and the importance of the changes will be seen. A curious example occurs in "Lady Clara Vere de Vere." In its first form, we believe, the words occur: "The gardener Adam and his wife." In a later edition we have: "The grand old gardener and his wife," but this term having become vulgarized the author has restored the phrase to its original form.

It is noticeable how this volume of the poems shows forecasts of work belonging to subsequent years. Thus in the exquisite little poem, "Break, Break, Break," we have an anticipation of "In Memoriam," and in "The Lady of Shalott" and other poems an anticipation of the "Idylls of the King."

A curious story is told of Carlyle reproaching Mr. Monkton Mills for not having got Tennyson a pension. However this may be, in the year 1845 a pension of £200 a year was conferred upon him through Sir Robert Peel. Never was a pension better bestowed. We have dwelt so long upon the early work of Tennyson that we have left hardly any time to deal with the great mass of work which he has produced since 1842.

In 1847 he produced "The Princess, a Medley," dealing with the question of woman's rights in a fashion so masterly that, as far as the principle is concerned, the last word has been said; whilst the songs dispersed through the poem are of marvellous beauty in sentiment, in expression, in melody.

In 1850 "In Memoriam" appeared

—in the judgment of some the greatest of his poems, although perhaps the one which is least popular. It commemorated the death of Arthur Hallam, already mentioned. In 1852 he wrote the splendid ode on the death of the Duke of Wellington, in 1854 the "Charge of the Light Brigade," which, with "Hohenlinden" and two or three other odes, occupies the foremost rank among warlike poetry. It is remarkable that the last stanza of this magnificent composition has undergone several alterations. It was first published in the *Times* newspaper, and afterwards at the end of the volume containing "Maud."

In 1855 "Maud" appeared, and was received with shouts of admiration and cries of derision. A London newspaper said it might be described by omitting either of the vowels in the name. Dean Henry Alford declared, in the presence of the writer, that of all Englishmen who had ever lived only two could have written "Maud"—Alfred Tennyson and William Shakespeare.

In 1859 appeared the "Idylls of the King," "Enid," "Vivien," "Elaine," and "Guinevere," to which a large number was afterwards added. It is possible that these four were put out first by the poet as being the most remarkable, in case he should be able to publish no more. The wonderful beauty of these poems, the absolute perfection of passages in "Elaine" and "Guinevere," can hardly be denied. These "things of beauty" will certainly be "a joy forever." Among his later poems mention should be made of "Locksley Hall" and the poem already mentioned at the end of the volume, "Demeter," etc. "Locksley Hall" is the answer of old age to the youthful aspirations expressed in the early poem of the same name. Mr. Gladstone, in an astonishing manner, took it as a kind of testimony from the

aged poet himself. Perhaps this notion was partly correct, but only partly so. It was rather the view of one who had outlived the dreams of early days, and records his reflections in the past and the present. The other poem, as we have said, "Crossing the Bar," is of surpassing beauty.

We have left ourselves no space at present even to refer to the dramas. The place of Tennyson is among the loftiest. If we give Shakespeare the first place and Milton the second, who is there that will contest the place with Tennyson? Coleridge might have done so, if he had only been

able to give free scope to his glorious genius. Keats might have done so, if he had lived and his later work had shown as steady a progress as that of Tennyson has done. Wordsworth would have done so, if his average work had been anything like as good as his best. But what poet is there at once so profound, so imaginative, so melodious, so strong, so sweet, so perfect in matter and in form as our great Laureate?

May these imperfect lines, written in great haste, be forgiven for the sake of the reverence and admiration which they feebly convey.—*Professor William Clark, in the Week.*

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## TEACHING ELEMENTARY PHYSICS.

BY EDWIN H. HALL.

IN what I shall say concerning the teaching of physics, I shall draw very largely from my own experience. I shall recommend certain practices because I have tried them and found them good. I shall recommend others, perhaps more numerous, because I have tried the opposite and found them bad.

It is not necessary that the teacher of elementary physics shall have read all the books that are written upon physics. It is not necessary that he shall have pursued his studies very far beyond the scope of his teaching. The essential thing is that he shall have mastered the elementary principles. A student may read many books and take many courses and have a reputation for much learning, and yet be and remain an unsafe and incompetent teacher for young pupils by reason of having an insecure grasp upon such facts and principles as are set forth in any good general treatise upon physics. The teacher who, in

this condition, undertakes to conduct a class, is pretty sure to have an unpleasant experience for his first year or two. Time which should be spent in recreation, in sleep, or in meditating upon the best method of presenting matter to his pupils, is spent in accumulating material, and the teacher comes before his class full of newly acquired facts, but dull, heavy and ineffective, a gun loaded to the muzzle with shot but without sufficient powder to clear the barrel.

When I began my work as a teacher of physics, I was inclined to the opinion that any part of my subject, save possibly the descriptions of apparatus as given in text-books, would, if clearly and forcibly taught, command the respect and even the interest of the ordinary student. This opinion was natural to one who, like myself, had passed through the fixed curriculum of a small college without finding anything absolutely distasteful, that had been presented with

reasonable clearness and method. But time has modified somewhat my estimate of the docility of the average youth. I have as much faith as I ever had in his responsiveness to the right stimulus and influence, but I have more respect than I used to have for his discrimination. In these days of many electives, the pupil is encouraged to ask very early in his career, which one of several studies is the more profitable to him, and to govern himself accordingly. And this is as it should be. The student, sixteen or seventeen years of age, has a right to know why he is asked to learn or to do a particular thing. If he cannot be shown that a certain study which he is following is for his advantage, either he has an incompetent teacher or he is following that study too far. If he can see no use in any of his studies, his career as a student should end.

In urging that the use of every study, and every part of every study, should be demonstrable to the student, I am far from maintaining that the usefulness of any acquirement is to be measured solely, or even chiefly, in dollars and cents. The boy must be a very uncommon one, without sense of beauty or sublimity, without admiration for intellectual achievement, without interest for the welfare of coming generations, who cannot be made to feel that the phenomena of physical science, the history of its doctrines, its generalizations, its problems, its prophecies, are of interest for their own sake. The teacher should therefore cultivate a broad view of his subject. If he happens to be, like so many of us, not too generously endowed with imagination, he should seek the society, or read the books, of those to whom nature has been more lavish in this regard. He should read popular lectures and essays like those of Helmholtz, of Tait and of Tyndall. He may even

do well to read, with a large interrogation point at hand, the products of distinctly sensational writers, ardent souls who are not always correct in their principles, but to whom much may be forgiven.

Nevertheless, the purely utilitarian value of the study of physics is very great, and it should be the care of the teacher to make it as great as possible, consistently with the intellectual development of the student. One of the most distinguished among living mathematicians is said to have named the Theory of Numbers as his favourite branch of mathematics, "because it has never been prostituted to any practical use." He tells of his hunt for an elusive mathematical truth in language as fervid and picturesque as any other man could call to his service in describing the chase of a Rocky Mountain goat; but he is a genius, and the ordinary teacher cannot safely imitate his methods. He is unpractical, but never dull. The ordinary teacher has to guard himself from being unpractical and dull at the same time.

Often a teacher fails to present matters in their due proportions, and sometimes it happens that wholesome, if unpalatable, advice will come from some frank acquaintance in a kindred subject, who knows enough of physics to see what it may do for a student, but not enough to be unduly interested in any one part of it. One must not let his pride, as a specialist, prevent his taking a useful hint, from whatever source it comes. The teacher of a certain type is not always able to let go of a subject when he knows that he had better do so. He undertakes to prepare some difficult experiment for an impending lecture, and his first attempt fails. He tries again and fails. There is yet time to prepare something else, this particular thing is not very important, but the difficulty of it piques him. He tries

to think of something else, and presently finds himself back with the one thing that he cannot make go. He makes one attempt after another, falling at every move into a worse case, till at last he rests, like Br'er Rabbit in the embrace of the Tar Baby, in a state of desperation and helplessness, when his class in the capacity of Br'er Wolf appears on the scene. The teacher will presently come to see that what is hardest for himself is not necessarily best for his class, even if he can successfully meet its difficulties. Sometimes a teacher loses his hold upon a class by failure to ascertain what the pupils already know. Boys nowadays pick up many facts from popular books, from the street, from toy shops, and it is no uncommon thing for a boy thus started to be, in many particulars, some years in advance of his text-book, not an unheard of thing for him to know more about certain matters treated in the class than the teacher himself. The difficulty of suiting his instruction to the previous training of the pupils is often a serious one for a college teacher.

The teacher should consider carefully how much direct help he will give to his pupils. Too much is perhaps as bad as too little. It must be remembered that the student grows in strength by doing, not by hearing or seeing. Hard work is necessary for real discipline, but there should be no unnecessary difficulties; let the race-course be made clear and smooth, and then let the runner do his best. The first question is likely to be: Shall I teach solely by text-book and lecture-table experiments, or shall I give to each pupil laboratory work? In answering this question the teacher is likely to be powerfully assisted by the ruling authorities of the institution in which he works, but he may be able to exert a strong influence in the right direction, if he is

energetic and has a definite idea of what he would like to do. It may be safely assumed that the teacher, if he is a teacher of physics from choice and not from mere necessity or convenience, will use his influence in favour of the laboratory plan. The main initial difficulties which he will meet are: (1) The cost of a laboratory and its equipment; (2) the difficulty of providing for the work in the school curriculum; (3) the difficulty of finding time for the proper supervision of the laboratory work. The first of these difficulties is not a very serious one. Elementary laboratory appliances are inexpensive in comparison with the old-fashioned lecture-table apparatus. Five hundred dollars judiciously expended will probably equip the laboratory proper of an ordinary school. If the school is small, this estimate may be greatly reduced. If it is very large, the cost will not be proportionally large, for there is a limit to the number of students that one teacher can manage to advantage in simultaneous laboratory work. A squad of twelve beginners in such work will occupy fully the attention of the teacher for the time being, if he looks after them properly.

The second difficulty is greater. Other subjects have long occupied the school programme and claim vested rights which are not to be lightly interfered with. Persistence and tact on the part of those interested in the physics teaching will be needed in dealing successfully with this particular obstacle. The practical spirit of the time works with them, however, and if the school is a strong and progressive one, the change will come.

The third difficulty is the most serious of all. If the class is large, the laboratory method requires far more of the teacher's time than the lecture-room method. If the class is small, not more than ten or twelve; the difference is not very great, pro-

vided the teacher is not expected to make much apparatus with his own hands. I cannot advise a teacher to undertake laboratory work if he must carry it on, without a teaching assistant, with squads of twenty-five or thirty pupils at a time. This experiment of very large squads has been tried in one or two schools that I know of, and with such results as were to be expected.

While strongly in favour of laboratory work for the whole class, yet I am not one of those who can see no good in the old text book method of instruction, properly supplemented by lecture table experiments. It is a great deal better than no instruction, and, in one respect, that of giving a general connected view of the whole range of physics, it is distinctly superior to the laboratory method, as the latter is sometimes practised. Laboratory work conducted with a mere manual of directions for experiments leaves woeful gaps in the pupil's knowledge. On the other hand, the text-book and lecture-table method used alone gives a comparatively superficial knowledge. The best method is a combination of the two. The student should concentrate his laboratory work upon a few well selected points of attack. These are the battle-fields, and from them the surrounding territory may be swiftly occupied, but occupied it should be. The geological parties of the Harvard summer schools do not undertake to walk over the whole country. They may explore in detail certain portions of eastern Massachusetts, of the Connecticut Valley, the Hudson Valley, perhaps parts of Pennsylvania, but they would certainly miss the full benefit of their labour if they failed to note the general features of the country between these points.

The young student in laboratory work, and the old one for that matter, is in danger of feeling, when his ex-

periment is finished, his observations arranged, and his result calculated, that he is done with the matter. Unless he is well looked after he will fail to draw the moral from his work. He will fail to note its applications and its connection with other parts of the general subject he is studying. It is, I suspect, a very general experience with teachers to be disappointed with the performance of their first class of laboratory pupils when confronted by written questions which they have not specifically dealt with in their experimental work. And so it happens that some teachers object to having a written test applied to the results of laboratory instruction. Of course the valuable mechanical experience and skill which result from school work cannot be shown upon paper, but the degree of intelligence with which the pupil does his experimental work may be ascertained perfectly well by a written test, and to object to such a test is to take an attitude too much like that of an ordinary handicraftsman, who dismisses any question relating to his business, but not touching points absolutely essential to the mechanical performance of his tasks, with the remark: "You are getting too theoretical for me. I'm practical." That spirit is proper enough for the craftsman. In fact, it is the spirit that prevents him from becoming anything more than a craftsman, but it is not the spirit in which boys should be educated. The teacher must see to it that, between the periods of their active occupation with apparatus, the pupils shall have time to think; and he must see to it that they do think. This he can accomplish only by setting them stated tasks that will exercise their brains, and bringing them to book on these tasks.

