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THE CANADA  
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JANUARY, 1901.

KINGSLEY'S WATER BABIES.

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM CLARK, D.C.L.

“THE Water Babies” appeared originally in separate chapters in *Macmillan's Magazine* from month to month, in the year 1863, and shortly afterwards was published in a volume. On the whole the reception accorded to the story was favorable, although some critics complained that it was too childish for grown-up people and too heavy for children. To some it appeared as a somewhat nonsensical fairy tale, to others as an allegory of great depth and beauty.

The present writer very soon came to the opinion that the story had a deep, spiritual meaning, representing the inner life of man, in its various phases. Some friends, who stood in doubt as to the accuracy of his interpretation, suggested that he should publish, in order that Mr. Kingsley might decide as to his meaning in the book. With some hesitation the writer consented to do so, and published his exposition of *The Water Babies* in an English monthly magazine. Shortly afterwards he received a letter from Canon Kingsley, in which he said: “From beginning to end I desire not one word more or less as regards my meaning.”

It may be well to mention that

the judgment of the present writer is confirmed by the late Mr. Thomas Hughes, author of “*Tom Brown's School Days*,” and a personal friend of Mr. Kingsley, who contributed an article on *The Water Babies* to the magazine *Atalanta* (Vol. i., p. 530), in which he speaks of the story as not only “a fairy tale, as the author calls it, but containing, nevertheless, the most complete and consistent summing up of his matured views on theological, political, and social subjects, that is to be found in any of his writings. The exposition of Judge Hughes, as far as it goes, is in complete agreement with that which is here given.

The hero of *The Water Babies* is named Tom. He is, in the first period of the story, a chimney sweep, and in the second a Water Baby. The second period, the history of the Water Baby, may be divided into three parts: (1) His life in the river before he helped the lobster out of the pot; (2) His life in St. Brandon's Isle under the discipline of the fairies, Mrs. Bedonebyasyoudid and Mrs. Doasyouwouldbedoneby; (3) The period from the time when he set off for the Otherendofnowhere to the end of the story.

The first period, that of the

chimney sweep life, is certainly intended to represent the life of sin, and of actual sinful life and action—not merely sinful principle—ending with Tom's conversion. The change in Tom thus designated was brought about through his being convinced of his own dirtiness, and being led to desire a different kind of life. The gradual arousing of the conviction of sin is depicted in a very graphic manner. First, Tom's master, named Grimes, is confronted by an Irishwoman, who tells him, "Those that wish to be clean, clean they will be, and those that wish to be foul, foul they will be." Apparently the words produced little effect, yet they were not forgotten by Mr. Grimes; and other influences brought home the same lesson to Tom.

Going with his master to sweep the chimneys at Harthover Hall, Tom came down the wrong chimney into the sleeping apartment of Ellie, the daughter of Sir John Harthover. When he saw this fair, pure creature lying in her white bed, he looked at his own wrist and tried to brush off the soot; and then turning round he saw standing close to him a little, ugly, black figure with bleared eyes and grinning white teeth; and behold! it was himself reflected in a great mirror such as he had never seen before. And Tom discovered, for the first time in his life, how dirty he was, and burst into tears of shame and anger.

Escaping from the Hall he fled across the park, into the woods, up the moor, and at last scrambled down the Lewthwaite Crag, an almost perpendicular descent. He was followed all the way by the Irish woman who seems here to represent Providence. He descended into Vendale, where he found an old lady, who turned out to be Mrs. Grimes, keeping a little school.

This lady at first declared that she would have nothing to do with chimney sweeps; but, at last, taking compassion upon him, she gave him milk and put him in an outhouse, where he might rest. But he turned about and then fell half asleep, and dreamed that he heard the little white lady crying to him: "Oh, you're so dirty; go and be washed;" and then he heard the Irish woman saying: "Those that wish to be clean, clean they will be." And then he began to cry out: "I must be clean," and threw himself into the river and became a Water Baby. Here we have the representation of one type of conversion.

As the life of the chimney-sweep represented the life of sin, so the first period of the Water Baby life represents the life of selfishness or worldliness. While Tom was disporting himself in the river, he had no care but for himself and his own pleasures. It is not said that he did anything positively wrong. But he was living a selfish and a worldly life—shallow and frivolous without deep conviction or any serious sense of responsibility. He spends his time in worrying the caddises, tormenting the little trout, making faces at the otter, chatting with the dragon fly, and flattering the salmon.

The helping of the lobster out of the pot brought a change. The description of this episode is one of the most charming parts of the whole book; and as a result, he entered upon a new experience. He came upon a Water Baby—another creature like himself, seen for the first time. We are told to guess the explanation; and it is not very difficult to discover. Whilst we live a merely selfish and worldly life, our fellow-creatures are to us simply a means of amusement and entertainment. But just as Tom's act of

self-denying kindness to the lobster opened his eyes to see the water babies, so when men go out to their fellow-creatures in acts of self-forgetful love and sacrifice, they come to recognize them as brothers and sisters, as children of the same great Father. The same general lesson is taught in Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner."

Tom is now the representative of the human soul brought into a right relation to God and man. But this is only the beginning of a true human life. A protracted discipline must be undergone before the goal of perfection is reached. Kingsley emphasizes this point, when he says: "I wish Tom had given up all his naughty tricks," and so forth.

Soon he came face to face with Mrs. Bedonebyasyoudid, a fairy, a very terrible lady with a birch rod under her arm. We soon discover the nature of this lady. She is Law—the law of our nature, which declares that "Whatever a man soweth, that shall he also reap." And this explains the seeming ugliness of this fairy. She is ugly because men are bad. When they are good, she will be as beautiful as her sister Mrs. Doasyouwouldbedoneby, who represents Divine Grace. All this will become quite clear to the reader.

Several remarkable incidents occurred during the time when Tom was under the influence of these two fairies. Tom got at the cupboard where Mrs. Bedonebyasyoudid kept her sweet things, and gobbled up a quantity of them with sad results—showing us that the sweets of the spiritual life are the result of labor and self-denial, and are not to be snatched at in this way. We have seen that the first part of the Water Baby life, in the river, represented the worldly life. The second part in S. Brandan's Isle under the two

fairies represents the discipline of Law and Grace. We now come to the third part which represents the perfecting of the life by self-denial and suffering.

While Tom was in S. Brandan's Isle, Little Ellie, who had become a Water Baby, came there and assisted in Tom's education. But every Sunday she went away, and she would not tell Tom where she went. But the fairy informed him that if he, like Ellie, would go somewhere, where he did not want to go, and do something that he did not like to do, then he would know where Ellie went on Sunday. The meaning of this is clear. No one can tell another what his own higher life is like. It is only by entering into the same experience that we understand that of another.

Tom at last consented to undertake the journey to the other end of Nowhere, and he was directed to Mother Carey who would tell him the way to Mr. Grimes, whom he was to help. Several of his attempts to find Mother Carey ended in failure. The Gairfowl (Great Auk) represented those poor old creatures who are so full of their own superiority that they disdain to learn the lessons that "common people" are learning, and so forget all that they ever knew. She tries to tell Tom the way, and breaks down.

At last, however, he found an old whale that directed him to Mother Carey. Mother Carey is Dame Nature, from the foot of whose throne the living creatures swam away in countless numbers. She gave Tom two pieces of advice—to follow his dog and to walk backwards—signifying the two guides of nature, instinct and experience. If it should appear that nature is here improperly brought in, we may remember how Butler points out that Nature, in the full meaning of the

term, is the reflection of God.

Tom met with several other strange adventures. Thus in the Island of Laputa he met with an example of the kind of examination which deserves condemnation. When he came to Oldwivesfabledom he met the Pow-wow man who thought that no one could be made good unless he was first frightened into fits.

At last Tom reached his old master Grimes, stuck in a chimney, and unable to get out. By the influence of Tom's kindness and the memory of his mother, and by the interposition of Mrs. Beuonebyasyoudid Grimes is brought to a better mind and started in a new life. And now Tom is permitted to return to S. Brandan's Isle. There he finds Ellie seated upon a rock. But now she and Tom are no longer children ; they are

grown up. While they are gazing at each other, the Fairy addresses them, and they are puzzled by her appearance. She seems at once Mrs. Bedonebyasyoudid, Mrs. Doasyouwouldbedoneby, Mother Carey and the Irishwoman. The meaning of this is not difficult. In this dim twilight of Time, when we are as children tossed to and fro, and carried about by every kind of doctrine, and see only as through a glass darkly. Nature and Grace and Law and Conscience and Providence seem to us diverse and often conflicting and contradictory ; but when we are grown to the full stature of men, and see as we are seen, then shall we know that in these principles there is no contradiction, but that all form a perfect harmony and unity in God.

## EDUCATION IN JAMAICA.

BY INSPECTOR G. J. McCORMAC.

JAMAICA is the largest and most valuable of the British West Indies. It is next in size to Cuba and Hayti and has a population of 650,000. It was taken from Spain in 1665. Sugar, coffee, molasses, rum, fruits and spices are the chief exports. Kingston (47,000), the capital, is situated on a fine harbor and has a large shipping trade. Spanish Town, the former capital, is ten miles distant from Kingston. Jamaica is one-third the size of Nova Scotia.

The present educational system of Jamaica may be said to date from 1892. Prior to that date assistance was given out of the public funds to schools established throughout the island by private persons for the purpose of giving elementary education, in accordance with rules laid

down under the authority of the Governor. By the Educational Act of 1892 the force of law was given to those rules and provision made for the future development and improvement of the then existing system of giving funds to Elementary Schools.

The head of the Education Department of the Government is the Superintending Inspector of Schools. He is assisted by seven Inspectors. There is a Board of Education of thirteen members, who are appointed annually by the Governor. Not more than three members of the Board can be persons holding any office or emolument under the Government. The Superintending Inspector of Schools is, *ex officio*, a member and Chairman of the Board. The Board meets quarterly at King-

ston. However, if at any time the Chairman considers it necessary, he can call a special meeting by giving seven days' notice to each member; or any four members can order the Chairman to call a special meeting. One half of the present Board are clergymen. It is the duty of the Board to consider, discuss and advise upon all matters specially referred to it by the Governor, to recommend such changes in the school regulations as may seem to be advisable, to make recommendations to the Governor from time to time as to the expenditure it may consider necessary for the purpose of making adequate provision for educational requirements, to adjust any difficulties or differences that may arise between school managers and teachers, and to make grants and discontinue grants to schools.

There are no fees collected of pupils attending the Public Elementary Schools; but a school tax is levied on every householder. The tax is as follows:

On every house under the annual value of £4, the sum of 2s; on every house of the annual value of £4, 3s; on every house exceeding £4, and not exceeding £6 annual value, 4s; on every house £6, but not exceeding £12 annual value, 5s; on every house exceeding £12 annual value, 6s.

By the term Public Elementary School is meant every school or department of a school at which Elementary Education is the principal part of the education there given. There are three classes of Elementary Schools, viz., First, Second and Third. Last year there were 160 First Class, 389 Second Class and 320 Third Class Schools. At the beginning of this year the schools numbered 916. Of these 283 are connected with the Church of England, 115 with the Wesleyan,

75 with the Moravian, 226 with the Baptist, 78 with the United Presbyterian, 12 with the Church of Scotland, 34 with the Congregationalist, 36 with the United Methodist Free Church, 5 with the American Christian Church, 24 with the Roman Catholic Church, 2 with the Society of Friends and the remaining 24 are undenominational.

The chief subjects of instruction in Elementary Schools are reading, writing, arithmetic, Scripture, agricultural and handicraft teaching, needlework, simple geometrical drawing, singing, grammar, history, and geography. Schools in which needlework, agriculture or handicraft is taught are entitled to receive extra grants from Government. No child of under 5 years or over 14 years of age can be admitted to or retained in any Public Elementary School, but any child of not less than three years of age may be received into an Infant School. An Infant School is a school in which no child of over ten years of age is allowed. Pupils of between 14 and 16 years of age are taught in Seventh Standard Schools. In these schools all the pupils must be of the same sex as the teacher.

The two primary conditions which a school must fulfil at the annual inspection so as to obtain a Government grant are (1) that it shall be awarded at least five, or one third of the marks attainable, in each of the primary subjects, reading, writing and arithmetic, and (2) that it shall be awarded at least 30 marks in the aggregate. The inspector at his annual visit of inspection does not examine any scholar who has not attended at least one-fourth of the session of the school year. On the day of inspection the teacher is required to dismiss from the premises the children whose at-

tendance are below the minimum required. Jamaica is divided into eight inspectoral districts, giving an average of 115 schools to each inspector. In Barbadoes and Trinidad each inspector has 63, in Demerara each has 67 schools and in Mauritius each has 44 schools.

Every Public Elementary School has not less than three managers, who are held responsible by the department for the carrying on and supervision of their schools and its maintenance in efficiency, for the provision of needful furniture, books and apparatus, for the arrangement of the school terms, and for the making of all returns required by the department. One at least of the managers must visit the school every month.

A general survey of school matters in Jamaica since the passing of the School Laws of 1892 shows that in some particulars progress has been slow. In 1892 there were 877 schools on Government list; in 1893, 912 schools; in 1894, 957 schools; in 1895, 962 schools; in 1896, 932 schools; in 1897, 924 schools, and last year 913 schools. In 1892 there were 83,731 scholars enrolled; in 1895, 104,149 enrolled; in 1897, 93,599 enrolled, while last year's books showed an enrollment of 92,205. The percentage of average attendance of number enrolled was 54.85 in 1892, 57.50 in 1893, 66.38 in 1894, 60.09 in 1895, 59.41 in 1896, 59.61 in 1897, and 59.04 in 1898. The classes of 1891 gave us the number of children between 5 and 15 years as 164,152.

There are six Training Schools. Last year they had a total attend-

ance of 203 students, 64 of whom were ladies. These schools are supported by fees, endowments and Government grants.

The total amount expended in education last year was £68,538. The sum was distributed as follows:

Grant to Elementary Schools and Teachers .....	£53,554
Building Grants .....	510
Administration and Inspection .....	5,684
Government Training College for Women .....	1,574
Aid to Training Colleges not under Government .....	4,380
Board of Education .....	172
Jamaica High School .....	1,300
Scholarships .....	1,261
Secondary School at Martego Bay .....	200
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>£68,525</b>

In the previous year the total expenditure was £67,545. The cost of primary education per child per average attendance is 15 shillings. By comparison of the statistics of the Education Departments of several colonies where the conditions are similar to those of Jamaica, I find that the cost of primary education per child is less in Jamaica than in any other of the colonies whose statistics I have looked into. In Barbadoes the average cost per child is 17s., in Mauritius £1.19s., in Demerara £1.5s., and in Trinidad £1.15s.

Questions which are now receiving the attention of the educational authorities of Jamaica are the amalgamation of schools, the establishment of a Farm and Trade School in each of the 14 parishes into which the Island is divided, and the general introduction of manual training into the Elementary Schools.

St. George's, P.E.I., Nov. 21, 1900.

The Queen of Portugal, who some years ago saved two children from drowning by swimming to their rescue, has recently saved the life of a drowning man. She had been rowing, and handed over her boat

to a fisherman, who in some way upset it and broke his arm. The brave queen jumped into the water, and held up the helpless man until help arrived.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS.\*

PRINCIPAL PETERSON, LL.D.

MY first duty to-night is to thank you for the compliment you paid me in electing me to be your President, also for the way in which you did it. Many a politician at this moment would envy me my highly pleasurable experience. For, did I not pass through all the horrors of a contested election without being aware of it, and when the result of the poll was announced, was there anyone more genuinely surprised than the successful candidate? That your choice should have fallen upon me, I take as a mark of confidence which is none the less welcome because I feel that I have done so little to deserve it; and if my election to the presidential office has involved the postponement of any hopes and ambitions that may have been rightfully cherished by others of your number—who have served the interests of education in this province longer than I can claim to have done,—I can only ask them to believe that I greatly appreciate the honor which has been paid to me, perhaps at their expense, and that I hope to hand on the office to a successor with its dignity and prestige unimpaired by any word or act of mine.

If I were free to choose my subject, I fancy I should hit upon some theme more or less removed from the sphere of your daily work. There is something too professional about the spectacle of one who is himself a teacher talking to teachers about teaching. We teachers are too much a class by ourselves, and it is almost a pity, from one point of view at least, that the outside world should imagine that we never come

together without wanting to discuss problems of child study, the proper grading of subjects and classes, the reform of the school curriculum, or some other of the multifarious conundrums about which educational authorities are always loudly disputing, while all the time the school mill goes slowly grinding on. But this is the President's address, and as such it must embody a kind of pedagogical stock-taking, noting the points in which progress is being made, and drawing upon these for reflections which may help to encourage teachers in their onerous but at the same time honorable calling,—without failing to mention matters in regard to which improvement is still to be sought. For we must remember that we are responsible not only to ourselves as educational experts, but also to the wider body of outside critics who know—or pretend to know—whether we are really producing what we claim to produce in our schools, and who do not generally hesitate to state their opinions.

Four or five years' apprenticeship as a member of the Protestant Committee has helped to make me tolerably familiar with the machinery of our educational government. It has also enabled me to realize more strongly than ever that all the efforts of official administration are liable to be frustrated unless they are seconded by intelligent effort on the part of those on whom the working of the system really depends, the school commissioners, the inspectors, the teachers, and last but not least the pupils themselves. The machinery is all well enough in its

\*Address delivered by the Principal of McGill University at Convention of Protestant Teachers, Montreal, Oct. 1900.

way ; but we must look inside the machinery ; we must invoke the aid of the spirit within the wheels And here it is mainly to the teachers that our sympathies go out, especially to the teachers in rural districts those who for a mere pittance under take from year to year what Wordsworth calls "the pains and faithful care of unambitious schools." We all know—college-bred men no less than others—their trials and difficulties, and the hard conditions they have to face, conditions more discouraging perhaps, and more harassing than exist in any other profession or occupation. Why is it that teachers are not on a level, as regards prestige and dignity and social interest, with clergymen and lawyers and doctors? The whole theory of their calling is based on the assumption that they are at least helpful in securing for young people opportunities of "preparing for complete living," and helpful, too, in giving an education that meets the demands of modern life, "both in its provisions for the development of the individual, and in its training for social service." Yet here and elsewhere even responsible persons talk of "hiring a teacher" as they would a hackney carriage! One of the questions put quite lately by a shrewd man of business to a scholar who had gone to take up the work of a College head in one of the greatest commercial centres in England was "Have you the hide of a rhinoceros?" From what I know of school conditions here I am sometimes inclined to the opinion that this same prophylactic is of value also to school teachers. And yet it lies in great part with our teachers themselves to bring about a more ideal condition of things. They follow a calling of which it has been said that while it is the noblest of

all professions it is the sorriest of trades. It is for them to rise above their environment by strenuous effort—such effort as shall show that they are not content with the "daily round, the common task." They must put aside the temptation to teach just what they know, and all the soft seductions of the daily lesson which, after all, makes no great demand upon their intellectual powers. When a teacher is content with the minimum that is asked for, there is a great danger of mistaking that minimum for a maximum. It is true that all teachers should be better paid; those of us who have small families to trouble our domestic repose often have occasion to realize that the delegation of responsibility from parents to teachers is cheaply enough purchased at existing rates. As regards remuneration, at all events, it is the case that teachers are expected to make bricks with the smallest conceivable modicum of straw. But salaries are not everything, and men and women who have entered the teaching profession for the love of their work sometimes rise superior to salaries. All the same, it must be recognized as a standing barrier to the development of any scheme for the higher training of teachers in this province, that so long as conditions remain as at present we should probably find that, after their training had been completed, they were liable to be tempted away by offers from elsewhere.