This seems to be the proper place to say, with regard to a notion that has had a certain vogue, that, if the object

of a laboratory course is to teach physics, the pupil should not be required to make much of his own apparatus. The student who makes his own apparatus is likely to do nothing else. He will spend weeks of time upon trifles and will finish his course with the skill, the pride and the intellectual standards of a jack-at-all-trades. I believe that boys should be taught the use of tools, but the physical laboratory is not the place for such teaching. Manual skill is an extremely useful accomplishment, or rather endowment; I devoutly wish I possessed it. But when I see how those who are distinguished for it are tempted to spend their time in the delight of exercising it to the harm of more important interests, I sometimes fall back with a certain comfort upon the remark of a college class mate, "I wouldn't be a good fiddler for a thousand dollars."

It is equally important that the teacher should not have to manufacture much of the apparatus. His time and strength should not be devoted to manual labour which a mechanic could do more rapidly and better.

I find my justification for the added expense and work of the laboratory method in the increased interest and mental activity of the pupils, whereby the teacher becomes a guide and leader rather than a driver; the stronger hold which the student gets upon the fundamental facts and principles of the science from having come into hand-to-hand engagements with them; the consequent greater command of these facts and principles in the emergencies of life, in the continual study of science, in the practice of a learned profession, in commercial ventures, in the common experience of the ordinary householder. — *Educational Review*.

### EDUCATION.\*

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:*

IF it is "more blessed to give than to receive" this is a blessed audience, for I do not know any class of our people who give so largely in excess of their receipts as the instructors of the young and especially the female teachers.

It gives me great pleasure to stand for a few moments in your presence, and to receive this cordial expression of your respect and interest. It is quite as appropriate, I think, that the President of the United States should review the teachers of the land, as that he should review its army or its militia. For, after all, the strength

and defence of our institutions, not only in peace but in war, is to be found in the young of the land who have received from the lips of patriotic teachers the story of sacrifices which our fathers recorded to establish our civil institutions, and which their sons have repeated on hundreds of battlefields. The organized army of the United States, if we include the militia of the states, is insignificant when put in contrast with the armies of the other great powers of the world. Our strength is not in these; it is in that great reserve to be found in the instructed young of our land who come to its defence in the time of peril. It was not of the brawlers; it was not of the frequenters of the tavern of which our army in the civil war was made, or of which

\* An address delivered before the National Educational Association by Hon. Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States.

our army must be made if any great emergency of war again confronts us. I recall a battle scene. The line was advancing against an entrenched enemy; from behind strong parapets eight double shotted guns belched their missiles of death into the advancing lines; there was a pause that threatened instant retreat, when a stripling soldier, a mother's boy, stepped to the front with cap in air, and cheered the line on to victory. The instinct of patriotism, of moral courage, was triumphant over mere physical daring in that hour and it always will be. It is not simply to give that power that comes from education, but to give it safe direction, that schools are established. He is not a benefactor of his race who develops un— or misdirected power. Therefore it is we must insist that in all our schools the morality of the Ten Commandments shall be instilled. That lessons of due subordination to authority shall be taught. In the family and in the school are the beginnings of this fundamental element of good citizenship—obedience to the law. A respectful deference to public authority; a self-sacrificing purpose to stand by established and orderly administrations in government. I rejoice in nothing more than in this movement recently so prominently developed, of placing the starry banner above every schoolhouse. I have been charged with too sentimental an appreciation of the flag. I will not enter upon any defence. God pity the American citizen who does not love it; who does not see in it the story of our great free institutions, and the hope of the home as well as of the nation. And I think, notwithstanding perhaps a little too much tendency to rote in our public schools, that it is still true that our teachers—and especially the women—are not without sentiment.

I am not here to instruct this con-

vention of instructors. As I have just intimated, it has seemed to me that we were taking on education some of the developments which characterized the mechanic arts. No workman produces a finished product. He gives it a little touch and passes it on to somebody else. I sometimes regretfully recall the days when the teacher left his strong impress upon the pupil by reason of long years of personal intercourse and instruction; universities where the professor knew the members of his class and could detect the fraud when a dummy was substituted. Now we have the little one for a few months in the kindergarten, then pass him on to the primary, and then the graded system catches him, much as a moving belt in a machine shop, and carries him on until he is dumped from one of these great universities as a "finished product." Perhaps the work is so large and the demand for economy so great that this system is inevitable. Perhaps it throws the pupil somewhat more upon himself, and out of this there may come some advantage; but without discussing the relative merits of the old way and the new, let us thank God that this great army of instructors, reinforced by the great body of our citizens, is marching on to reach that great result, when there shall not be found an adult citizen of the United States who is not possessed of an elementary education. There is a just mean, I think, between a system of intellectual competition which destroys the body, and a system of physical training that eliminates the mind. Perhaps the stress is applied too early upon our little ones. I throw out this word of caution to our good lady friends here who have them in charge. Some years ago I was passing down a street in Indianapolis from my residence to my office, and on the way was situated one of our public schools. The children were

just gathering in the morning. As I came near the corner two sweet little girls, evidently chums, approached from different directions, and meeting at the crossing soon had their heads close together, but not so close but that I caught the conversation. One said to the other: "Oh, I had such an awful dream last night." Her sympathizing little fellow put her head still closer and said: "What was it?" "Oh," said the trembling little one, "I dreamed I did not pass." It is safer to allow such little ones to dream, as in my careless country boyhood I was wont to, about bears.

But I have already in this desultory way talked too long. [Cries of "go on, go on."]

That is very kind. I see that motto everywhere about me. It is inscribed over every door in that public institution where I live. There are some proverbs or sayings that we use without any adequate appreciation of what they mean. I never knew what the old story of the "last straw and the camel's back" meant until I was called to exercise the office of President; and you will never know until you have that experience.

It gives me great pleasure to express a sincere personal interest in,

and to commend with whatever official action I can give to it, the great work in which you are engaged. I sympathize with it not only because I see in it the safety of our country, but what is more, perhaps what is the same thing, the safety of society, I sympathize with it and appreciate it because I love children.

I hope all of you may return to your homes and work, with a new sense of and interest in and consecration to it; there is none other like it. It has the power of multiplication. It has an element of life in it that no other work has. It is eternal. It has that communicating touch of intelligence, morality and patriotism which runs from one to another, and which goes, in the elements of character which come to it, to the skies.

If not crowns of wealth, if not the luxury and ease of great fortunes are yours, yours will be a more enduring crown, if it can be said of you that in every touch upon the life of the young you have lifted up. That your meeting here in this delightful place may be accompanied by every incident of pleasure and profit, and that you may find in it a fresh inspiration and dedication to your work, is the wish I leave with you.

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## PERSONALITY IN TEACHING.

BY REV. W. W. GIST.

IT should be the pride of every earnest teacher to have his pupils say in after years, not that they learned so much Greek, or science, or mathematics, from him, but that he inculcated such habits of study as wielded a powerful influence in moulding their very characters. The personal power of a teacher does far more to accomplish this than any so-called methods that he may employ, though methods are not to be ignored.

Great is the inspiration that the student receives from the live teacher with whom he comes in close contact. Hence, many students rush to Eastern universities to secure imaginary advantages.

They do have the benefit of larger laboratories, and finer apparatus generally, and actually receive instruction from men of a world-wide reputation; but the classes are often so large that the personal power of the teacher

does not reach the individual pupil. The inspiration that a student receives from an intimate association with many efficient instructors in our western colleges more than compensates for any advantage he receives in the East. I need not reiterate the truism that every teacher exerts some influence over his pupils in forming character. If it is not good it is bad. The object of this paper is to point out a few of those things in which a teacher's personality will have far more weight in determining his success than all the traditional methods of which he may avail himself.

In the first place, the personal power of the teacher should be manifest in inspiring his pupils with a desire to be independent investigators. I have in mind a young man who distinguished himself at college for his independent inquiries. Whenever a question of importance was sprung, he would examine it from every standpoint, search out all the information that he could find bearing upon it, and then reach a conclusion of value, because it was obtained with care. The man is now a prominent lawyer, and his opinion is of great weight with learned members of the bench, because they know that he never carries on a superficial investigation. The true teacher aims to have his pupils attain this degree of excellence. To do this he must be an earnest, independent thinker himself. He must have respect for the opinions of his pupils, however widely they may differ from his own, and he must lead them to see the correct view instead of simply stating it and then requiring them to accept it on faith. The teacher who ridicules the opinion of a pupil without presenting something better, and presenting it in such a way that he cannot help seeing it, lowers himself to the level of the political demagogue. The whole bearing of the teacher, in the

schoolroom and outside of it, will have far more influence in inculcating the habit of independence than all the preaching he may do on the subject.

In the second place, this personal element is conspicuous in the government of the school. If a teacher is really master of the situation, he is conscious of it and shows his power. If he is not master of the situation, his pupils see it at a glance. Of course, the true teacher governs by moral force. Too many imagine that this must be manifest chiefly in moral lectures and frequent expositions of the Scriptures in the devotional exercises. If the teacher has not great moral force himself, he will do more harm than good in this way. Frequent mistakes are made in giving too many private lectures. A bright boy who is an oracle of wisdom at home wants to make himself conspicuous before the class. He may annoy the teacher and be a bore to the class. Generally it would not be best to have a private interview and tell him of his fault. The wise teacher who has personal power will puncture the boy's bump of egotism and yet not cause him to lose his self-respect. Every pupil soon learns to keep his true place in the class of the real teacher.

Again, a teacher's personality should be seen in original means for accomplishing desirable ends and in practical talent for meeting peculiar and trying cases. Every one who has given any study to the four great military lights of the world—Alexander, Hannibal, Cæsar and Napoleon—knows very well that they were men of foresight, men who studied all the strong and weak points of their opponents, and then prepared to meet them. But, if this had been their only talent, many of their brilliant victories would have been ignominious defeats. They were men of such practical talent that, when an event

took place wholly different from what they had expected, they could decide on the spur of the moment what should be done and thus meet the emergency just as well as if it had been embraced in their original plans. This often changed defeat into victory. We all know that the very presence of Sheridan at Cedar Creek, Sherman at Atlanta, and Grant at Richmond did far more to insure success to our arms at those critical periods than all the treatises on military tactics that have ever been written. This is a talent that every true teacher possesses in some measure. He may use with success certain methods for years, but if he is then thrown in contact with a different class of students, he will change his tactics to meet the case. Teachers often fail from the lack of this talent.

Emerson says in his essay on Character that the biographies of such men as Mirabeau, Philip Sidney, Walter Raleigh and Washington, do not justify our estimate of their genius; that the men were greater than their deeds. He then adds: "The largest

part of their power was latent. This is what we call character—a reserve force which acts directly by presence and without means." What is true of those great men in their spheres, is also true of the great teacher in his sphere. You may read all about the internal workings of the Rugby school for the purpose of getting light on the subject of teaching, and you will be compelled to admit that Dr. Arnold was far greater than all his methods and plans; yes, greater than all the encyclopædias and journals of education that the age has produced. The great power that such men as Socrates and Plato exercised over their followers cannot be accounted for on the ground of the principles that they promulgated alone. Those disciples were so fortunate as to come under the personal power of those giant intellects, and they thus received their inspiration from them. Happy indeed is the student who can sit at the feet of an earnest, wide-awake, enthusiastic teacher and feel the touch of his personal magnetism.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

## MATHEMATICS AS A PART OF A COURSE OF LIBERAL CULTURE.

BY JOSEPH J. HARDY.

**B**UT far more valuable than this useful information is the mental discipline and power which the Mathematics gives. We are not among those who claim that the Mathematics is the greatest of all means of mental training, but we do believe that it trains the mind to certain habits, and gives it a certain power better than any other means, and that there is a kind of training given by it which can be got from the study of no other science.

In the recitations of a class in Algebra we may recognize two distinct

kinds of work at least. One is done when the pupil is demonstrating theorems or rules, the other when he is solving the abstract examples given for practice. The first kind of work is largely deductive reasoning; the latter appears to be quite mechanical in its nature. In a recitation of a demonstration properly conducted, the student is required to state the theorem to be proved, often the plan to be pursued in proving it, give the arguments which make up the demonstration in their proper logical order, and draw his conclusion, all to

be done facing the class, and in clear, accurate and forcible language, and in the spirit of one who has a valuable thought which he wishes to persuade others is true. Here then we have training in the correct and effective use of language, in deductive reasoning, both conditional and unconditional, and in the proper logical and rhetorical arrangement of ideas. It is work similar to that done by the lawyer when arguing his case before the court, to that done by the minister when trying to convince his people that the doctrines he teaches are true, to that done by the statesman when trying to convince his colleagues of the reasonable and beneficent grounds for enacting the new law. Some of these demonstrations look like perfect models of arguments, and properly conducted recitations on them seem to be the best possible exercises in clearness of statement and logical argumentation. It would seem to be impossible to put the student intelligently through them without his markedly increasing his power of clear, accurate and forcible expression as well as his skill and power of reasoning. In an abstract example, however, although the thinking may sometimes given the form of deductive reasoning, yet it is quite mechanical compared with that of Geometry. We sometimes feel as though a machine might be made to do the work with less possibility of error than there is in ourselves. It is not a rare thing to find students with much skill in this mechanical manipulation of symbols who are very weak in the work of demonstration. It is to be feared that there is more attention paid to this second kind of work in some quarters than to the first, and that in consequence the pupils lose the best part of the training that their mathematics ought to give them. Especially do we think it is this second kind of work that is in mind when we hear peo-

ple disparaging the training given by Mathematics.

But of course the best of all training given by Mathematics is that given by Geometry. A careful analysis of the thinking done in demonstrating the Pythagorean theorem by the usual method shows, first, that there is a considerable exercise of the power of invention. New lines have to be drawn which shall divide the figure into new parts having relations to each other and to the parts of the original figure so that by means of of these several relations the parts of the original figure may be compared with each other. Second, there is a much more frequent exercise of the power of holding in mind clearly and at one time several different concepts, and, what is more difficult still, of holding in mind at one time several different relations between concepts. Third, there is an exercise of the power of comparing these several concepts and their relations so as to discover new relations between them. Fourth, there is an exercise of the power of recalling the proper general proposition of which a given statement may be a particular case and drawing the proper inference from these premises. Fifth, there is an exercise of the power of concatenating one syllogism with another until long and parallel trains of reasoning are constructed whose conclusions are to be compared with each other and from which other conclusions are to be drawn.

From this analysis we conclude that the original working out of such a demonstration must train the student's powers of invention, conception and judgment, and his powers of deductive reasoning. It trains the latter as no other study can. When the time for recitation arrives the student is required to write on the blackboard the theorem he intends to prove in accurate, clear, terse and correct language. Then he must

draw a clear and correct figure showing all the parts treated in the demonstration. He must apply the theorem to the figure showing what is given and what is to be proved. He is required to define or explain every term of the theorem until there is left neither vagueness nor ambiguity in its statement. He is required to show that every line which he wishes to draw can be drawn. He must never be allowed to assume as possible what a close scrutiny will show to be impossible. He must state in their logical order all the steps which lead to the conclusion. Every statement in his argument must be challenged, and he must be compelled to fortify it by postulate, axiom, or previously proved theorem. He must never be allowed to hold that he has proved a general theorem when his demonstration has only proved a particular case of that theorem. And thus he must be compelled to make every step that he takes in his demonstration perfectly clear and absolutely certain, so that when he reaches

his conclusion he and his auditors shall feel that though the heavens fall their belief in the truth of this theorem shall never waver. The student that works out such a demonstration knowing that this ordeal must be passed at the hands of a class of very eager and very critical students, led by an alert and intelligent "objector," will examine with the keenest discrimination at his command the meanings of the words he uses and with his soundest judgment the grounds upon which he bases his statements, and will so choose his forms of expression and so marshal the parts of his argument that, if it is possible, conviction of the truth of his proposition shall be inevitable. What better means is it possible to devise for training the critical powers of youth? When this demonstration is delivered, like those of the Algebra, to which we have already alluded, in the spirit of one who is bent upon producing conviction in the minds of his hearers, we have again a most excellent exercise in training for public speaking.—*School and College.*

## THE BREAD-AND-BUTTER EDUCATION.

MARA L. PRATT.

TO-DAY is an epoch in the history of education. The question crowding itself harder and harder upon the attention of the public, upon the educator, upon the student, is, "What manner of education shall serve us best?"

And this is a money-getting age; we are a money-getting people. We have always been that from the beginning—practical we call it, and we like to be practical; we parade ourselves as practical; we approve of ourselves; we thank God we are not as other men are.

This sterling quality—our national quality—perhaps, is ours, as of course

all qualities are, as the result of some natural evolution in our past. Our forefathers wrestling with the elements, the unbroken soil, the unfelled forests, the untrained Indian, needed above all things, no doubt, to be practical, to be sturdy, to wrestle with the problem of life in its material, plain, every-day bread-and-butter facts. And all honour to them that they were brave and enduring, practical and direct in their views and in their achievements.

But is it not possible that we, of this later generation, of this freer, happier period, have given to those qualities which were so essential then

a place in our national structure that they were never intended to have? Have we not made what was once a means now an end? Have we not, like the miser, formed a "habit of thought" which, once a servant, is now our master?

In short, in our mad race for wealth, which we like to call a practical determination of our forces to earning our bread and butter, are we not, as a nation, losing sight of those prizes that are most enduring; flinging aside the higher things that should be dear to the human heart, trampling in the dust the higher, finer, most satisfying gifts that growth and wealth and broader life might have for us?

Nowhere is this golden calf national sentiment of ours making itself more aggressively felt just now than in our educational question of to-day. We are making even education—the one god we might be forgiven for worshipping—bent to this practical, how-to-earn sentiment.

"My boy has got to earn his bread and butter," blusters the work-a-day father.

"Little bread and butter or education either would you get, I reckon, if somebody didn't earn the money!" sneers the bustling buyer and seller.

Very true; but is there not such a thing and such a danger as making a most worthy means degraded by and by into a most worthless end?

Success is what we all are striving for. It is innate, instructive, inherent, universal, like our abstract sense of right and wrong. But like our abstract sense of right and wrong it undergoes, in individuals, as many varieties of modification through education, circumstances, prejudices as there are individuals.

But we need not stop here for an ethical discussion of what true success in life is or might be. We all know what Browning means, when he tells us that "most success is most failure."

History, since the world began, and our own consciences, since we began, have told the truth of success to us one and all.

So to the matter in hand. Too much of the bread-and-butter sentiment in education certainly tends to destroy even the inclination to form or to strive after ideals. And take away the ideal far-off possibility, toward which the artist soul does yearn, and we take out of life the one great factor in the progress of civilization. What is it, if not the fancy, the ideal-worship, that is forever at work, shaping new models, bringing out new designs, greater fulfilments, higher achievements?

"Lower than God who knows all and can all,  
Higher than beasts which know and can so far

As each beast's limit, perfect to an end,  
Nor conscious that they know nor craving more;

While man knows partly and conceives beside,

Creeps ever on from fancies to the fact,  
And in this striving, this converting air  
Into a solid he may grasp and use,

Finds progress, man's distinctive mark alone.

God's gift was man should conceive of truth  
And yearn to gain it, catching at mistake  
As midway help till he reach fact indeed.

Modern education is so largely condemned because it does not fit for life—and by "fitting for life," the objectors mean fitting for some trade or profession in life!

But is this education—is there not a difference between education and training? A skilled, well-trained physician is often not an educated man; among the best-trained merchants, engineers, we may find a sad lack of education. All this comes of specializing too early; narrowing the channels of thought, dwarfing mental growth, concentrating energy upon some one object as the goal to be sought for and won.

And the result of this must inevit-

ably be to bring out youths narrow, prejudiced, sordid, fit neither for citizens, neighbours, or, least of all, parents to direct other little minds yet to come.

Such an education as this may be worse than none at all; for if a youth has none at all he may lie open to conviction by those whom he looks up to as educated; but let him himself have served the requisite number of years in school life, graduated, perhaps, side by side with the liberal student, the historian, the litterateur, and he will feel himself the equal of them all—and will so be shut out from the possible enlightenment which the man with the lesser education might

receive—I mean the lesser training.

The question is a serious one to-day. There is far too strong a tendency to neglect the classics, history, literature—those studies that unfold and bring us into communion with the highest, best thoughts of the greatest souls the world has known—and to substitute in their places those sciences, trades, professions that can be utilized in gold-digging, ore analysis, tunnel building schemes.

Right enough in their place are all these technical and professional schools, but what doth it profit a man if he gain whole worlds of technical training and lose the capability for true education?—*Popular Educator*.

## LITERATURE IN AMERICA.

JOSIAH H. PENNIMAN.

“NEVER,” said Lowell, “was a young nation setting forth jauntily to seek its own fortune so dumfounded as Brother Jonathan when John Bull cried gruffly from the roadside: ‘Stand and deliver a national literature!’ After fumbling in his pockets he was obliged to confess that he hadn’t one about him at that minute.”

For many years the adjective “American” was enough to condemn a book unread. In 1820, however, we may be said to have entered upon a new era, and even so critical an authority as the *Edinburgh Review* was compelled to admit that being American was no longer incompatible with a pure literary style. In speaking of Irving’s “Sketch Book,” it laid great stress upon the fact that it was written by an American and said: “The most remarkable thing in a work so circumstanced certainly is that it should be written throughout

with the greatest care and accuracy and worked up to a great purity and beauty of diction, on the model of the most elegant and polished of our native writers. . . . It is the first American work, we rather think, of any description, but certainly the first purely literary production to which we could give this praise.”

Not until then had pure literature obtained a foothold in this country. This statement may awaken dissent, but a consideration of the subject will show its truth. Some of the books which were published during the first hundred years after the settlement of this country show great ability in some directions, but nearly always accompanied by equally great deficiencies in others. Franklin’s “Autobiography” is, perhaps, the only exception. These books are interesting only from their historical value, since they give us some idea of the modes of thought and feeling and the man-

ner of living which characterized our early history. Most of them were written in New England among the Puritans. Any appreciation of the beauties of nature or art is conspicuously absent and the tone is, almost without exception, that of the Puritan religion. This gloomy spirit gradually grew less and less manifest as the years passed and books began to become more humane and kindly in their views of life, yet there was always a lack of those qualities which we associate with the idea of literature. As late as 1750 we find the theological element still predominant. Not until Franklin's "Autobiography" was written\* had any pure literature been produced here. There, almost for the first time, do we find a style that is in any way comparable to that of the great English masters, and there it is only a reflection of Addison. "The first drudgery of settling colonies is over," said Franklin; "now comes leisure to cultivate the finer arts and improve the common stock of learning."

Englishmen at one time wondered why Americans produced no literature. They seemed to ignore the fact that literature never flourishes unless circumstances are favourable, which was certainly not the case in America during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. What were the conditions under which literature was flourishing in England? At once there rise before our mind's eye the old universities founded a thousand years ago, centuries before America was ever dreamed of. The old cathedrals and historic buildings are records in stone of a past that might well serve to stimulate literary genius. The associations which cluster around every foot of English ground are such as

keep constantly in the mind those thoughts and feelings from which a literature may be expected to arise. The traditions of the race going back many centuries were all in its favour. There was no lack of learning and the æsthetic stimulus indispensable to literary work. Such were a few of the conditions under which literature flourished.

Turn now to our own country and see the absolute blank which it presented. There is only one kind of literature which is inspired and fostered by primeval forests and ocean stretches and that requires mind of a peculiar type quite different from any possessed by our Puritan ancestors. There was no Past, all was future, and literature was never yet known to thrive without a history behind it. Even to-day we lack the æsthetic feelings awakened by old moss-covered buildings hallowed by their traditions of the past. Nothing here can boast of an age exceeding two and a-half centuries, except Nature herself. Nothing is yet so remote as to be softened and mellowed by the haze which antiquity spreads over things and through which we can penetrate only with the imagination. We lack, even to-day, in large measure the literary apparatus of Europe, her libraries, her learned institutions, her race of professed scholars. In our early days we had nothing but the memories of "Our Old Home," as Hawthorne calls England, and the free and independent spirit which led to the founding of the colonies.