One regrettable feature, as it seems to me, about the present state of affairs is that there is not that degree of sympathy and co-operation which ought to exist between our schools and Universities. The complaint is commonly urged against college men, and especially college professors, that they do not take the trouble to inform themselves of the

conditions under which the work of elementary schools is carried on. They do not sufficiently realize that in many schools the duty of personally instructing, or at least superintending instruction, in all the various subjects of four or five classes, devolves upon a single individual; and they forget that our schools have to deal with large masses of average pupils, only a very small proportion of whom have any intention of proceeding to the University. While this charge is probably not altogether groundless, it is comforting to feel assured that the best spirits on both sides realize the essential unity of all educational processes, and appreciate the substantial identity of educational aims and principles from the Kindergarten to the University. Just as school teachers may not unreasonably be expected to understand and sympathize with University progress and reconstruction, so, on the other hand, college teachers ought to comprehend and assist similar reforms in schools. No one who is at all interested in education—and least of all a college teacher—can fail to approve of the changes that have been introduced in the training of little children, by means of which various forms of manual exercise, such as modelling, netting and basket work, have been instituted with the view of developing the quality of handiness, and in directly of assisting also intellectual progress. But when college teachers are told to remember that not more than eight or nine per cent. of school pupils have any thought of frequenting their lecture rooms, and that they must not think, therefore, of applying admission standards to all, they are tempted to take refuge in their own experience, and silently to wonder, since the eight or nine per cent. know so little, what it is that the others have learned! If

they know less than the boy who just "scrapes" into college, they must know very little indeed. For myself, while I should hear with comparative equanimity that only a small proportion of the pupils in our High Schools and Academies mean to go forward to the University, I hope that it will always be possible, especially in this province, under improved conditions as regards the conduct of the A.A. examinations, for the University to co-operate with the teachers in applying a test to the attainments of the pupils generally, so that we may have some sound basis to go upon when we want to know what is doing in our schools.

For a long time to come, in the future as well as in the present, we shall find that the two governing considerations in our efforts after further educational reform will be the determination of the curriculum and the qualifications of the teachers.

In discussing the much discussed curriculum and the subjects taught in our schools, we shall at least be in good company. The German Emperor has recently recorded his profound dissatisfaction with many features of the school programme, and has occasioned some anxiety to his advisers through his efforts to improve it by rendering it less "bookish" and by bringing it nearer to the problems and concerns of modern life. And in regard to the training of teachers Professor Munsterberg, of Harvard, has still more recently caused a considerable flutter in the educational dove-cots by his publication of a bright and very readable paper on School Reform, (*Atlantic Monthly*, May 1900), in which he emphasizes the importance of knowing the subject you undertake to teach, even though you may know nothing about the theory of education or about the history of

pedagogy or psychology or child study. His explanation is that "conscious occupation with pedagogical rules interferes with *instinctive* views of right pedagogical means." "The analytic tendency of the psychological and pedagogical attitude is diametrically opposite to that practical attitude, full of tact and sympathy, which we must demand of the real teacher; and the training in the one attitude inhibits freedom in the other." And so he concludes that however important psychology and pedagogy may be for school organizers, superintendents, city officials, and such like, "the individual teacher has little practical use for it." "I fear," he writes, "that pedagogy must become a hindrance to educational progress if it ever causes the principal or the school-board to prefer the teacher who has learned pedagogy to the teacher who has learned the subject he is going to teach."

It is of course quite easy for theorists to harp on the old string and to repeat the lesson which all of us have learned by this time, viz. that while "Knowledge is power," mere knowledge is not the whole of education. No doubt books are not everything; but we must get beyond that. Criticism in order to be valuable must be concrete and definite. In this connection the recent utterances of the President of Toronto University ought to receive very careful consideration. If we may judge from newspaper reports, President Loudon is by no means satisfied with the Ontario school system, and he formulates a distinct charge against the administration when he calls attention to the want of continuity between the Elementary and the High Schools of the province, and specifies the neglect of language teaching as something

that must at once be remedied. By an interesting and instructive coincidence a paper appears in the current number of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, written by the Deputy Minister of Education, Ontario, entitled: "The Conflict between Education and Knowledge." So far as the writer emphasizes the importance of the training character and of due preparation of the actual needs of life, he is on safe if somewhat familiar ground,—though one is inclined to wonder where home influences are allowed to come in, in a province where the university is blamed for debarring from matriculation a boy who fails in algebra, and yet accepting a candidate who makes the necessary 33½ per cent., even though the latter may not possess "sufficient will power to abstain from the use of cigars." \* But the Deputy Minister is surely far at sea when he tries to make out that there is a divergence between the subjects which modern Universities require for entrance, and the subjects which ought to form the staple of a good general education. If it is a *regrettable* fact that "hundreds of pupils begin the preparation of the various subjects for matriculation who never enter a University," there must be something very far wrong with admission requirements. But is it regrettable? Surely no school curriculum, worthy of the name, could be

\* "No student should be permitted to attend a University, if he has not shown during his three or four years' attendance at a High School the acquisition of certain powers of self-control. Why should not industry, neatness, courtesy be regarded as at least as important for matriculation as a knowledge of chemistry or the binomial theorem? The fact that character in a student does not count is sufficient evidence that wrong ideas control educational systems."—In regard of all which it may be asked: "Has home training been abolished in Ontario?"

formulated which does not take some account of matriculation subjects—English, Arithmetic, History, Languages, Mathematics and Elementary Science. When it is gravely argued that the “plan of allowing though not compelling certain (matriculation) subjects to be taken up in the lower forms of High Schools does much harm,” it would seem as though the Education Department might be led to take action in the way of perpetuating and even intensifying the very evils of which President Loudon has complained. The main ground of offence in the schools seems to be language teaching, and the authority of Prof. Swete is invoked to prove that “pupils should not begin Latin until they reach sixteen years of age.” Now language study (apart from English and elementary grammar) ought to be universally recognized as “one of the most admirable forms of mental discipline, giving increase of grasp and intellectual power, calling for and developing, as few other studies do, the faculty of rapid review and ready application of knowledge already possessed.” No one has a greater respect for English than I have, but I can only regard it as a regrettable and even discreditable circumstance that pupils should sometimes present themselves for matriculation at McGill who have never studied any language except English, and who ask for special consideration because they were actually debarred by the conditions of the school they attended—otherwise excellently well equipped—from taking up any language save their mother-tongue. To one-sided advocates of the study of English, one might almost say by way of parody: “What should they know of *English* who only *English* know?” And it may be noted incidentally

that it is often those who cry up most loudly the exclusive study of English who contrive themselves to write English just about as badly as it can be written!

In regard to the improvement of schools in the Province of Quebec it must be said that while there is in existing conditions a good deal of reason for discouragement there is also some ground for confidence and hope. Quebec ranks lowest, I am given to understand, among the provinces of the Dominion as regards the amount of its appropriations for the support of the schools; and the circumstances of some rural districts, where the dissentient minority is quite insufficient in point of numbers, render adequate school provision an utter impossibility. But the school question in Quebec ought to be a negotiable problem. We have to deal with something under 1,000 schools with over 1,300 teachers. These schools are all organized on pretty much the same lines, and the results of their work are reported from time to time by the inspectors of the Department. The Protestant committee is anxious to do everything in its power to increase the efficiency of the schools, although it has often to suffer in the estimation of the public for the slackness of school trustees and commissioners—some of whom appear to be altogether impervious to criticism.

It is no rash prophecy to say that the question of what the right and true curriculum should be will long continue to be an absorbing subject of discussion. Time was when continuous training in the “Three R’s” for a period of school life extending over six or eight years, was considered the educational ideal. These were the accomplishments which were regarded as essential for self-education, with perhaps “a top-

“dressing” of what were called “English subjects,” grammar, geography and history. But it has long been recognized that such a course of study, no matter how faithfully administered, might leave too many children “without any permanent interests in nature, or in human institutions and human achievements, and without much inclination to acquire such interests by further study, or power to assimilate or apply such knowledge and skill as they had gained.” Ability to read might be acquired, “but not the reading habit; the ability to spell and write words, but no power of expression with the pen; a varying ability to add, subtract, multiply and divide simple numbers, integral and fractional, but much uncertainty in all other arithmetical operations; some fragmentary book knowledge of names and places of our own country and foreign countries, and some scrappy information relating to the history of Britain and Greater Britain.” Now reading, writing and arithmetic are still recognized as necessary studies—studies which serve as the “instruments of the acquisition and expression of knowledge” But they are not enough. They do not suffice in themselves to “open the mind of the child and let the world in.” Hence the enrichment of the old curriculum by nature study, to the end that no child shall be ignorant of the processes involved in the rising and the setting of the sun; by drawing and other modes of initial instruction in the fine arts, such as clay modelling; by manual training; by every subject, in short, that is best fitted to stimulate curiosity and develop the power of observation in regard to what the child sees from day to day around and about him.