The reproach of the lack of literature was, however, destined to be removed. Great authors usually occur in groups, and in America has been the latest instance of it. The soil which for nearly 200 years had been barren and unproductive seemed suddenly to receive those elements which had before been lacking, and a remarkable literary harvest was the

\* It was not published in this country until 1817, and then in a mutilated and altered form. Not until 1867 was it published as Franklin wrote it.

result. The men who constitute the first and as yet the only distinctive period of American literature, belong, almost without exception, to the generation immediately succeeding the Revolution. Periods of national commotion are usually followed by periods of great intellectual activity. Between 1783 and 1800 were born Irving, Cooper, Halleck, Prescott, Bryant and Bancroft, and between 1800 and 1810 were born Emerson, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Poe and Willis. With the addition of but few names, notably those of Motley (1814) and Lowell (1819), these are the men whose writings form the foundation of American literature. When America began to produce literature worthy the name, English appreciation was warm and kindly. At the time when Scott and Byron were engrossing the attention of the reading public, American books were winning the praise of the best critics, and Irving's work, published under his *nom de plume* "Crayon," was seriously attributed to Scott, while Byron said he "knew it by heart, or at least, there is no passage in it to which I cannot immediately turn." Brother Jonathan now "had a literature about him."

Let us now consider briefly American literature with reference to those traits wherein it differs from the work of English authors. We are of the same race as the English and speak the same language. Their history prior to the seventeenth century is our history. Chaucer and Gower, Marlowe and Shakespeare belong as much to us as to them. Our literary work is as truly English literature as is theirs and should be so considered. We measure our books by the same standards and exact from them the same obedience to the laws of literature. Substantially then American literature is English, a fact which English critics are not slow to an-

nounce when any work of particular merit is published here. The average Englishman is apt to associate the term American with those peculiarities of action and novel ideas of life which are so prominent in the works of Bret Harte and others, and he is not alone in this, for there are many who exaggerate the significance of an Americanized grammar and spelling book.\* Let us first point out several things which Americanism in its higher sense is not. American literature does not necessarily concern itself with cowboys, Indians or negroes, although these have in some of our books played important parts. It is not the exponent of a reckless radicalism, although this too may be found in some books. It is not characterized by a disregard of antiquity in underestimating the value of old customs and old forms. Each of these has been pointed out at various times as peculiarly American. That they have appeared in our literature is true, but they have not affected, except incidentally, that work whereby our literature should be judged if at all, for here we must apply a well-known principle of literary criticism and judge a nation, as an individual, only by its best.

The truer and better Americanism, which belongs to the American people and is voiced in their literature, is a far more subtle quality than these, and for this reason is often less noticeable. It represents the growth of centuries in the view which it takes of man in his various relations and in the magnifying of personal qualities by diminishing the importance of external conditions. Something of this spirit may be seen in the use of the

\* Many so-called "Yankeeisms" and "Americanisms" are the survival of English provincialisms and are in their origin distinctly *not* American. For a discussion of this, read the preface to the second part of "Bigelow Papers."

word "gentleman," which in this country has returned to its original signification. The importance of the individual man was never so thoroughly recognized as it is in America. Class distinctions have been obliterated and pure democracy, the dream of the ages, has become a reality, at least theoretically. Religious liberty has become a fact where once a phantom. Toleration in all its forms is limited only by the restrictions necessary for the preservation of the unity and welfare of the whole people and the maintenance of our free institutions. Add to these a certain progressiveness possessed by no other people and you have the most characteristic traits of American thought. American literature is affected by all these things, and as a whole is democratic and progressive in its tone.

The American mind is composite, possessing the mental qualities of several races, and literature, which is one of the channels through which the mind expresses itself, shows the effect of it.

Pure national literatures are to-day impossible in the sense in which they once existed. Electricity and steam are bringing the whole world into the closest union of thought. Translation is making all literature common property, and even national peculiarities are to some extent being worn away by contact with men of other countries.

Cosmopolitanism seems to be the tendency in various departments of human thought and feeling. To consider American literature national in any narrow sense is impossible. It is closely allied with that of England, and the union is growing yet closer. We may well conclude these general remarks by again quoting Lowell, who says, "Not all the waters of that ocean which divides but cannot divorce them can wash out of the consciousness of either nation the feeling that we hold intellectual property in common, that we owe allegiance to the same moral and literary traditions."—*University Extension.*

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### THE RETURN OF GRAMMAR.

THOSE in touch with educational movements recognize clearly that the current of opinion and practice now sets towards the restoration of grammar to its place in the schools. It was swept out by the enthusiasm for language lessons, and the ingenious amused themselves and others by heaping abuses upon the discredited study. Now the unsatisfactory character of the substitute is clearly seen. We have been wasting time over empirical drills, without substance of thought or abiding power. The shallowness and uselessness of much of the language work is apparent. We must seek sounder and more philosophical methods; and thus grammar

comes to honour again. But these movements are not fruitless. Language training has differentiated itself in the minds of teachers from technical grammar, and they have discerned the necessity of providing for a systematic growth of their pupils in the power to express themselves completely and correctly. This idea will be applied to all subjects of instruction. All are means of language training, and in none is the proper result attained until the pupil gets new ideas which he can embody in fairly adequate language. The effort to give training of this sort will not be abandoned, but more fully worked out.

Grammar will come in at its proper stage and for its proper ends. It is a critical instrument. As a body of doctrine its aim is to furnish the pupil with a means of judging and correcting his own speech, and of determining definitely the interpretation, or the several possible interpretations, of written and spoken language. This conception of it affords a test of what should be taught, and of the manner of teaching it, since it emphasizes the proper use of the knowledge. It bars out useless distinctions and the over-refinements to which scientific treatment continually tends. But, on the other hand, grammar is a discipline in logical thinking. It teaches those relations of terms which are also relations of thought, and in tracing them out gives valuable training in clear, adequate, and orderly thinking. The

best scientific men have recognized this value, which Professor Tyndall admirably puts in the following extract: "I hold that the proper study of language is an intellectual discipline of the highest kind. The piercing through the involved and inverted sentences of *Paradise Lost*, the linking of the verb to its often distant nominative, of the relative to its distant antecedent, of the agent to the object of the transitive verb, of the preposition to the noun or pronoun which it governed; the study of variations in mood and tense, the transformations often necessary to bring out the true grammatical structure of a sentence—all this was to my young mind a discipline of the highest value, and, indeed, a source of unflagging delight." — *Wisconsin Journal of Education*.

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### THE HABIT OF OBEDIENCE.

"THE first stage in the growth of character is a habit of obedience," and "the first requisite in the formation of character is some system of authority, command, or law." In other words, there can be no true moral character where there has not been formed the habit of respect for authority, of reverence and obedience for those superior to ourselves in age, or knowledge, or wisdom. It sometimes seems to me, that in the present day the old-fashioned virtue of obedience is somewhat out of favour. In schools we are still driven, in self-defence, to insist upon it. But in not a few homes, if one may judge by the often amusingly naive admission of parents, obedience seems little practised, or if practised, it is the parents who obey the dictates of the children, and not the children those of the parents.

The number of self-willed, independent, Americanized children seems alarmingly on the increase in certain strata of society. We are all familiar with the plea advanced by certain eminent educationists that "authority" is never to be imposed upon a child; that all we have any right to do, is to warn him against a certain action or course of conduct, show him its dangers and its probable evil consequences, and then leave him free to make his choice. The fatal practical difficulties in the way of so dealing with the young will occur readily to your minds.

But besides that there are these practical difficulties, there seems to me to meet us at the very outset one very grave moral objection. Is it not an essential of any high ideal of character that we should learn to trust in others, to believe in the possibility

of other people knowing better than we do, and to submit our will to that of others? All the great things ever done in this world have been done because men were found ready to follow and to obey loyally those in whom they put their trust; nor is this all—those only are fit to command who have learnt to obey. And the only perfect life ever lived on earth was lived by one who came not to do His own will, but the will of Him that sent Him. Obedience is a Divine law; it is the secret of the Divine life. Our children will find their paths beset with briars, and make miserable failures of their lives, if they do not learn, and learn betimes, to respect authority and to yield up their own will.

Now we who are teachers have it in our power to cultivate in the young this fundamental virtue of obedience, and we are not only standing in our own light and running into certain ruin as teachers if we do not set ourselves to do so, but we are rendering it absolutely impossible for us to develop moral character in our pupils. The first lesson we have to teach our children is to obey, and we are worthless, as teachers, if we cannot teach that lesson. You will not understand me to mean that you are to exact from your children a blind, unintelligent, unreasoning obedience. Moral training includes a great deal more than this. A moral habit is only freely formed when the child's mind has come to reflect upon it, and to voluntarily adopt it. And so I would always, in making a law or giving a command, give, if possible, my reason for so doing. To do so, helps obedience immensely; the child sees why you give the command, sees that you are not capricious and arbitrary in so doing, but that you have a reason for what you do, and, on reflection, he goes over to your side, and of himself adopts the course you wish; further-

more, he is flattered by your taking him into your confidence and condescending to explain your reasons to him, and this renders him more loyal to you. There are, however, cases in which you will have to say, "I cannot now tell you why I say this, but I have a good reason for what I say, and you must obey me."

Where a habit of obedience has been formed by wise and reasonable treatment, and where confidence has been established between teacher and pupil, such cases will awaken no conflict. And for the child it is a wholesome discipline that he should learn now and then to yield without knowing why. A habit of obedience is what we have to set ourselves to form; so that to obey may become second nature, and that obedience may be rendered unconsciously. A habit is formed only by the frequent repetition of an act. We have, then, to see that our children always obey us, in little things and in greater things alike; we have to form in them the habit of obedience, not by perpetually talking about it, nor by punishing them for disobedience, but by (1) avoiding friction as far as possible, and, in order to do this, giving only wise, and well considered, and reasonable commands; and (2) by exercising a quiet and patient vigilance, and seeing that our commands are carried out. And again I would say, avoid a hectoring and blustering tone, what is sometimes called by a convenient euphemism, "a tone of command," and always take it for granted that your children mean to obey you—never suppose for a moment that they could possibly think of doing anything else. It would be well for us to try so to bear ourselves towards our pupils as always to convey to them the suggestion that they are, and must be, on the side of law and order and right.—*C. E. Rigg, in the Ohio Educational Monthly.*

## HOW TO BE A GOOD TEACHER.

GOOD health is particularly necessary for the teacher, as the labours of the school-room draw so constantly and heavily on the vocal, mental and nervous forces. Teachers need to be continually on their guard against anything which can interfere with their physical well-being. This precaution has also a moral significance and importance.

Of course the more liberal and thorough the education, the better the foundation on which the teacher's work is based; but there have been many great scholars who have proved very poor teachers, for the possession of knowledge by no means implies the ability to impart it. It is safe to assume that natural talent in this direction is the best possible test of the "born teacher." In addition to what is usually included in a liberal education, a knowledge of the comparatively modern science of psychology is indispensable, familiarity with the laws which control the development of mind, the material upon which the teacher exclusively works. If she succeeds in her work without this knowledge, her success will result "more from good luck than good looking to," or be the outcome of a happy intuition which, unfortunately, few possess. This branch of science has but lately been accorded its pro-

per place in our curricula, but every day strengthens its claim to be considered the corner-stone of every educational structure.

Martin Luther asserted in his cast-iron style of rhetoric: "Unless a schoolmaster knows how to sing I think him of no account." Such a test would materially decrease the number of pedagogues; nevertheless, it is true that such ability is of the greatest service to the teacher. The physical benefit resulting from singing is sufficient reason for its use, even if no other existed; but it is peculiarly valuable as a source of enjoyment to children, and a great aid in the preservation of order. Even a little knowledge of drawing places a mighty power in the hand of the teacher. Nothing so much helps to make instruction clear and impressive as simple and rapid illustration, particularly in the primary grades. At present these two accomplishments—improperly so termed, for they are really essentials—are required in most schools. The children of to-day, who are the teachers of to-morrow, are receiving thorough instruction in these two matters, and experience proves that it is almost as instinctive for them to sing and draw as for a bird to fly.—*Caroline R. Le Roy, in Ladies' Home Journal.*

## OUR PARLIAMENT.

THE British Parliament meets in London in the beautiful palace of Westminster. The word means a parleying or speaking, from the French *parler*, to speak, so we might call the Houses of Parliament our "Talking Houses." It is opened in the House of Lords by Her Majesty in person or her representative; when by the

latter it is said to be opened "by commission." The Queen summons the Commons thither, and lays before the whole assembly a brief statement of the condition of the nation, her relations with foreign powers, and the business which her Government proposes to transact during the session. This is called the "Queen's Speech."

The chief business of Parliament is to make the laws by which the people of the country are governed. When a member of Parliament is anxious that there should be a new law or that an old law should be altered, he asks the other members of the House in which he is sitting to agree to what he proposes. His proposals are printed, and the statement of what he wishes to be done is called a "Bill."

The Bill is then read and discussed, and if most of the members are in favour of the proposal, the other House is asked to give its opinion. The Bill must be agreed to or read by a majority, in both Houses, three different times; these are called respectively the first, second, and third readings. The most important is the "second reading," after which it is considered by the "House in Committee," clause by clause, and fully discussed. Any alterations made upon it are called "amendments."

After the Bill has passed through both Houses of Parliament it receives the Royal Assent, and becomes an "Act of Parliament," taking its place among the laws of the land. All these are printed and published, and anyone may purchase them at a very moderate price. A new law cannot

be made, and no change can be made in an old law, except with the consent of both Houses of Parliament and the sovereign.

If the members cannot agree on any proposal, then the House "divides." All the members leave the House. Those who say "Aye" turn into the lobby and are counted by gentlemen who are named "tellers." Those who say "No" take another lobby and are also counted. The question in dispute is decided by the majority of votes. The list of members, with the side on which they have voted, is known as the "division list." In the House of Lords the two parties are called "contents" and "non-contents" during the division.

The "Commons" have the sole power of introducing money bills, of imposing taxes, and of granting supplies to pay the expenses of Government, and maintain the army, navy, and civil service. They can therefore demand redress of any abuse before they make grants of money, so that the House of Commons is, in fact, the great power in the state. It really appoints and removes Ministers, and makes and unmakes Governments.—*The School Newspaper.*

### ONE BY ONE.

THE Round Table conferences held at the Narragansett Pier meeting of the American Institute of Instruction were a very excellent departure in the routine of convention work. The necessary conditions were favourable, not only for getting at the experiences of individual teachers and superintendents, but they also offered opportunities for the more honest to frankly admit mistakes of judgment. We recall just now the confession of the Principal of the New Hampshire Normal School, to the effect that he

had seriously erred in the past in giving so much time to written examinations. He believed that the object sought to be obtained by these examinations could be better arrived at by other and less objectionable methods, and at no sacrifice of the time, and health often, of the pupil and teacher. As Mr. Rounds is not a man who comes to his conclusions hastily, this bit of evidence is valuable. Moreover, it is very pleasant to learn that others have for some years cared very little about these

examinations as evidences of fitness for promotion, preferring rather that the daily work of the pupil and the judgment of the teacher should govern action in the matter. It is gratifying to us, too, to chronicle the fact that

the new supervisor of the schools of Boston, State Agent Martin, brought his foot down, metaphorically speaking, very heavily upon the exaggerated importance which too many even now give to these examinations.—*Ex.*

## GEOGRAPHY.

THE Seychelles Islands, which include that of Aldabra, about which a question was asked in the French Chamber recently, comprise about thirty small islands lying 1,100 miles east of Zanzibar. Originally discovered by the Portuguese, they were occupied by the French about 1742, seized by a British ship in 1794, and finally assigned to Great Britain at the peace of 1814. Although close to the equator they are very healthy. Mahe is the largest island, and Port Victoria, the capital, is situated on a fine harbour, which is visited by men-of-war and other vessels for coal on their way to Australia. The principal exports are vanilla, cocoa-nut oil, and tortoise shell; but the most remarkable product is the curious double cocoa-nut, *coco de mer*, which grows nowhere else. Population, 16,000.—*The School Newspaper.*

EARLIEST METHODS OF MEASURING TIME.—Long before the time of Alfred, and long before the time of Christ, the shadow of the sun told the hour of the day, by means of a sundial. The old Chaldeans so placed a hollow hemisphere, with a bead in the centre, that the shadow of the bead on the inner surface told the hour of the day. Other kinds of dials were afterwards made with a tablet of wood or straight piece of metal. On the tablets were marked the different hours. When the shadow came to the mark IX., it was nine o'clock in the morning. The dial was some-

times placed near the ground, or in towers or buildings. You see two sun-dials on the Gray and Black Nunnery in Ottawa, the capital of Canada. The old clock on the eastern end of Faneuil Hall, in Boston, was formerly a dial of this kind; and on some of the old church towers in England you may see them to-day. Aside from the kinds mentioned, the dials now in existence are intended more for ornament than for use. In the days when dials were used, each one contained a motto of some kind, like these: "Time flies like the shadow;" or "I tell no hours but those that are happy." But the dial could be used only in the day time; and even then it was worthless when the sun was covered with clouds. In order to measure the hours of the night as well as the hours of the day, the Greeks and the Romans used the clepsydra, which means: "The water steals away." A large jar was filled with water, and a hole was made in the bottom through which the water could run. The glass in those days was not transparent. No one could see from the outside how much water had escaped. So there were made on the inside certain marks that told the hours as the water ran out; or else a stick, with notches in the edge, was dipped into the water, and the depth of what was left showed the hour. Sometimes the water dropped into another jar in which a block of wood was floating, the block rising as the hours went on. Once in a while

some very rich man had a clepsydra that sounded a musical note at every hour. — *Goldthwait's Geographical Magazine.*

THE SELKIRKS.—Mr. Alfred Stone, of Bristol, England, writes: "It is very hard to find a congenial companion, one who has the charm of cheerfulness, and yet that unobtrusiveness which makes his presence not a presence, and whose pulse throbs in unison with that of the spirit of nature. Such a one was my friend George ———, and we determined upon a day's tramp up one of the mountains near camp in the Selkirk Range. Being awakened very early on the eventful morning by the Chinese cook's cheery 'Turn out, boss!' we hastily dress and find that he has not been idle, for the table is well spread with juicy steak from the Kootenay herds, waxy-looking salmon fresh from the great Shuswap Lake, and oranges, bananas and pears from the fruity West. A start is at last made, and we follow a beaten path for some distance. Turning sharply to the left we enter a well wooded valley. The ground rises steadily; our course for a time is alongside a turbid, foaming torrent that hisses and roars in its downward course. As we emerge from the bush we come upon a scene of wildness and destruction that is truly awful. One of the fell February avalanches of snow has stripped a part of the mountain sides of all its vegetation, and here in the valley is the debris. Trees of many kinds and sizes are lying twisted, torn, splintered, smashed, mixed with roots and ponderous rocks, pile on pile, mass on mass, in indescribable confusion. Making a detour, for passage over the wreck is impossible, we enter the bush again. The mossy grass carpets all save at the foot of the trees, while here and there ferns, lilies and wood anemones raise their heads above their green

surroundings. Occasionally can be seen between the dew-laden blades the tempting blush of a strawberry as it coyly peeps from its grassy cover. Some of the trees are giants, four, five, six or seven feet in diameter, and as we look up at the tall trunks swaying with the wind we wonder how old they are. Passing on we come to a strange sight, a huge block, almost cubical, of about 70 feet. The trees all around are very large, and as we look we see that the great stranger had, hundreds of years before, come crashing down from its mountain home. Upon its top is growing a cedar tree of the thickness of a man's arm. Failing to obtain nutriment in the stone, it had thrust its roots down over the face of the rock, and so had tapped the riches of the earth. Turning to the right, and thus leaving the valley, we begin to climb the mountain chosen. The way now is much steeper. Soon we begin to see a difference in the size of the trees, which become smaller as we go higher. The ground is broken and rough, and we climb with difficulty. We find that our haversacks and blankets are much in the way, and, choosing a suitable place, hang them in a tree and leave them there, and then push upward again. We have to pull ourselves up by branches and roots of the trees, or lift each other to points of vantage. At last we reach an eminence well up above the trees and scrub. Below us lies the valley, an embossed carpet of swaying green. Winding down its centre, like a silvery streak, is the far distant foamy torrent. The opposite side of the valley rises higher and higher, until the living green kisses the bluff, weather-beaten rocks of the opposite mountain, which is capped with snow. To our right is a glacier, filling up the top of the valley, and lying between two mountain peaks like a polished mirror, blinding all

eyes by its dazzling reflection, of the morning sunlight. The valley winds to our left until our vision is stopped by the great snow-crowned Hermit range. Fleecy clouds come floating up the valley, leaving behind them thin white trails. Nearer and nearer the cloudy masses come, till one touches our feet, then steals to our breasts, then we are enveloped in the cloud. Higher and higher and we turn to see it climbing the cold gray rocks above us. Higher and then higher, until it hovers upon the summit, and then is gone. Bracing ourselves again to our task, we at last arrive at the top, and find ourselves upon a bare rounded place—here, rough loose stones; there, the cold barren rock—while in every interstice may be seen the ice that never melts. What a sight is ours! What painter could portray its wondrous beauty and grandeur! Through a bushy pass in the Hermits are seen in the distance the snow caps of seven mountains. Below us for many thousand feet, is

the valley 'fresh and green and still,' and across it the white thread of the torrent. Opposite, and towering high above us, is a mighty peak—a great king above them all. The bare rocks above the tree-level frown on all below, while the snow crown glitters above. A cloud steals over the picture, and we can see that it is snowing there. Presently the cloud rolls upward and backward, and forms a dark background to the picture. The weather-beaten face of the giant is changed. Fairy fingers have drawn over it a cobweb veil of silver, and it frowns no more, for the fissures, the partings, the ledges, the furrows, are touched with delicate pencillings of snow. The chill evening winds remind us of our position, and down the slope we scramble until we reach the trees. Lighting a fire, we camp for the night, and, before we sleep, ponder upon the inexpressible magnificence of the spectacle which it has been our privilege to behold."—*The Inland Sentinel* (Kamloops, B.C.).

## PUBLIC OPINION.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS CANNOT SPECIALIZE. — The Eastern school men are just now sitting up nights discussing the propriety of teaching type-writing in the schools. In the reversed order of things which the Columbian business has thrust upon us, you have probably had the discussion and got through with it. I will venture the opinion, however, that there is not so much sense in teaching type-writing in the schools as in teaching the preparation of the ground and the planting of corn. Anyone who can spell correctly, speak grammatically and read understandingly, can learn to do either. The public schools cannot specialize. They meet their responsibilities when they sharpen and quicken all the

faculties and when they equip the human powers for deciding upon a vocation and acquiring special expertness in it. Give girls an equal chance with boys and teach both obedience, punctuality, neatness, some knowledge of themselves and of the rights of others, teach them to spell correctly, to speak grammatically, to write legibly, to read understandingly, teach them the fundamental principles of mathematics, teach them to use their eyes, their ears and their fingers, teach them accuracy in a few things rather than a smattering of everything, and you will measurably have met the demands upon the public schools. Teach them these things anyway. Teach them as much more as time will allow.—*Judge Draper*.

LIBERAL EDUCATION. — What should be the marks of a liberally educated man? I assume that, in common with strong characters who are not liberally educated, he has a vigorous will, by which the downward tendencies of his nature are resisted, and the upward aspirations of his soul are sustained and developed. I say nothing further in regard to his moral qualities, although they are closely related to those of the intellect. Five intellectual powers, as it seems to me, should be the property of every liberally educated man. First, he must have the power of concentration; that is to say, he must be able to hold his mind, exclusively and persistently, to the subject which demands his attention. If this power is exercised in the domain of natural or physical science, it implies the most accurate observation of phenomena—the finest discrimination of the eye; in mathematics, it implies close analysis of all the conditions of the problem considered; in language, it implies the most attentive regard to the significance of terms and propositions. The second power of an educated man is that of distribution. The knowledge that he acquires by close attention is of little value unless it is arranged and classified. His possessions must be placed in the groups where they belong, so that by association they may be at command whenever required. The man who knows a hundred thousand facts which have never been reduced to principles, is like a millionaire whose fortune consists in tons of copper cents. Third, the man of liberal education must have the power of retention; that is to say, he must tenaciously hold and remember that which he has learned. It is not enough that he can look up his acquisitions with effort; he must recollect them readily as occasion arises for their use. Fourth, the liberally educated man must have

the power of expression; that is to say, he must know how to state his thoughts so as to reach the minds of others; and this utterance should be equally good whether the pen or the voice be the instrument of communication. Finally, the educated man must have the power of judging; that is to say, he must be able to make sharp discriminations between that which is true and that which is false, that which is good and that which is bad, that which is temporary and that which is perpetual, that which is essential and that which is accidental. In other words, he must have the power to lay the emphasis where it belongs, and this will soon bring with it the allied moral power of decision, of making a choice between the one side and the other. All this may be summed up in the one word Wisdom. But again, it is not enough to have these powers. The liberally educated man must also have certain possessions, which will be like the capital of a merchant, useful to him for the promotion of his own enjoyment and for the increase of his usefulness. First among the branches of knowledge which he should possess, I would name the knowledge of his own physical nature, especially of his thinking apparatus, of the brain and the nervous system, by which his intellectual life is carried forward. This implies that he should also have a knowledge of the lasting effects of bodily habits upon mental vigour. He ought to know how best to lead an intellectual life, how best to discipline his body by the proper laws of sleep, diet and exercise, and by the right employment of those supports which may be helps or may be curses. Second, he should have a knowledge of his own tongue, of its history and development, of its laws, its idioms, its capabilities, its use. If he knows all the languages of Babel and has not the

command of his own, he is most imperfectly educated. Third, in these days it is important that he should also have a knowledge of other modern tongues. More than two of these would be advantageous, but a liberal education absolutely requires that every English-speaking person should have a knowledge of French and German also. Fourth, a liberally educated man should also be acquainted with the principles and methods of scientific inquiry. Fifth, a liberally educated man should know something of the great literatures of the world. Whether he acquires that knowledge by the study of the original tongues or through translations, he should become acquainted with the masterpieces of poetry, eloquence, history, the drama. Isaiah and Paul, Homer and the Greek tragedians, Dante and Petrarch, Shakespeare, Cervantes, Goethe, should be his

familiar friends; not because he has "read about them" in the biographical dictionary or in the annals of literary history, but because in hours of repose he has read their pages, reflected upon their thoughts, and given himself up to their inspiring influence. Sixth, the liberally educated man must have a knowledge of the experiences and opinions of mankind. He must know the intellectual history of his race, the slow and wearisome steps by which civilization has advanced from the dawn of our institutions and ideas down to the discussions of our own day. It is obvious that a "liberal" education is not to be limited by the period devoted to a college course or a course in technology. It begins in the nursery, it goes on in the domestic circle, it continues through school, college and university, it only ends with life.—*Educational Review.*