And here, of course, the danger is

that in the endeavor to secure variety and vivacity, and to avoid as much as possible the drudgery of the school-room, we may end by loading the curriculum with too many subjects. I do not think we need be so much afraid of this result so long as our Elementary Schools restrict themselves to giving what I may call a knowledge of things in general. The best advice that can be offered to teachers under this head is, I am confident, that of Sir Joshua Fitch, who, in common with most recent writers on the theory of education, exhorts them to “defend jealously the general and liberal gymnastic against the attacks of those who, interested in a particular study or impressed by the immediate practical results of a particular pursuit, would monopolize with it the greater part of the school timetable.” “Do not overload the curriculum,” says Dr. Fitch, “by multiplying the number of necessary subjects, but hold fast resolutely by the recognized and staple subjects which experience has shown to have the best formative value, secure a definite proportion of hours to those subjects, and for the rest of the available time provide as many forms of intellectual and other activity as your appliances and teaching staff have at command.” A great deal of pseudo-scientific knowledge is offered at present as fit and proper intellectual pabulum in our schools. I have myself read the answers to papers in “Physiology” which bore on their very face the stamp of educational valuelessness. Physiology belongs to the class of scientific subjects which are better not taught at all than badly taught, especially when the attempt is made to teach them without any proper equipment. The mere memorizing of facts is certainly not scientific teaching. Similarly with that high-sounding

and much belauded subject Hygiene. To me it is laughable to hear a little child pronounce the word. Nothing can surpass in importance the great questions of air, food and cleanliness, in relation to the organs of the body—the lungs, the stomach and the skin. All this, however, can come under the head of useful knowledge. As a recent writer has said, “excessive prescription and definition of duty are the refuge of helplessness and pedantry. The more minutely the subjects of school work are delineated, the less copiously and effectually will pupils be taught.” The current and almost universal subjects of reading, writing, arithmetic, political and physical geography, history, grammar, dictation are in themselves all but sufficient as staple courses, and when we open the door to physiology and hygiene, under distinctive labels, we must not forget that botany, astronomy and political economy, geology, mineralogy, every department of physics, agricultural chemistry, natural history, technology and perhaps phrenology have still to be reckoned with. Do we want to run the risk of being laughed at as pretentious quacks who would deceive people into believing that a universality of knowledge is still possible to mankind, and that it may be acquired even in the Elementary School?

Recognizing the difference that exists in the gifts and capacities and special aptitudes of our students, we have introduced the elective system into the Universities; our High Schools, especially on this continent, have long shown a distinct tendency to depart from the old ideal of a general education without professional anticipations; and now the further demand is made that professional preparation shall be begun even in the Elementary School,

where consideration should—it is urged—at once be given to the final purposes of the individual in practical life. It is not pretended that the little people themselves know what they want to turn to in later years; but their parents ought to know, and their country has need of men, and women too, who are not to be teachers, or preachers, or doctors, or lawyers, but who are to form the new class of workmen called up by the changed conditions which have arisen in the organization of industrial society. Must we then take it as proved that because of the need for specialization that is created by that division of labor which is now so marked a feature of modern life, professional education must be begun at the earliest possible stage, even at the expense of general training? And that the penalty of disregarding the demand thus made will be the inevitable defeat of the individual in the struggle for existence which day by day becomes ever keener and more keen because of the great and growing complexity of modern life? Is the end of education to obtain something which may as speedily as possible be turned to practical and profitable use? Surely the general education which modern enthusiasts for special branches are apt to decry is something more than a vague possession, which may be disparaged as useless, because it cannot be turned to immediate practical advantage. Rather is it part of the indispensable equipment of those who are to take rank as responsible citizens in free and self-governing communities. The German view has much to recommend it—that the higher the level on which the professional specializing begins, the more effectual it is. Hear again Professor Munsterberg: “We are not only professional wage-earners: we live for our

friends and our nation: we face social and political, moral and religious problems: we are in contact with nature and science, with art and literature: we shape our town and our time, and all that is common to everyone—to the banker and the manufacturer, to the minister and the teacher, to the lawyer and the physician. The technique of our profession, then, appears only as a small variation of the large back-ground of work in which we all share; and if the education must be adapted to our later life, all these problems demand a uniform education for the members of the same social community. The division of labor lies on the outside. We are specialists in our handiwork, but our heart work is uniform, and the demand for individualized education emphasizes the small differences of our tasks, and ignores the great similarities."

It is at all events a comfort and consolation that no scheme of what may be called Technical Elementary Education—no scheme that has been seriously put forward—attempts to eliminate the study of good literature altogether from the school programme. That form of schooling, no matter what it may have been, which fails to instill and implant a taste for good reading has in great part failed to achieve its end. Such a taste, once acquired, goes far to inspire and direct all later intellectual life, and to qualify its possessor to enjoy his leisure as well as his work. It is indeed a fatal theory that what is great in literature must be beyond the reach of the average mind. Rather is it the case that the teacher has no more potent aid to rely on in his work than the inspiring influence of beautiful thoughts expressed in beautiful language. Some of you know what importance

I attach to the study and repetition of poetry in all forms of a school. But we must take care that it shall be real poetry—the poetry which gladdens and ennobles life, lifting us through "thoughts that breathe and words that burn" to a higher plane of thought and feeling than that on which we habitually stand. Matthew Arnold used to maintain that the acquisition of good poetry is "a discipline which works deeper than any other discipline in the range of our school studies; more than any other, too, it works of itself." "Perhaps it is some suggestiveness of thought, or some stirring of emotion, or some quickening of imagination, or some music for the ear, some pattern of beauty in language, which refuses to be analysed and which sinks into the consciousness, there to effect an inward change."—Professor Dowden. Certainly nothing could be more just and discriminating than the canons which Arnold laid down, in one of his school reports, for the choice of poetry for young readers: "That the poetry chosen should have real beauties of expression and feeling, that these beauties should be such as the children's hearts and minds can lay hold of, and that a distinct point or centre of beauty and interest should come within the limits of the passage learnt; all these," he says "are conditions to be insisted on."

Let us then hold fast to the conviction that the curriculum of every school, no matter what new-fangled notions it may advocate, ought to comprise—doubtless among many other things—"some acquaintance with good literature, and the learning by heart of choice passages from the best authors." This at least is one of the faculties which ought not to be allowed to run to waste, through absence of opportunity and of the right means of

cultivation. We do not want to have another Darwin, holding the world with his marvellous generalisations in the realm of science, and yet lamenting, towards the close of his life, the loss he had sustained by the gradual elimination of his faculty of appreciation for what is best in poetry: "If I had to live my life over again," he says, "I would have made a rule to read some poetry and listen to some music at least once every week, for perhaps the parts of my brain now atrophied would then have been kept active through use. The loss of these tastes is a loss of happiness, and may possibly be injurious to the intellect, and more probably to the moral character by enfeebling the emotional part of our nature."

A keen appreciation of the value of such studies need not in any way interfere with approval of another departure which is being made in our Canadian schools this session—in a quite opposite direction. I am sure it will be appropriate if at this convention we record our gratitude to Sir William C. Macdonald for the great generosity by which he has enabled our energetic friend, Professor James W. Robertson, Commissioner of Agriculture, to make an experiment on a large scale in the way of introducing Manual Training into our Public Schools. No advocate of literary training would claim that literary education forms the whole of education. We want to educate the whole child, not a part of him only, and simple manual work, unconnected with any of the occupations to be followed in after life, is very helpful, as has been said. The object of Manual Training has been very properly defined as ["not so much any one trade as the combination of qualities which will enable him to turn with facility from one occupa-

tion to another, in accordance with the changing customs of industrial society, in developing tactical skill and general 'handiness.'"] One of our most eminent citizens always insists in conversation that the true end of education is to "teach people what to do with their hands and their feet," and though the definition may itself be too narrow, it shows that its author has felt the need of supplementing the existing school training, in which the purely intellectual faculties are too exclusively cultivated. For after all Manual Training can never take the whole place of intellectual discipline. The judgment and memory must still count for something. Mental culture is the most essential of school aims. Manual Training will play a worthy part if, by training hand and eye, it develops some mental faculties that would otherwise not be called into full play—and if it should be found to be actually helpful in producing more skilled artisans by means of the foundations laid at school. Professor Robertson looks for great results from the institution of the classes, in the benefits of which I am glad to say that Montreal is to have a share. His expectation is that the training now to be given may help to make children more contented with the occupations in which bodily labor plays an important part, and may even help to stop the influx of people who want to leave rural homes for cities and clerical and professional pursuits. The same hopeful view is taken of the subject in England by Sir Joshua Fitch, though he would be one of the last to emphasize too strongly the value of manual exercise or to make too great claims for it, especially where it is not duly co-ordinated with the discipline which aims at mental culture. "A legitimate argument," says Dr. Fitch "in favor of more

hand-work in schools may be found in the fact that by it we may, if it is wisely managed, overcome the frequent and increasing distaste of many young people for manual labor. In progressive countries there is often a vague notion that such labor is in some way servile and undignified, and less respectable than employments of another kind....[How are we to awaken a true respect for the dignity of labor?] Mainly ... by associating manual work with intellectual work; by recognizing in our systems of education that all art, even the humblest, rests ultimately on a basis of science, and that hand-work, when guided and controlled by knowledge becomes ennobled and takes a high rank among the liberal employments of life, even among the pursuits of a gentleman."

So much for the curriculum. If I have said more on this subject than about the training of teachers, it is because I remember having discoursed on this latter theme at some length before an audience of the teachers of Montreal. It might be difficult to say more on this head without making invidious comparisons and perhaps unduly depressing some of my audience. But it is a duty to say (with President Eliot) that young persons "who take up teaching as a temporary expedient are unsatisfactory material. The schools need the life work of highly-trained and experienced teachers." It is to the credit of the Protestant Committee, in this connection, that they are endeavoring to secure some degree of continuity in the schools by giving favorable terms to those of them who succeed in retaining their teachers for a period of at least three years. It is when we compare ourselves with other nations that we become most deeply conscious of our shortcomings and

imperfections. The proportion of male teachers in our schools is abnormally low—certainly as compared with Germany; and this fact might be shown to be significant of much. Then as to qualifications. Professor Munsterberg tells us that from his ninth year he had no teacher in any subject who had not completed three years' work in the graduate school; and you will better realize what this means when you recall the fact that the leaving certificate which gives the right of entrance into a German University is about on a level with an ordinary college B.A. on this continent. Thus it is that in Germany the most elementary teaching is given by men who are experts in their own special department and who never require hastily to learn one day what they must teach the next,—men too who have the inspiring enthusiasm for their subject which springs from profound scholarly interest and knowledge. Some people take a very narrow view of the range of attainments required for teaching in elementary schools. If the circumstances of a country prevent it from doing a better, we must acquiesce; but let us not forbear to state what we believe would be better. I had a good deal of correspondence with the Scottish Universities' Commission on this subject, and the minutes of evidence have just been published in a Blue Book; and even in that country of educational light and leading, there is a more or less sorrowful acceptance of the fact that it is useless to speak of a university education—even in part—for any more than the merest handful of those who are to become elementary teachers. My own idea would be to make every aspirant in this Province for a teacher's certificate of any grade qualify first by attendance at university classes for

two whole sessions, *i. e.*, up to the Intermediate Examination. But that is unfortunately not possible under existing conditions.