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### NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

**A HAPPY LAND.**—Thank God for Canada. People who live here and never lived anywhere else do not know how much they have to be thankful for.—*Toronto Telegram.*

**CLASS MANAGEMENT.**—In instructing do not always conduct a class recitation in the same way. Some teachers are governed so entirely by routine that their pupils can almost calculate to a certainty the next action and word. When pupils are busy with mechanical work as in solving problems or writing exercises, generally let them work independently of you, always of each other; but sometimes observe their work as it proceeds, for in this way you may study mind action. When pupils are left too much to themselves, we do not know how much of that which they produce correctly is by accident. We

should avoid the other extreme of helping pupils too freely; help them to help themselves. It is better not to call on the poorest scholar at the opening of the recitation, for it produces discouraging results and clogs the progress of the lesson; nor should we call on the bright pupils altogether; the effect is not good on their minds while the minds of the dull ones remain inactive. Be patient with slow pupils; if one does not respond to your question, shape it differently, try to adapt it to his mind, search for his known, and then, gradually retrace your steps to the original inquiry. Always put your questions to the entire class; name the one to answer afterward; this serves to hold the attention of all. Usually name the pupils; do not say, "who knows?" The tendency is for some to neglect to try and summon their little stock

of knowledge. Sometimes put a question and incite ambition by asking, "How many know?" or "Who knows?" Have but little concert recitation and never except in review to enliven the class. Insist on attention but seek rather to win than to enforce it. Be sure the attention is genuine and not feigned. Questions addressed to such as may feign attention will test the quality of it. Do not measure the success of a recitation by the glibness of the answers; the quality of a recitation should be measured by the thought it has developed in the minds of the pupils. Lay stress on endeavour; one pupil may gain more development of mind by trying to answer though he fail, than another does by answering correctly. Have an aim in every recitation, and judge at its close how much you have accomplished in real mind work in the pupils. Commence every recitation with a review; this may be brief, but it should be certain. If possible, close every recitation with a review of the main points of the lesson.—*Intelligenc.*

THE JERUSALEM RAILWAY.—Recently the new railway between Jaffa and Jerusalem was thrown open for regular traffic. Jaffa—the Joppa of Scripture—is situated on a tongue of land projecting into the Mediterranean, and is a town of about ten thousand inhabitants. In Bible times it was the seaport of Jerusalem, and it was there that the cedars for the construction of Solomon's costly and stately temple were landed. Like Jerusalem, it has been for centuries in the possession of the Turks, and the most notable event in its modern history was its bloody siege by Napoleon in 1799. Jerusalem contains a population of 30,000; half of whom are Moslems and the other half Jews and Christians in about equal numbers. Of late years it has been show-

ing many signs of new life, and the completion of the railway, which was begun in 1890, will probably impart considerable stimulus to its business interests. The railway is about thirty-one miles in length, and terminates half a mile from the walls of the Holy City. The road from it into the city crosses the Valley of Hinnom and passes the Pool of Bethesda. All in all, the opening of the Jerusalem railway is an important event in the history of Palestine, and doubtless marks the beginning of great and significant changes. The thrill of modern civilization has at last reached the land so sacred in its association to the Jew and the Christian, and if the demoralizing rule of the Turk could be only abolished, and an enlightened and progressive government be substituted for it, Palestine might recover something of its olden and political importance. But the day of the "unspeakable Turk" is slowly waning. Nothing but the jealousies of great European powers keeps him at Constantinople, and it would not be at all surprising if the dawning of the twentieth century should see him dispossessed of the remnants of his much abused power, and the Cross supreme above the Crescent, as in the days long fled. The introduction into the Holy Land of European thought and activities will destroy something of its picturesqueness for many eyes; but the changes that it is now undergoing can hardly help being for the better. Another invasion of the East by the West seems to be at hand, and it bids fair to be a vastly more beneficent one than that marked by any of the crusades for the recovery of the sepulchre of Christ.—*Our Country.*

SHALL A TEACHER SIT WHILE TEACHING?—"Chairs in a school-room are for ornament as far as the teacher is concerned." The fascinating blond superintendent hurls this

thunderbolt at the county convention, then goes on serenely detailing the qualities of "The Model Teacher." Some of his brothers grin approval. A proportion of the common crowd toss their heads delightedly. The greater number look surprised—yes, distressed—while the bad boy in the gallery chuckles audibly. Shall a teacher ever sit while teaching? Miss De Nerve flits into school in the morning, and until the last gun is fired is one bundle of animated springs. She is "all over" that room at once. The smallest child in the front row is rescued from a bog of difficulty one instant. The next, Jimmy Brown in the back row becomes conscious that she has borne down upon him. His cherished jewsharp that he was enjoying under his desk has disappeared. But lo! Miss De Nerve is in the farther corner. One moment she is by the door. She flits up and down the aisles. The dressing-room holds her for a second. She paces the length of the space before her platform while giving out dictation or questions in geography and history. Her children start a little when she rushes by, though they are used to it. They cannot stand quietly to recite or work at the board. It is a restless, fidgety school and the pupils are tired out long before four o'clock. Occasionally a child complains that he cannot study—has no chance to. Miss Ready is a quiet, controlled body and has a quiet school. She does not often leave her position at the front. Her pupils come to her. She never sits; she is always there. A sense of awe frequently steals over the class. Like an ever present fate she stands, and one cannot escape that eye. She is always leading, always directing—nobly often, but always a solitary figure. The "Come let us live with our children" has no place in her conscious plans. Miss Conscientious

stands all day because she is told it is proper. Of course she aches from head to foot, long before dismissal. She often consults a physician who invariably suggests a reform. But she never takes it. "Chairs in a school-room are for ornament, as far as the teacher is concerned." On the other hand, there are teachers who seem glued to their chairs, and a lazy, listless school is the result. What is the truth in the matter? Is it not to gain and hold the attention so that no one will think what your position is? The standing position is in itself an assistance and for some exercises cannot be avoided. Physical exercises, writing, drawing, certain lines of experiment, and any teaching that requires black-board work must necessitate standing. It is well, however, that teachers, notwithstanding the blond superintendent, should sit every possible opportunity. It may be more difficult to hold the attention at first; yet who has not observed the almost perfect attention of the kindergarten, where the teacher invariably sits while developing a lesson? The best work we have ever seen in any school was done by a teacher who did not leave her chair during a lesson in number remarkable for its strength and briskness. She had every eye, the whole and undivided attention. There was not one waver, one sign of flagging, from beginning to end. We asked her about it. "I had to do it," she said frankly, "I could not teach if I did not alternate my standing and sitting. It was a physical necessity. Of course I could lose all the attention if I were not careful. I saw that, so I did not rest until I could hold it as well in one as another position." "How do I do it? Can't tell you, but anyone who tries will find out." A good deal of will-power, careful preparation, calmness, a sense of being with the children. "O! I can't tell you. Try it."—*The Teacher.*

## EDITORIAL NOTES.

WE thank the many-friends of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY who send to us for sample copies of this magazine, and expect that they will send us many names of new subscribers before the end of 1892. Sample copies are free.

## EXAMINATIONS.

THE subject of examinations, to which we devoted considerable space in the October number of this magazine, we find, from our exchanges, is attracting much attention on the part both of the profession and the public press. We will be pleased to hear from teachers and others interested in this matter, and to publish any suggestion which may be made in connection with this important question.

## TENNYSON.

INSTEAD of taking up space in referring at length to the loss sustained by the world of English letters in the removal of the poet, Lord Tennyson, we direct the attention of our readers to an article by

Prof. William Clark, Trinity, which first appeared in *The Week*. Again we recommend our readers to procure a copy of Dr. Van Dyke's book, *The Poetry of Tennyson*. This book we reviewed about two years ago and is published by the Scribners, New York.

## THOUGHT-CHILDREN.

JULIA H. MAY.

As in a lively child, the mother's face  
Is oft repeated; every lineament  
In greater harmony; the colours blent  
And features chisled with a finished grace  
Surpassing the original; while yet we trace  
The mother's image there; the same, yet different;  
More beautiful, yet hers: so, I am confident,  
Whenever earnest thoughts find fitting place  
In other hearts, and make new thoughts arise,  
To end in deeds, more grand than we could do;  
Twixt these and those a certain semblance lies,  
Which tells their kinship — Those who wondering view  
These acts that lift our pupils to the skies,  
Shall sometimes say, "They learned these things of you." —*Education.*

## SCHOOL WORK.

## CLASSICS.

## QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR—BOOK III.

BY PRINCIPAL STRANG, Collegiate Institute,  
Goderich.

Translate chapter 4, "*Nostris primo . . . dabatur.*"

1. Parse *hoc, defessi, sanctio, constiterat.*
2. Account for the case of *viribus, defensoribus, diuturnitate, prælio, rerum,* respectively.

3. Write a brief note on the historical infinitive, illustrating your answer from this passage.

4. *Sui recipiendi.* Point out the grammatical peculiarity, and account for it, if you can.

5. *Dabatur.* Why this tense rather than *datura est*?

6. *Ut videbatur.* When is *ut* usually followed by the indicative, and when by the subjunctive?

7. *Non modo*. Give, if you can, any principle governing the omission of *non*, as here, after these words.

8. *Ne quidem*. What caution to be observed in using these words?

9. What peculiarity in regard to the inflection of *viribus*, *loco*, *castrorum*, *ullum*, *nihil*, respectively?

10. Decline *quæque pars* throughout, and write 3rd singular future indicative and present subjunctive of *ferre*, *fieri*, *poterat*, *videbatur*, *dabatur*.

Translate chapter 9, "*Pedestria esse . . . perspiciebant.*"

1. Parse *æstuariis*, *dintius*, *plurimum*, *aliûm*, *perspiciebant*.

2. *Confidebant*. Conjugate. What are such verbs called? Name and conjugate any others you remember.

3. Explain the term "periphrastic conjugation," and give an example from the passage.

4. *Novisse*. What peculiarity in regard to the use of this tense of this verb? Mention, if you can, any similar instances.

5. *Acciderent*, *essent*. Account for the use of the subjunctive in each case.

6. Exemplify from the passage the formation of nouns from verbs and adjectives.

7. *Acciderent*. Distinguish from *acciderent*, and account for the difference in quantity.

8. *Navium*. Mention three classes of words of the 3rd declension that make genitive plural in *ium*.

9. Name and distinguish the different words Cæsar uses for army.

10. Give the corresponding singular or plural forms of *pedestria*, *itinerâ*, *concluso*, *mari*, *eorum*, *locorum*, *ullum facultatem*, *nostros exercitus*.

FOR SIGHT TRANSLATION.

1. "Tum Cæsar, omnibus portis eruptione facta, equitatuque emisso, celeriter hostes dat in fugam, sic uti omnino pugnandi causa resisteret nemo; magnumque ex iis numerum occidit, atque omnes exiit." (Bk. V., ch. 51.)

2. "Reliqui, qui se in castra receperant, unde egressi erant, ægre ad noctem oppugnationem sustinent; noctu ad unum omnes,

desperata salute, se ipsi interficiunt. Pauci exproelio elapsi, incertis itineribus per silvas ad Titum Labienum legatum in hiberna perveniunt, atque eum de rebus gestis certiores faciunt." (Bk. V., ch. 37.)

GRAMMAR AND PROSE.