I have left myself very little time to touch on a few practical points, in regard to each of which I desire to make a very brief reference.

First, then, our University Entrance Examinations, held in June and September. It is the fashion, now-a-days, to decry examinations, but we have yet to find an adequate substitute for them. A time may come when it will be enough for the principal of a Quebec school to say that so and so is fit to enter the University, but I venture to doubt whether that time has yet arrived. We know, of course, that there is a great part of your work that cannot be measured by examinations. Your results in the matter of forming taste and character, in inspiring a love for good books, and in inciting to self-improvement, cannot be adequately tested in this way. Examiners can only measure what is measurable. But it is well understood that those results which are non-measurable are "generally secured incidentally and most effectively in those schools in which the intellectual level is highest, and in which work of the ordinary educational type is most honestly and systematically done." And after all, that part of education which "takes the form of direct instruction, and is capable of being tested by individual examination is, though not the highest part, yet a very substantial factor in the education of the child." The conduct of the A.A. examinations is to be henceforward vested exclusively in McGill University, and it will be the duty of all concerned to see that they are conducted with care and efficiency. We must maintain a uniform standard, and we must

guarantee sound work. The questions set must be well fitted to test a sound education, and must not encourage cramming or "mere information." I hope the time may come when such examinations may be conducted, in the main, on un-prescribed work. The Report of the Education Committee of the General Medical Council of Great Britain, recently issued, contains recommendations to the effect that, in classics and modern languages, questions on prescribed books should form not more than a third of the papers, and that at least a half of the marks should be allotted to "unseen" translations and prose composition. The practice of setting language papers on un-prescribed work, mainly, has been attended with excellent results wherever it has been introduced. There can be little doubt that it adds to the efficiency of preliminary examinations. "It relieves the competent teacher from the burden of special preparation of individual pupils in different books prescribed for various examinations to the detriment of the general education of his classes, and it prevents the incompetent teacher from achieving results by wrong methods."

Next, I had intended to touch on the work of the Art for Schools Association in England, but as Mr. S. P. Robins has undertaken to speak of "The Adornment of the School Room," it will be well not to trench on his subject. I shall only say that I hope the Protestant Committee may find it possible to do something towards this desirable end. Edward Thring of Uppingham, whose life has lately been written by a Canadian headmaster whom we all honor,—Geo. R. Parkin—held that it was "doing honour to lessons" to surround them with as many dignified and

beautiful accessories as possible. He knew, too, that "picture-decoration may be made to serve as an unconscious lesson in good taste," but it helps to stir the imagination, and at the same time gives the scholar "a store of pleasant memories for the enrichment of his after-life."

And now, ladies and gentlemen, a few words by way of conclusion. I am glad that the teachers of the Province of Quebec cultivate, equally with their fellow-teachers elsewhere, the valuable opportunities of mutual intercourse that are afforded by meetings such as these. They are full, I am sure, of stimulus and encouragement to each and all of you, and they do much to develop that corporate spirit, that consciousness of brotherly unity, which is so essential to good feeling and mutual improvement. It is true that we labor under the disadvantage in Canada of not having any national organization of education. Education is with us a provincial and not a federal obligation. There is no such thing as free trade in education throughout the Dominion; in some provinces, indeed, it is a highly protected industry. I think we have good reason to doubt whether this policy of protection is really helpful to educational interests. It is not altogether a good thing to have teachers all of one type, unless that type should happen—and the chances are much against it—to be a really ideal one. The teaching profession in Ontario, for example, is confined entirely to Ontario people; among the 300 or 400 graduates at work in its High Schools and Collegiate Institutes there is only one graduate of McGill—the rest are all Ontario. Whether this is a good thing for Ontario, I shall not undertake to say; but one thing I do say, and that is that this is not a hopeful way of building up

the educational interests of a nation.

But while you are thus deprived of the dignity and prestige of meeting as national representatives of the teaching profession, you can each do all that in you lies to magnify your office, and to go on advancing in status and influence by continuing to deserve the confidence and support of the community in the midst of which your work is carried on. Remember that the next generation belongs to your pupils. They are, along with you, about to enter on a new century, which will see many changes. Prepare them worthily to play their part in whatever may be before them. I do not need to remind you that it is not merely through the set lesson that you are able to reach them. Your highest function, after all, is not to pour more or less useful information into their minds, but broadly to educate them, and to give them the power of applying intelligently what they know. Training is as important as teaching. Continue then to take a broad view of your work and your duties. You have unrivalled opportunities for the formation of character—for inculcating in your pupils the sense of duty and responsibility, the instincts of reverence and obedience, the habits of civility, courtesy and truthfulness. That is an important part of your work, of which, I am sure you will not allow yourselves to lose sight. In words that were used long centuries ago, it may be said to-day that the greatest and highest end and aim of education (as of all good government) is "to make virtuous and good citizens, to secure the happiness arising from blamelessness of life, to lead to the perfection of man's social and moral nature, and to encourage those great and noble deeds which dignify and adorn a country."—*Educational Record.*

## ARE WE DEVELOPING A NEW SISTERHOOD?

CHARLES DE GARMO, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

THAT the world is old we know, both from history and the doctrine of evolution. Yet up to a period easily remembered by men whose natural force has not abated, male children have always been taught by men. In many sections of our country the habit of the race as old as the race itself, has been reversed. Few men now fifty years old were taught by women to any considerable extent. At present, however, it is not uncommon for men to enter college who were never taught by a man. In addition to being the physical mothers of the race, women are now called upon to be the intellectual mothers as well. To what extent, may be inferred from the single fact that a suburban city near New York has one hundred and sixty five teachers in its Public Schools, elementary and secondary, only five of whom are men.

Furthermore, women are called upon to be intellectual mothers before they are physical mothers, and to an undetermined extent to decide which form of maternity they will elect, since only a diminishing number can have the school first and the home afterwards. In other words we seem to write above the school-house door: "Leave home behind, ye who enter here."

Few vital statistics are so kept that we can determine what per cent. of women teachers marry, or how many marry so late in life as to convert marriage into a business partnership. Yet that there is a tendency toward a new sisterhood is evident to the observer; and, sad to contemplate, the better the women teachers are prepared, the smaller the probability of their marriage.

Is this what is best for the indivi-

dual or the race? Should a noble woman, fitted above her untrained sisters to adorn a home, to transmit to her children the culture that comes from prolonged preparation, be destined, without her wish, almost without her knowledge, to wear the real though invisible veil of the new sisterhood.

It has been determined by President Thomas, of Bryn Mawr College, that a little over half the graduates of Vassar College, up to a somewhat recent date, have married. In all probability, had they all become teachers, not half this number would have married. It will not be long before there will be half a million women teachers in this country, of whom surely a half, possibly three fourths, will belong to the new sisterhood.

The steps toward the new order are about as follows: During her school course the girl is companion to those from whom, under ordinary circumstances, she would choose her husband. But she goes to college to develop her mind, and complete her preparation for teaching. While she is getting her higher education the first group of natural mates have formed other ties that lead to marriage. During her college career in a co-educational institution the young woman forms a new group of associations from which marriage might result. But she is intent upon teaching, and upon getting a business start in life. Years and distance intervene, so that by the time the young man is ready to marry he has become intimate in a new social circle, and to the young woman, a second group of social opportunities is lost. At this point, the ambitious young teacher, feeling

the double spur of ambition and financial need enters the school-room. For nine months of the year she devotes every energy of body and mind to her school work. Intellectual motherhood is quite as engrossing as the other kind. In the summer she must rest her tired nerves at home. She is now intellectually transported beyond the reach of her former associates and is without time or strength for the forming of new social ties. Thus four, five, seven, ten years pass. The veil, at first invisible, can now be seen.

What is to be the outcome? Does anybody care? Is there any remedy?

There are three things that make the case worse than it need be. They are poverty, drudgery and social isolation.

Our country has had a problem that has confronted no nation previous to the present century. It is universal education. The new problem has been solved so far by drawing upon a hitherto unused resource. For the new work a new instrument has been found. Women have been exploited for the benefit of the community. They have devoted brain and soul to the work up to the point of nervous prostration. Yet what is the reward? Money enough for plain food, plainer clothing, and—the shelter of her father's roof. Fortunately women are not called upon to found families, their wages barely sufficing for present necessities, with but small possibility of saving for the time of failing health or declining years.

The public school is now well established; wealth in cities has been vastly increased, so that it is time for the exploitation of women to cease. American cities are financially able to pay their teachers proper salaries. This is demonstra-

ted by the city of New York, whose example is commended to the teachers of other cities. By state legislation no woman in the grades of the New York City schools may receive less than \$600, while a sliding scale enables her to reach \$1,200 a year. Corresponding rates hold for principals and High School teachers. The poverty that now keeps woman teachers out of society is owing to artificial, and, in the long run, unnecessary conditions. It should be possible for the silk gown to displace the shirt waist. City teachers should everywhere agitate for remedial legislation.

Next to poverty, drudgery is responsible for the social isolation of woman teachers. Work in the schoolroom is natural and necessary; but midnight drudgery in correcting papers, and preparing lessons is not only unnecessary, but it is injurious to the best interests of the children themselves. The remedy is, fewer pupils to the teacher in the lower grades and less routine drudgery in the higher. Strength should be left for social enjoyment, while opportunity for it, even if not constant, should at least be frequent. Superintendents and teachers have this matter largely in their own hands.

The social isolation of the best trained brains in the community is bad, not only for the teachers but for society itself. Should cards and dancing and aimless chit chat be forever the foremost means for social enjoyment? Is there no place for the fine old art of conversation, that delight of the Greek? If the male teacher should be a man among men, should not the woman teacher be a leader in society? Should she be condemned at once to poverty, drudgery and celibacy?

If there is to be a new sisterhood, let membership in it be at least voluntary, not compulsory.

—*School and Home Education.*

## SCHOOL ROUTINE WORK.\*

PROF. SLAUGHT.

THE subject of routine work is one which vitally concerns both the teacher and the student of algebra, though from quite different standpoints. The teacher is his own arbiter as to his methods of carrying on his work, while the pupil gets his habits of studying and reciting almost wholly from the teacher.

Since the teacher is responsible not only for the gross accumulation of facts and the mechanical skill gained by his pupils, but also for their net attainment of mental power, for the habits acquired in their mental processes, and for their general attitude of interest or indifference or dislike for the subject, it becomes of the utmost importance that the teacher should consider his ways, and found his methods on a sound basis.

From the standpoint of the teacher, routine work may be defined as "ways or methods adhered to from habit." One form of such routine consists in a monotonous repetition of the same methods of conducting the recitation. For instance, (1) to have all members of the class or as many as possible continually working at the board; (2) to invariably pick out some bright pupil to solve and explain a difficult problem before the class

\*The paper on "Routine Work," in mathematics, by Assistant Professor H. E. Slaughter, of the University of Chicago, was prepared in response to the wish of the conference of 1899 to have this topic discussed in 1920. As the time for this paper and its discussion was very limited, correspondence with the leader of the conference will be welcome on this or, indeed, any other topic connected with the department of mathematics of mutual interest to the school and the University, and especially concerning topics desired for discussion at the next conference in 1901.

while the others listen; (3) for the teacher always to explain all difficult points, assuming, *a priori*, that his methods are better than any other which might be suggested; (4) to have all examples and problems solved at the board, and the explanations given by letting pupils read their work from the board and quote the rules upon which they have proceeded.

The thoughtful teacher will recognize points of merit in all these methods, and in many others which might be mentioned, and will not deprive himself of the very great advantage in frequently varying his programme, and thus securing the benefits available from all. Moreover, in thus arousing himself from the continuance of any one plan from mere habit, he will at the same time be conferring a great benefit upon the pupils in saving them from routine methods of work which often lead to indifference, dislike and failure.

Plan (1) above, if constantly followed, leaves little chance for general instructions by the teacher in "methods of attack" and desirable "forms of solution," so essential for all to have.

Plan (2) discourages the slower pupils, and lays the teacher open to the charge of favoritism. It is a good scheme for a change, but it should be used to bring out every pupil in the class at least once or twice during the term. It is an important training to learn to think and work before the class while carrying on the explanation in their hearing, and not only the bright pupils, with the difficult problem, but also the slower pupils, with any problem within their reach, should

be given a chance to gain power in this manner.

Plan (3) leads to inaction and irresponsibility on the part of the class if the teacher assumes more than his fair share of the responsibility, and, moreover, what alert teacher has failed to find pupils in every class whose "method of attack" on some problem or theorem was worthy of special consideration on account of its keenness and originality, and how often have the pupils of a class gained an inspiration and a zeal from the presentation of half a dozen different methods of handling the same problem, given by alert and interested members of the class, which could not have been gotten from a single solution given by the teacher, even though his was short, profound and elegant compared with any of the others! There may be three stages in the development of the best solution of a problem by a pupil. First, his own method, for which no other can initially be substituted; secondly, the comparison of his solution with those of others in his class, brought to his attention by the tactful management of his teacher through the vigorous "give and take" of the healthful class room spirit; and, thirdly, the exercise of his judgment in comparing the various methods presented, including, now, that of the teacher, who has impartially brought together all the solutions, and asks the class to choose the best, on the grounds of brevity, clearness and elegance. By this process the pupil's mind has passed through a definite stage of development, and his interest and desire to excel have been stimulated to a healthful degree.

Plan (4) is all too common. It is a habit easily acquired. It seems to be accomplishing results. The work moves along. The examples

are solved. Those who came to class prepared have shown the results of their work, and those who were not prepared may see the results, and copy them from the board. And yet the class may be acquiring a formal knowledge without the real development of thinking power. This danger may be avoided by a proper placing of the emphasis in the explanations required by the teacher. For instance, in first taking up simultaneous equations with two or more unknown quantities every step of the solution should be given, and the reason assigned; but when later use is made of such equations in solving problems, then great stress should be laid upon setting up the equations, and knowing that they properly represent the problem quite independent of the solution of the equations. This is all important now, for what matters it how perfectly the solution of the equations is explained if, after all, the proper equations have not been set up? The emphasis in the one case is on the process of solving equations, in the other case, on knowing that the correct equations are proposed for solution. The proper placing of the emphasis in an explanation relieves the recitation of its humdrum character, brings out clearly the distinction between the real thought involved in the solution and the mere mechanical operations, and saves the time of the class for more important business than merely listening to the monotonous reading of long equations from the board. The question of emphasis should be a matter of constant study on the part of every teacher in reference to the special needs of each class at every change of topic or subject or course. For instance, a broad distinction should be made between the character of the work done in the first year

algebra course and that done in the third year algebra course. In the former case, the pupils are young and unused to working with algebraic symbols, and so the emphasis should be upon the mechanical manipulation, that this may become rapid, accurate and in good form; not, however, neglecting a reasonable attention to the principles involved and to an understanding of the nature of the work. In the latter case, the students are older and have gained some power in thinking for themselves and in assimilating the formulated thoughts of others, and now the emphasis should be upon the statement and demonstration of principles, to the end that algebra may begin to appear to them as a factor in the development of thought-power as well as an instrument for the solution of problems; here, again, not neglecting appropriate attention to the mechanical work involved.

Other forms of routine habits into which a teacher may fall will readily suggest themselves. For instance, the method of assignment of lessons, the use with successive classes of the same problems and for many years of the same text book, etc. Of course, there are good reasons why text books should not be changed too frequently, but one good reason why they should be changed occasionally is that the teachers may not stagnate. The best teacher will always find something new in each successive presentation of a subject, whether from the same or a different text book, but all are bound to have new lines of thought stirred up by using for the first time a different text book. In this connection a remarkable bit of history recently came to my knowledge, throwing light upon routine methods from the standpoint of the teacher. A certain well

known text-book on algebra, of which the first edition was printed many years ago, has in recent years been revised and very much improved in every way, including many new and up-to-date exercises and problems. The publishers would gladly substitute this new book for the old one wherever it is in use and discontinue publishing the old book, but, notwithstanding the crudities of the old book and the excellence of the new one, they still find an annual demand for about forty thousand copies of the old book.

Turning now to the consideration of routine work as related to the student, it may be defined as the "repetition of words and sounds as a means of learning them, with slight attention to their meaning or to the principles involved." Such a description is applicable to all learning of rules by rote, which, of course, no good teacher will allow; and yet even in the classes of good teachers the average pupil will quote a rule rather than give the reason, even when the reason is as short as the rule. For instance, in explaining addition of algebraic numbers the statement of the reason for the result is shorter than the rule for finding it. This may not be true in subtraction, but even there the reason is more easily understood than the rule. In the solution of equations the rule for transposition is too often a mere form of words, though the process which lies back of it is perfectly clear and easy to understand. In place of the rule as usually given for finding the lowest common multiple, the process should be built up by the pupil in each explanation and based simply upon the meaning of the words, "multiple," "common," "lowest." The statement of this process is as short as the rule and has the advantage of compelling the student to

understand what he is talking about.

A like statement is true of most rules in elementary mathematics. The student should be made to understand that quoting a rule is not explaining a process and that he is casting a reflection upon the intelligence of the class when, in giving an explanation, he merely reads off the successive quotations on the board and now and then quotes a rule. What the class wishes to know is not that in multiplying 4327 by 3 he obtained 12967, but why he should multiply by 3 rather than by something else, or why he should multiply rather than divide by 3 or some other number. In other words, the non routine explanation consists in giving the reasons for taking the successive steps and not in reading the results of the successive steps. And this should be insisted upon not only in oral but in written recitation and in all the pupils' mathematical thinking until it shall become his fixed habit.

In concluding, allow me to make three suggestions for avoiding routine work. 1. Present algebra as a language. The pupil is at once interested when he sees that an equation is a sentence in a new language, in fact, a kind of short hand writing. Ask him to translate his problem into algebraic sentences and show him how this new language may interpret to him the nature of the results which he is seeking. On the other hand, insist upon his translating every algebraic formula into English. For instance

$$\frac{a^3 + b^3}{a + b} = a^2 - ab + b^2$$

s a formula which may be repeated n symbols by the mere jingle of the sounds, but not until it is translated into English will the pupil realize

that the same words are applicable to finding the quotient.

$$\begin{aligned} x^0 + y^n \\ x^2 + y^2 = x^4 - x^2y^2 + y^4 \end{aligned}$$

By this constant translation from one language to the other, he comes to recognize certain forms of expression which have a peculiar usefulness and value, and so his interest is aroused and his activities quickened. Let one illustration suffice. The student learns that every equation of the second degree may be reduced to the form.

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0.$$

He should always add to such a statement the explanatory cause in which the meaning of each symbol in the form should be explained. When this is done the form is fully defined and whatever use is made of it is based upon a clear understanding of what it means.