1. Give the principal parts of *relictam*, *exquirere*, *scindere*, *fusis*, *consuerunt*, *retentos*, *arcessunt*, *apertus*.

2. Nominative genitive and gender of *salutem*, *vulneribus*, *remiges*, *facinus*, *aedificiis*, *vico*, *lapides*, *armis*.

3. Compare *diutius*, *celeriter*, *extremum*, *maxime*, *sæpius*.

4. Mark the penult of *Oceano*, *demoror*, *mercator*, *dividit*, *conjurat*, *repentini*, *convocat*, *desperant*.

5. What compounds of *eo* are transitive? What prepositions usually make an intransitive verb transitive when compounded with it?

6. Conjugate the compounds of *facio* with *ex*, *ædes*, and *patéo*, and give the passive form of each.

7. Translate *eruptione facta* in as many ways as possible.

8. Translate "Saying this" into Latin in as many ways as possible.

9. State, illustrating your answer by referring to Nos. 7 and 8, two of the chief differences between Latin and English in regard to the use of participles.

10. Translate into Latin:

(a) We shall collect as many soldiers as possible from the neighbouring states.

(b) Let us inform the consul that the Gauls are assembling to attack the Roman camp.

(c) He gave them no opportunity of setting fire to the boats.

(d) In these two battles more than 15,000 Gauls were slain by our men.

CLASS-ROOM.

THE HIGH SCHOOL PRIMARY, 1892.

ALGEBRA AND EUCLID.

Examiners: N. F. Dupuis, M.A.; William Jones, M.A.; Iva E. Martin, B.A.

1. Multiply

$$1 + x(1-2x) + x^2(1-2x)^2 + x^3(1-2x)^3 + x^4(1-2x)^4 + \dots \text{ by } 1-x+2x^2,$$

carrying the product to the term containing  $x^4$ .

2. The Dividend is  $y^3 \cdot y^{\frac{1}{2}} + 2y^2 - 3y - 2$ , the Quotient is  $y \cdot y^{\frac{1}{2}} - y^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1$ , and the Remainder is  $3y^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1$ . Find the Divisor.

3. What must be added to  $(a+b+c)(ab+bc+ca)$  to make it evenly divisible by  $a+b$ ?

4. Put  $4a^2b^2 - (a^2 + b^2 - c^2)^2$  into four factors.

5. Put into four factors

$$(x+2)(x+6)(x+4+\sqrt{6})(x+4-\sqrt{6}) - 15.$$

6. Find the H. C. F. of

$$2x^4 + x^3 - 3x^2 - x + 1 \text{ and } x^4 - 2x^3 + x^2 + 2x - 2.$$

7. Simplify

$$\frac{(1+ab)(1+ac)}{(a-b)(a-c)} + \frac{(1+bc)(1+ba)}{(b-c)(b-a)} + \frac{(1+ca)(1+cb)}{(c-a)(c-b)}.$$

8. Find  $x$  when  $(x-a)^2(1+ax) = (x+a)^2(1-ax)$ ; and prove that the value you get satisfies the equation.

9. How much are eggs a dozen when a rise of 20% in their price makes a difference of 50 eggs in the number sold for \$5?

10. (a) From a given point draw a line equal to a given finite line.

(b) Make the foregoing construction when the given point is the middle point of the given line.

11. (a) Bisect a given rectilinear angle.

(b) Show that the bisector of the vertical angle of an isosceles triangle bisects the base at right angles.

12. (a) An exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either of the interior opposite angles.

(b) The line  $ECA$  meets the two lines  $AB$  and  $CD$  so as to make the angle  $BAE$  equal to the angle  $DCE$ . Show that  $AB$  and  $CD$  will not meet if produced ever so far.

13. (a) If  $ABC$  and  $A'B'C'$  be two triangles having  $AB=A'B'$ , and  $AC=A'C'$ , but the angle  $A$  greater than the angle  $A'$ , then  $BC$  is greater than  $B'C'$ .

(b) If  $AB$  be made to coincide with  $A'B'$ , show that  $B$  does not lie on the perpendicular from  $A$  to  $CC'$ .

#### ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND RHETORIC.

Examiners: W. J. Alexander, Ph.D.; J. E. Bryant, M.A.; F. H. Sykes, M.A.

NOTE.—In section A candidates will take numbers 1, 2 and 3, and any two of numbers 4, 5 and 6. In section B candidates will take number 7 and either 8 or 9.

#### A.

Pansies, Lilies, Kingcups, Daisies,  
Let them live upon their praises;  
Long as there's a sun that sets,  
Primroses will have their glory;  
Long as there are Violets,  
They will have a place in story;  
There's a flower that shall be mine,  
'Tis the little Celandine.

Wordsworth: "To the Small Celandine."

1. Analyze the above sentence so far as to shew the various clauses of which it is composed. Indicate the grammatical relations of the clauses, and assign to each clause its appropriate grammatical name, shewing why it is appropriate.

2. Describe clearly the grammatical relation of:—

"Pansies" (line 1), "them" (line 2), "sun" (line 3), "there" (line 5), "They" (line 6), "mine" (line 7), "'T" (line 8), "Celandine" (line 8).

3. (a) Define what is meant by Phrase in grammar.

(b) Pick out the phrases to be found in the extract (other than the verb-phrases). Shew clearly what grammatical functions these phrases respectively perform. Attach to each phrase selected its appropriate grammatical name, shewing clearly why it is appropriate. Where possible give for each phrase a one-word equivalent.

4. (a) Define what is meant by verb-phrase. Why are verb-phrases needed in English?

(b) Pick out the verb-phrases to be found in the extract. Describe the particular grammatical function which each verb-phrase in the extract performs. Thence assign to each verb-phrase used its appropriate grammatical name.

(c) Write out a scheme, using the verb *to strike*, shewing to what extent verb-phrases

are used in English. Give to each verb-phrase in your scheme its appropriate name, and shew why it is appropriate.

5. (a) Shew by comparing the meanings of "will" and "shall" as used in lines 6 and 7, and also by comparing the meanings these words have when they are interchanged in these lines, what is the difference between the correct uses of "will" and "shall" generally.

(b) Supply the word or words necessary to make plain the connection in thought between the last two lines of the selection and the preceding portion of it. When this ellipsis is supplied, explain whether the grammatical relations of the clauses of the selection are altered or not.

(c) In line 7 the verb *to be* is used in two distinct senses: one, "relational;" the other, "notional." Point out and explain these differences of use; and also point out in the selection the other examples of the same difference.

6. "their praises" (line 2). (a) Shew clearly what is the grammatical function of "their" as here used: Hence give to the word an appropriate grammatical name, shewing why it is appropriate. Why is it that "their" and some other words like "their" are sometimes spoken of by grammarians as being of one part of speech, and sometimes spoken of by them as being of another?

(b) Shew by a paraphrase that the relation of "their" to "praises" is objective. What would you say of the relation in this respect of "their" to "glory" in line 4?

(c) Give a reason why the poet writes "Lilies," "Kingcups," "Daisies," "Violets," "Celandine," with capital letters.

B.

I was always fond of visiting new scenes,  
 . . . . and waft myself in imagination to  
 the ends of the earth.  
 Washington Irving: "The Sketch Book."

7. (a) Give in a word or phrase (i) the subject of the whole extract; (ii) the subject of each of the various parts into which the selection may be divided.

(b) Show that Irving follows a regular order of development in presenting the thoughts of the selection.

(c) (i) What is the object of paragraph divisions? (ii) On what principle are paragraph divisions made? (iii) Justify the paragraph division as made above.

8. (a) Point out what is peculiar in the meaning of the following phrases as used in the selection.

(b) Why is the author justified in using these phrases as he does?

(i) "Tours of discovery," (ii) "foreign parts," (iii) "a ghost seen," (iv) "their sages and great men," (v) "terra incognita."

(c) Show the difference in meaning between the following words:—

(i) "emolument" and "profit," (ii) "observations" and "observances," (iii) "rambles" and "wanderings," (iv) "habits" and "customs," (v) "conversing" and "talking," (vi) "wistfully" and "eagerly," (vii) "lessening" and "departing."

9. (a) Select from the following rhetorical terms those which in your opinion best describe the nature of the style of the selection: simple in thought, simple in diction, abstruse, clear, obscure, concise, verbose, picturesque, varied, monotonous, lively, lofty, humorous, witty, elegant, melodious, pathetic.

(b) With each one you select, give briefly the grounds for your judgment.

PHYSICS.

Examiners: G. Chambers, B.A., M.B.; J. J. MacKenzie, B.A.; A. C. McKay, B.A.

1 (a) Make a list of the distinguishing general properties of solids, liquids and gases.

(b) How could you prove experimentally that the air exerts a pressure of nearly 15 pounds per square inch on the surface of all bodies with which it is in contact?

2. (a) From what observations do you conclude that sound is not instantaneously propagated?

(b) What reasons can you give in support of the statement that sounds of low and high pitch travel at the same rate?

3. (a) How would you conduct an experiment to show that the pitch of a sound depends only upon the rate of vibration of the sounding body?

(b) Account for the throbbing sensation produced when a tuning-fork is moved towards a near wall.

4. (a) State the laws of reflection of light.

(b) Describe some experiments by means of which they may be accurately verified.

5. (a) What is meant by the *principal focus* of a lens?

(b) Show how to place a condensing lens and a candle before an eye so that an erect magnified virtual image of the candle may be seen.

6. (a) Show by means of a carefully drawn diagram why a straight stick appears bent when partly immersed obliquely in water.

(b) Show that a convex spherical mirror always forms a diminished erect image of an object placed before it.

7. (a) Describe the construction of any common two-fluid cell.

(b) State any applications for which the cell described is peculiarly adapted.

8. (a) Name the essential parts of a simple telephonic circuit.

(b) Make a careful drawing of a telephone receiver, showing all its parts, and state the action of each part.

#### LATIN GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

Examiners: A. J. Bell, M.A., Ph.D.; J. Fletcher, M.A.; W. S. Milner, B.A.

1. Write down the ablative singular of *omnis obses*, the genitive singular of *tota caedes*, the genitive plural of *proelium acrius*, the positive and superlative of *celerius* and *magis*.

2. Write down the participles, naming them, of *cognosco*; the infinitives, naming them, of *fin*; the 3rd person plural of all tenses of the subjunctive active of *conseruo*; and the future indicative active, 1st singular of *transseo*.

3. Explain clearly the mistake in translating

(a) "Having assembled the troops, he set out," by "Copiis conventis profectus est."

(b) "Having arrived there, he wrote to Labienus," by "Eo perventus ad Labienum scripsit,"

and rewrite the Latin in correct form.

4. Explain the construction of the italicized words in the following sentences:—

(a) *Celerius nostra opinione venit.*

(b) *Quaesivit quid in bello possent.*

(c) *Aegre eo die sustentatum est.*

(d) *Reperit Nervios nihil vini pati inferri.*

(e) *His persuaderi ut diutius morarentur non poterat.*

(f) *Numidas subsidio oppidanis mittit.*

(g) *Manipulos laxavit, quo facilius gladiis uti possent.*

(h) *Dat negotium Senonibus, uti ea quae apud eos gerantur cognoscant.*

(i) *Ad haec Caesar respondit: se civitatem conservaturum si prius quam aries murum attigisset se dedidissent.*

5. Translate into Latin:—

(a) After marching for ten days through their country he pitched his camp by a river.

(b) On the return of the cavalry to camp, while the auxiliaries were a good way off, word came that the enemy were approaching.

(c) There was no time even for putting on (*induo*) their helmets (*galea*). He had to do everything at once.

(d) Accordingly, drawing up his men and ordering the gates of the camp to be closed, he sent out a horseman to ascertain the number of the enemy.

#### LATIN AUTHORS.

Translate:—

*Ab his castris oppidum Remorum nomine . . . nisi subsidium sibi submittatur, sese diutius sustinere non posse.*—Caesar B. ii., cap. 6.

1. Parse *nomine*, *coeperunt*, *defensoribus conicerent*, *oppido*, *submittatur*.

2. *Oppugnatio*. Compare the method here described with that in use among the Romans.

3. *Coepti sunt*. Why is the passive used here?

4. Derive *succedunt*, *subruunt*, *subsidium*, *submittatur*, *sustinere*, showing the exact meaning of the prefix in each word.

5. Rewrite in direct oration: *nisi subsidium sibi submitatur, sese diutius, sustinere non posse.*

Translate:—

*Sub vesperum Cæsar . . . oppido eruptionem fecerunt.*—Cæsar B. ii., cap. 33.