2. Use every new process at the time of its discovery as an instrument for accomplishing some definite and practical results. Take two illustrations which are notable for their omissions from most textbooks. (a) It is shown in fractions that numerator and denominator may be multiplied by the same number without destroying the value of the fraction. Now this should be used at once and always to simplify a complex fraction, which may usually be done by the student mentally. Thus the complex fraction becomes a useful means of whetting the pupil's interest, as soon as he sees how easily it may be simplified, in comparison with the method commonly given. (b) The subject of factoring is usually dwelt upon till the student is fairly expert in dealing with the abstract exercises. And yet, in solving quadratic equations, he is taught to complete the square in every case

and spends hours on examples where minutes would suffice if his attention had, at the start, been called to the solution by factoring instead of leaving this valuable and concrete application of his factoring skill to be suggested in a foot note at the end of the chapter. Factoring should be used at once to solve any quadratic equation whose left-hand member is a trinomial capable of factoring by inspection. And, on the other hand, the solution of quadratic equations by completing the square should be used at once to factor any quadratic trinomial which could not be factored by inspection. Thus each new process finds practical and interesting application and the zeal of the student is proportionately stimulated.

3. Lastly the teacher should use every legitimate opportunity to impress the fact that algebra is a great instrument for solving problems, more powerful than arithmetic; that its work is accomplished through the equation and that a large part of the text-book work simply leads up to a comprehension and understanding of the equation and its solution; but that in reaching this preparation and mastering this preliminary work there is a development of thought expressed in the new language which the student is learning to speak while he is gaining facility in the work. This point of view is sure to stimulate interest on the part of the pupil and this, after all, is the key to successful teaching in any subject.

—*University Record, Chicago.*

## THE LICENSING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND IN THE PAST.\*

PROF FOSTER WATSON.

NOT a man in Europe," says Cardinal Newman, "who talks bravely against the Church but owes it to the Church that he can talk at all." It is only when we come to read the history of the middle ages that we realize the full import of what Newman asserts. And, whatever may be said on the subject by partisans, the impartial historian of education will always gladly recognize the glorious part played by the Church in the episcopal and early monastic schools. Not that the candid inquirer will necessarily suppose that the Church was the first or only institution which recognized the responsibility of handing on the torch of learning from one generation to another, or

of spreading widecast the benefits of culture and instruction. The Holy Catholic Church had been founded on the model of the "Universal Empire," which the City of Rome had held before itself in its political vision. The military, social, political organism, which hoped to complete itself in universal dominion had, it is true, passed away. But, like the waves of the sea, as the currents of history moved onward into fresh regions the old ideals passed onwards, and moulded the new waters with the old forms of aspiration towards a universal empire, now to ecclesiastical, rather than political, ends. In attempting large and far-reaching ecclesiastical objects, it was not likely that educational ends, in some subsidiary degree, would be left out. For the institu-

\*We regret not being able to give paper in full.

tions of Church and State, corporations as they are of the highest and most comprehensive forms, "never die," and for the continuance of the ideas for which they stood to future ages—nay, to even the following generation—the culture and education of the young is too pressing and obvious a condition to escape the urgent attention of a State or religion of even a comparatively low type.

We should expect, therefore, that the care for the young in their upbringing would not be overlooked by the builders of the old Roman Empire. Into this I cannot go further than to quote the words of Gibbon: "In all the cities of the Roman world the education of youth was entrusted to masters of grammar and rhetoric, who were elected by the magistrates, maintained at the public expense, and distinguished by many lucrative and honorable privileges." Without further inquiry on what would be an interesting question—viz., to what degree the organization in this direction was elaborated by the Romans—I only pause here to remark that the arrangements spoken of by Gibbon, however thorough, or however lacking in their completeness, were clearly directed to the production of the citizen—probably, indeed, with that high ideal before them, as declared in detail to us by Quintilian, of the *bonus orator*.

With the words of Cardinal Newman still sounding in our ears, it is best to respectfully pass by in comparative silence the early centuries of the Christian era; for details of educational history are lacking, or, when found, are not indicative, for the most part, of the encouragement of secular learning. The Fourth Council of Carthage, for instance, disallowed the reading of secular books, even by the Bishops. This

was in 398 A.D.; and, although there were individual Churchmen who had more generous views as to literature, yet it would seem that learning and teaching came into prominence in the Christian Church with the foundation and development of the Benedictine Order of monks.

It was not, however, till the time of Charlemagne that education became organized as such. In 787 he addressed a letter to the Abbots of the monasteries throughout his Empire. This proclamation has been called "the first general charter of education for the middle ages." In it Abbots are exhorted to study "letters," to enable them to understand more clearly the contents of the Scriptures, and because, "although right doing be preferable to right speaking, yet must the knowledge of what is right precede right action." But the Abbots are further expected to choose men for study who will not only be zealous and capable students, but also will be desirous of instructing others. These instructions were issued to Bishops as well as to Abbots. Theodulf, the Bishop of Orleans, was one who carried out the directions of the King. The spirit in which he did this is seen by the fact that he required all the clergy in his diocese to receive all children who should be sent by their parents to be taught in each parish, and that no fees were to be exacted. There is the principle of universal free elementary education suggested. How far this was adopted in the other dioceses, or even in Theodulf's own, it is difficult to suggest. But the idea of universal education is there, and it is in the spirit of this great King, Charlemagne. I only add that Charlemagne established the great Palace Schools for the people about his Court, together with others of the laity from a dis-

tance, and that into these schools he brought the most distinguished scholars of the day, one of the greatest being obtained from England, viz., Alcuin, of the York School.

After rapidly tracing the progress of the organization of education through several centuries, the lecturer quoted decretals from the Popes requiring bishops, or their officers, to license fit persons to teach, and ordering that no payment should be asked for such licenses. Cases were quoted to show the qualifications required in applicants for the license. Cases, further, were quoted to show that unlicensed teachers and schools were put down vigorously. The conclusion was that the evidence pointed to obtaining a license as being the only mode of entrance to school teaching from the twelfth century onward. Mr. Watson continued:—

Mr. Arthur F. Leach did an inestimable service to the history of education in showing with such a wealth of illustration the importance of the chantry schools in English education of the pre-Reformation times. "The great bulk of the charities," he says, in England, "seem to have been founded in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and went on in increasing crowds with the spread of wealth, right up to the Reformation." Although the chantry priest was, in the first place, appointed to pray for the soul of an individual, his family, and friends, eventually other functions fell to his lot, one of the most common being that of teaching poor boys. As there were chantries in connection with most, if not all, of the important Churches of the country, that the teaching of children should be required of the chantry priest by the bequeather of a chantry was analogous to the institution by the Church of a prebend in the

cathedral churches for the scholasticus.

Mr. Leach has nothing to say about licenses to these chantry priests in his "English Schools at the Reformation—1546-48"; but, in his newly issued volume on "Early Yorkshire Schools,"\* he has given interesting cases in connection with licensing teachers in the chapter schools of York, Beverley and Ripon.

In connection with York, he tells us how, in 1367, Mr. Adam, of York, Precentor complained that "Whereas by immemorial custom the keeping school in the city of York for teaching boys singing ought to be held in a certain place belonging to the Cathedral Church, the appointment and removal of the rector or master of which was appurtenant to the Precentorship, yet divers chaplains, holy water carriers, and many others, actually keep song school or schools in parish churches, houses, and other places in York, to the no small prejudice and grievance of the Precentor...." All such masters, or keepers of schools, on the order of the Archbishop, were required to give them up within a fortnight on pain of ecclesiastical censure.

In 1375 one of the York schools had a master, John of York, who, on appeal to the Chancellor, had an unlicensed Grammar-School master put down. The alternative was pain of excommunication. Mr. Leach refers to further cases of suppression of unlicensed teachers at St. Paul's, London, 1137, and at Winchester in 1180, at Canterbury, 1307-22; and states that similar rights were exercised by the Abbot of Walden, at Saffron Walden, in 1475.

The cases referred to by Mr. Leach at Beverley are given more circumstantially.

\* Yorkshire Archaeological Society's Record Series," 1898. (1899.)

In 1304, on the motion of the rector of the school, Robert of Dalton, clerk, "who, unmindful of his salvation," had dared to teach school there, to the prejudice of the liberties of the Church, was directed by the Chapter to desist in nine days, or he would be solemnly excommunicated in Dalton Church. In the following year, Stephen of Gorton, clerk, received a similar warning for keeping an adulterine (*i. e.* unlicensed) school in Kelk. If he did not desist, he, to, was to be excommunicated, but, in his own school, *in scholis ipsius Stephani*. Mr. Leach's third case is at Beverley itself—an action against Geoffrey of Sancton, in 1305, for keeping an unlicensed school. He was warned to abstain from teaching, and actually fell under sentence of excommunication. "But, as with hardened mind, he despised the things of the Church, a hearing was refused him. They, therefore, asked the Official to avoid the said Geoffrey in the Consistory Court and other places whatsoever, and cause him to be avoided by others; that whilst he is shut out from common intercourse, being overwhelmed with shame, he may be more easily bent to the grace of humility and the result of reconciliation." This was effectual, for, in 1306, the Chapter directed Sir Alan of Humbleton to absolve Geoffrey of Sancton from excommunication.

The system of licensing teachers, I take it, thus remained in the hands of the Church till the time of the Reformation. As Mr. Leach has shown, the chief schools at that time were the chantry schools, and, with the dissolution of these, consequent upon the Chantry Acts of 1546-48, in the reign of Edward VI., the system of licensing, it would seem, lost its universality. But it continued to exist, at least, as a sur-

vival from the old ecclesiastical system. As I shall show, it continued without a break to remain part of the Canon Law of the English Church.

In the reign of Mary, on the restoration of the Roman Church, there was, in 1555, an attempt to return to the practice of licensing. In the "Constitutiones Legatinæ R. Poli Cardinalis" the eleventh Decretum is in Latin: "Let no one, for the future, dare to undertake in any place the office of teaching, unless he has been examined by the Ordinary, and has been admonished as to the books which he ought to read. If it be otherwise, let him incur the pain of excommunication, and be prohibited from teaching for three years. And amongst those who already perform the office of teaching, if any one should be found unworthy in faith, teaching, or morals, let him be ejected; but, if worthy, let him be confirmed."