6. Give reasons for the use of the mood in *claudi, acciperent, crediderant, postulabat.*

7. *Illi.* Relate what Cæsar tells us of the people mentioned here.

C.—(Sight Translation.)

Translate:—

*Probat rem senatus . . . atque in ulteriore Galliam pervenit.*—Cæsar de bello civili B. i., cap. 33.

*probare*—to approve; *munus*—a charge; *recusare*—to decline; *subjicere*—to instigate; *distrahere*—to frustrate; *instituere*—to determine; *infectus*—unaccomplished; *destinare*—to intend.

8. Parse *mittendis, habiturum, instituterit, cognito, pervenit.*

9. Mark the quantity of the penult. in *senatus, timoris, discedens, distrahat, reliquum* and *pervenit.*

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT:  
IV.—LEGISLATIVE POWER.

PETER MCEACHERN, B.A.

(Continued.)

The Senate—Summons of Senator:

24. "The Governor-General shall from Time to Time, in the Queen's Name, by Instrument under the Great Seal (a) of Canada, summon qualified Persons to the Senate; and, subject to the Provisions of this Act, every person so summoned shall become and be a member of the Senate and a Senator."

NOTES:

(a) The attachment of the Great Seal is *prima facie* authenticity of the Instrument or document.

This section refers to the ordinary mode of appointing Senators, at ordinary times.

Appointments under section 24 are made upon the recommendation of the Cabinet.

Summons of First Body of Senators:

25. Such Persons shall be first summoned

to the Senate as the Queen by Warrant (a) under Her Majesty's Royal Sign Manual (b) thinks fit to approve, and their Names shall be inserted in the Queen's Proclamation of Union.

NOTES:

(a) Warrant: a written instrument.

(b) Her Majesty's Sign Manual: the Queen's name written by herself.

Along with s.-s. 24 and 25 it is important to keep in mind that we are under Cabinet Government, that the Cabinet or Ministry is responsible to the country for appointments to office and therefore that appointments are neither made nor refused, by the Queen or by the Governor-General, in England or in Canada, in opposition to the recommendation of the Cabinets, except for very grave reasons. In the notes under s.-s. 26 and 27 will be found the record of one such refusal with reasons.

Addition of Senators in certain cases:

26. "If at any time on the Recommendation of the Governor-General the Queen thinks fit to direct that Three or Six Members be added to the Senate, the Governor-General may by Summons to Three or Six qualified Persons (as the case may be), representing equally the Three Divisions of Canada, add to the Senate accordingly."

Reduction of Senate to normal number:

27. "In case of such Addition being at any Time made, the Governor-General shall not summon any Person to the Senate, except on a further like Direction by the Queen on the like Recommendation, until each of the Three Divisions of Canada is represented by Twenty-four Senators and no more."

NOTES:

In the contest between the Parliament and the Crown at the time of Charles I., Pym advanced "The Theory of Constitutional Proportions," namely, that as an element of constitutional life, Parliament is of higher value than the Crown, and that in Parliament itself the essential part is the Commons. The first part of this theory has been tacitly embodied in the British Constitution since the accession of William III. The second part

since 1712, when the Whig majority in the House of Lords was swamped by the creation of twelve Tory peers, thus bringing the House of Lords into harmony from the standpoint of party, with the Commons. Sections 26 and 27 provide for a limited application to the Canadian Senate of the mode by which the British House of Lords is, when necessary, brought into harmony with the House of Commons.

Senators, under s.-s. 26 and 27, must be appointed in equal numbers from Ontario, Quebec and the Maritime Provinces respectively.

About 1877 the Queen refused to appoint additional Senators under section 26. The despatch from the British Government on the subject stated that: Her Majesty could not be advised to take the responsibility of interfering with the constitution of the Senate, except on an occasion when it had been made apparent that a difference had arisen between the two houses of so serious and permanent a character that the Government could not be carried on without the intervention and when it could be shown that the limited creation of Senators allowed by the Act would apply an adequate remedy.

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## CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

THE *Youth's Companion* continues a weekly pleasure in every household where it appears. Not only are the stories stirring and interesting, but they possess a sensible strain often sadly lacking in children's stories. The management is to be congratulated on the articles they furnish from noted people. The medical hints on the last page are of great value.

MRS. RITCHIE'S fascinating chapters from some unwritten memoirs are being reproduced in *Littell's Living Age*. The issue of the 22nd October contains allusions to the English Humorist readings, and two letters from Carlyle. "How to Drive Home Rule Home" (*Fortnightly Review*) and "The Statesmen of Europe" (*Leisure Hour*) are among the valuable articles in this number.

THE *Toronto Saturday Night* announces in its last issue the arrangements for a Christmas number. The illustrations and supplements are said to be particularly fine by those who have seen them. The excellence of the stories promised is attested by such well known names as George Parsons Lathrop, Julian Hawthorne, John Habberton and Octave Thanet. Edmund E. Shepard is to contribute a story of Mexican life; the only other Canadian contributor is Miss Ida Burwash. This is an entirely new venture for Canada, and we heartily wish it the success it deserves.

THE *Dominion Illustrated Monthly* announces an attractive Christmas number to be ready the end of November. Besides the all-important supplements, Canadian authors such as Charles G. D. Roberts, Prof. Le Moine and J. Macdonald Oxley will be contributors. We bespeak for the number a hearty welcome.

THE October number of the *Century* completes another year. Three important series of articles and Miss Foote's serial are brought to a conclusion. Many a rich treat is promised for next year, including continued stories by Mrs. Burton Harrison and Wolcott Balestier. To the present number Archibald Forbes contributes a paper on "What I Saw of the Paris Commune."

"A FAMILIAR Talk on Books and Reading" is a valuable paper by Prof. C. F. Richardson in the *Sunday School Times* of October 22nd. Mrs. Merrill E. Gates contributes a short but fine article on the "Nearest Way to the Celestial City." Mrs. Crafts has a paper on the "Kindergarten and the Sunday School." "Worth Repeating" still flourishes among the advertisements.

"PAYNE'S History of America" receives the leading review in the *Critic* of October 22nd. It is rather a serious issue, dealing almost exclusively with Theological and Scientific works. But there are many fine

and timely allusions to the dead poet, whose name is now in all men's mouths. The pleasure derived by a lover of literature from the weekly appearance of the *Critic* is hard to overestimate.

A RECENT issue of the *Week* contained a valuable paper on Lord Tennyson by Prof. Clark which readers of THE MONTHLY will find reproduced in this number. In the issue of the 21st there is a condensation of the first of a series of lectures to be delivered by Prof. Clark on Tennyson's poetry, the first lecture being on his early poetry. "Two Knap-sacks," the novel of Canadian life, which has been appearing in the *Week*, is concluded. Prof. Dyde, of Kingston, contributes an article on "Darwin, and After Darwin."

MESSRS. GINN & CO. have issued this month a beautiful *Children's First Reader*, by Ellen Cyr.

MESSRS. D. C. HEATH & CO., of Boston, have published the *Primary Book of The Pupil's Series of Arithmetics*. This is a promising series.

THE J. B. Lippincott Co. (Philadelphia) have published a translation of the excellent elementary *Zoology*, written by MM. Montmahon and Beauregard. 75c.

WE are indebted to the secretary of the Toronto Humane Society for a copy of a pamphlet giving an interesting and complete account of their work for the last five years.

THE latest issue of Messrs D. C. Heath & Co.'s *English Classics* is a collection, edited by Prof. George, of Wordsworth's Prefaces and Essays on Poetry. As Prof. Shairp says, "No one can read the reasoning of these Prefaces without instruction."

THE new number of Heath's *Modern Language Series*, contains the first part of Goethe's Faust, edited by Prof. Thomas, of Michigan University. The text is from the Weimar edition. There are a good many notes, which are of course an important part of the book, and the introduction (82 pp.) will be found of no little service in the study of this great masterpiece. The mechanical execution is excellent.

*The Place of the Story in Early Education*, by Sara E. Wiltse, is a book which every teacher should read. It is a collection of valuable essays contributed by the author to the "Christian Union," American Journal of Psychology, etc., and here reprinted. "Not what I have, but what I do, is my kingdom."

MESSRS. MOFFATT & PAIGE (London, Eng.) send us a copy of their *Civil Service Examples in Arithmetic*, a collection of some 1,900 questions, with answers, set by the Civil Service examiners during the last ten years. 2s. 6d. We have also from the same firm a copy of the fourth edition of Williams' *French Course*. 2s. 6d.

ANOTHER beautiful classical text-book, edited by Prof. White, of Harvard, appears from the press of Messrs. Ginn & Co. This work is intended to cover the first year's course of study, and is an attractive and well-arranged text-book. The object of teaching the pupil to read Greek is steadily kept in view, and every effort is made to meet the needs of young students. The plan does not materially differ from that pursued in Prof. White's first lessons in Greek, but the present volume contains reading lessons, notes, etc., not found there. There are two excellent vocabularies given.

*An Island Paradise and Reminiscences of Travel*, is the title of a book by Mr. H. Spencer Howell. (Toronto: Hart and Riddell.) The paper, type and binding are a credit to the publishers, and we congratulate them on the attractive appearance of the book. Volumes of travel always possess a certain interest of their own, and in this Mr. Howell's book is not lacking. The *Island Paradise* is the Hawaiian Islands, an interesting account of which is given in the first part of the book. Other chapters are on Edinburgh, Malta, Australia, etc. There are a number of good illustrations.

THE nineteenth volume of the *International Education Series* (Edited by W. T. Harris, LL.D.) is by Prof. Baldwin, of the University of Texas, and is entitled *Psychology Applied to the Art of Teaching*. The volume has

six parts, The Education of the (1) Perceptive Powers, (2) Representative Powers, (3) Thought Powers, (4) Emotions, (5) Will Powers, and (6) The Art of Teaching. A really practical and helpful book has been written for the use of the profession by Prof. Baldwin, and we hope that many of our readers will get it for themselves; it is one that will repay reading, and may be recommended to all teachers, whether in rural or city schools. (D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.)

WELLS OF ENGLISH, by Isaac Bassett Choate (Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.50) is a tastefully prepared volume which will fill a vacant place. Mr. Choate truly says, "We should go to the great poets to learn what our literature ought to be, but to those of a lower rank to find out what our literature has been and is." Forty is the number of the authors chosen, among whom we may be permitted to mention, Raleigh, Lovelace, Marlowe, Massinger, Walton, Fuller and Herrick. The book is pleasant reading throughout, and few will open it without feeling a certain attraction to it.

*Great Writers.* A new series of critical biographies, edited by Professor Eric S. Robertson, M.A. 1s. each. Volumes already issued: Longfellow, Coleridge, Dickens, Dante, Gabriel Rossetti, Samuel Johnson, Darwin, Charlotte Bronte, Thomas Carlyle, Adam Smith, Keats, Shelley, Smollet, Goldsmith, Scott, Burns, Victor Hugo, Emerson, Goethe, Congreve, Bunyan, Crabbe, Heine, Mill, Schiller, Captain Marryat, Lessing, Milton, Balzac, George Eliot, Jane Austen, Browning, Byron, Hawthorne, Schopenhauer, Sheridan, Thackeray, Cervantes. (London: Walter Scott.) It is a more or less disputed question as to whether it is profitable to study literature biographically, making the life-history of the author a part of the class-instruction. Whatever may be recommended by the skinflint educationists, those who are ruled by examinations and are given over to marks and results, there can be little doubt, it seems to us, that to understand a man's words thoroughly, we must know what manner of man he was. And whatever may be advisable to select

as material actually or directly used in class-work, there surely can be little question as to whether or not the teacher who is to interest and awaken the minds of his pupils should be familiar with the life of the man of letters whose writings he takes up.

We have therefore more than usual pleasure in directing the attention of our readers to this excellent series. Burns, by Prof. Blackie, will be one of the most popular numbers. It is a capital biography. Richard Garnett, LL.D., contributes three volumes—Milton, Emerson and Carlyle—all admirable, but probably Carlyle's is the best. Dr. Garnett guides us skilfully and impartially through the life and work of his subject, and leaves a clear impression of the man and his place in the world of writers. Two others are by William Sharp—Shelley and Browning. The former is a fit memorial of Shelley, and a worthy addition to literary biography; of the latter, one can only say that till it appeared we had no brief life of this great poet at all adequate to our needs. Mr. Marzials has written the volume on Dickens; a sympathetic and satisfactory biography of Lord Byron, is by the Hon. Roden Noel; Coleridge, by Hall Caine; and Keats, by W. M. Rossetti. We can only say that each presents a charming picture, and that the writers have performed their tasks with good taste, sound and accurate literary judgment, and commendable diligence.

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