Immediately after Elizabeth's accession, at the meeting of Convocation of the Province of Canterbury, it was proposed—but it does not seem clear whether it actually became an ordinance—"that no one should be admitted to teach youth, either in schools or private families, unless he has been approved by the Ordinary." This was embodied in the injunctions given by the Queen concerning the clergy and laity of this realm. And, again, in 1571, Convocation of Canterbury not only made this quite definite, but added: "That the Bishop shall approve no schoolmaster as worthy of the office of teacher, unless, in his judgment, he has sufficient knowledge *nisi quam suo judicio doctum invenerit*, and unless he is recommended as worthy in life and morals by the testimony of pious men."

(To be continued).

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might  
 To weakness, neither hide the ray  
 From those, not blind, who wait for day,  
 Though sitting girt with doubtful light.

That from Discussion's lips may fall  
 With Life, that working strongly, binds—  
 Set in all lights by many minds,  
 So close the interests of all.

Happy New Year

For somehow, not only for Christmas, but all the long year thru,  
 The joy that you give to others is the joy that comes back to you ;  
 And the more you spend in blessing the poor and the lonely and sad,  
 The more of your heart's possessing returns to make you glad. — *Whittier.*

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

OUR fellow-subjects in the Province of Quebec have features in their system of education which appear to advantage when we examine the school system of Ontario. The moral element in human conduct, in both the Roman Catholic and the Protestant Schools, has much more value given to it than in the Ontario Public Schools. It is not sufficient answer to say that our system is common to classes in our community, while there is separation recognized in the Schools of Quebec. Here we have a conscience clause to meet this difficulty and it is acknowledged by all practical men that it does meet the difficulty. The authorities recognize and support a pension for the retirement of teachers under certain conditions. This is a humane measure and an honor to the Province. But in the matter of salaries the Province of Ontario ranks considerably higher than Quebec. We wish to direct the attention of our readers to the information bearing on this question given by Mr. E. Smith at the Teachers' Convention lately held in Knowlton, County of Brome. We had no idea that the status of the teacher was and is such as he, no doubt correctly, represents it to be. Must the

teachers of Quebec act upon the advice of the Hon. Mr. Justice Lynch ?

\* \* \*

The Government of Ontario relinquished, on the 14th of December, all supervision and management of Upper Canada College, in accordance with the terms of the Act passed by the Provincial Legislature last winter. The College has now been in existence for a few years more than seventy; its work has been of a high order, and beneficial to the country.

Under the terms of the same Act the control and management hereafter is vested in a Board of Trustees, some of whom are members by virtue of the office which they hold, and others are elected by the "Old Boys" of U.C.C.

The Board of Governors as now constituted is as follows: Chief Justice Armour, Hon. Richard Harcourt, Sir William Ralph Meredith, Messrs. A. E. Kemp, M.P., Æmilius Irving, Q.C., W. H. Beatty, Henry Cawthra, W. G. Gooderham, W. R. Brock, M.P., J. W. Flavelle, W. D. Matthews, J. S. Willison, Frank Arnoldi, Q.C., W. T. Boyd, John Henderson, R. K. Hope and Lieut.-Col. George T. Denison.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY wishes Upper Canada College a high and honorable career through-

out the coming years in its service for Canada and the Empire of Great Britain.

There is only five per cent. of the Public School pupils who enter the High Schools; the instruction of the ninety-five in every hundred is wholly given in the Public Schools of the province.

The above statement is frequently seen in the public prints of the day.

Practically the above statement is correct if we consider only the Public Schools and the High Schools.

A very natural question to ask is how well do the Public Schools attend to this very important work? In what manner do these schools care for the 95 out of every 100 of the pupils on their registers? The parent puts these questions; does he get any answer to them? He gets the cut and dry (by now quite dry) answer, that the school system of Ontario is the best in the world, and with this he is forced to be content. True, some parents may be told that several pupils of their school passed the entrance examination to the High School. If he should question further by asking: Is it for preparing pupils to pass the entrance examination to a High School that the Public School works?

The reply will be so definite and vigorous a NO! as to convince the enquiring parent that he has made a bad mistake, or even a blunder. The tax-payer, without children, is putting the question, which he has been asking for years: "What are your Public Schools now doing; Teachers, Inspectors, Minister of Education? Can you give me any sign with which I ought to be reasonably satisfied that the money you spent year by year, and furnished in such handsome sums by the tax-payer, is not wasted, is used

for the best interests of the children of Ontario." I wish to know from the Public School men of this province how many of the 95 out of every 100 you only prepare in the Public Schools for ordinary life, know the subjects for the first four forms on the Public School programme in a fair and reasonable way?

Tell us what has become of the 478,194 registered on your books for the year 1898? Kindly give an account of your stewardship in regard to these children? It is a high honor that 95 per centum of the children of the province finish their schooling in these primary institutions of learning; but it carries with it grave responsibility. Every parent, every tax payer, every supporter of these schools, every lover of his country is entitled to a proof of some kind that those children are nourished and in a proper way. Let the Province of Ontario hear from the Inspectors of the Public Schools how the work in these schools is done. Hew to the hon. gentlemen, let the chips fall as they may.

The report of the Minister of Education does not give the requisite information.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY writes thus with the kindest feelings towards the Public Schools, and greets them with Happy New Year.

#### EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.

This makes the seventh volume of Dr. Hodgins' great work setting forth the different movements in our province for the betterment of the education of our people as there can be ascertained from the original documents. Those only who have made the attempt of seeing and securing copies of ori-

ginal documents can at all appreciate the important and valuable work Dr. Hodgins has done and is doing for the student of history, especially that of the history of education in Ontario.

In these volumes the teachers of history in our different schools of learning can find at first hand the detailed narrative of the various steps taken, which led to the results now observable in our modes of dealing with educational matters.

The seventh volume treats of two important years in our educational work. The years 1847-1848 were years of agitation and discussion on constitutional questions. Party feeling ran high. The clergy reserves had been a source of debate and ill-feeling for years; their secularization was advocated in 1838 by Mr. Francis Hincks, and the question was not finally settled until 1854. Municipal institutions were being introduced; the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, Superintendent of Education, was very much occupied with the reorganization of the Common Schools; the University question was very much in evidence for several years, and especially during the two years covered by this volume, publication of which is opportune at the present time owing to the active revival of the University question within the last couple of years. For here we have the discussions and resolutions on the question by men of intelligence, ability and experience.

The introduction of Dr. Ryerson's new system of Common Schools and the University question were the two salient features of interest in education.

The following were the chief improvements sought to be gained by the new system :

(1) Efficient inspection or superintendence. This was secured

through district superintendents, appointed and paid by the municipality, then called a district, the whole system being under the direction of the Chief Superintendent.

(2) Qualified teachers. The district superintendent was authorized to examine and license persons so qualified, and no others were recognized.

(3) Efficient support of the schools. For this purpose the provincial grant to each school was to be supplemented by an equal amount levied by assessment by the Municipal Council. The balance of the amount required was levied by the rate bill, or by voluntary subscription from those sending children to the school. The principle of free schools supported by an assessment on the property of the section was rejected by the Legislature.

(4) Local management by the election of trustees for each section. These trustees were empowered under the control of the District Municipal Council to erect and maintain the schoolhouse at the expense of the people at large, the amount being collected by a school rate on the assessed property of the section.

(5) General attendance. This was promoted by the power given to trustees to exempt the children of the indigent poor from the school rates.

All these provisions were approved by the more intelligent and far-seeing of the people, but for years the discussion was very keen and the opposition strenuous. These were the beginnings of our Public School system. The Rev. Superintendent saw them all adopted and several other important improvements added before he withdrew from the office which he had held and so ably filled for many years.

The University is being dealt with in the pages of this magazine from month to month. We cannot but express our thanks to the historian of Ontario for the patience and skill with which he has collected these documents, and we have no doubt that many a teacher and writer in the future will be

grateful to Dr. Hodgins for his untiring industry in securing, ere it was too late, these valuable records.

"Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada," by I. George Hodgins, M.A., LL.D., of Osgoode Hall, barrister-at-law, etc. Vol. VII. 1847-48. (Toronto: L. K. Cameron, Printer to the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty, 1900)

### CURRENT EVENTS.

"Gray says very justly that learning never should be encouraged, it only draws out fools from their obscurity; and, you know, I have always thought a running footman as meritorious a being as a learned man. Why is there more merit in having travelled one's eyes over so many reams of paper than in having carried one's legs over so many acres of ground?" Thus wrote Horace Walpole from his town house in Arlington Street on May 6, 1755, to Dr. Richard Bentley. This was rather a *bon mot* than seriously meant, even when it was penned. Certainly, at the present day, it would be difficult to discourage learning, except amongst the idle, who have but little inclination for it. According to the Seer of Chelsea, the people of these islands were mostly fools some fifty years ago, so that on Gray's system the learned would be few. Perhaps there are no fools now. Since 1850 the schoolmaster has been very much more abroad; but, unfortunately, without much practical result, as we gather from Mr. Asquith's speech before the Leeds Chamber of Commerce on Nov. 23. Mr. Asquith, contrasting the prospects which lay before British trade when that Chamber was born in 1851, and the results realized in the half century which has followed, spoke

of the high expectations called forth by the Great Exhibition of 1851, which was to inaugurate a new era of international concord; and, referring to the Chinese crisis, said: "We hardly seem to be as yet within a measurable distance of the ideal to which the author of 'Locksley Hall' had looked forward;" and asked, "How had we been faring during the last fifty years?" He admitted that Board of Trade optimism might show by figures that our national wealth and trade had reached an unprecedented figure; but the question still remains, Are we holding our own?

He then went on to say that, in answering this question, we were now confronted with two new factors—the competition of Germany and of the United States of America. "The rise of Germany into the front rank of the commercial powers of the world was," he said, "the most remarkable illustration that was to be found of the practical value of education, organization and concentration." . . . "The same sleepless industry, the same tenacity of purpose, the same training and moulding of intelligence for a specific end which had given the German in turn first military supremacy and then political unity, had enabled him to overtake, and, if we did not mend our ways, would enable him

to outrun, his more favored rivals in the industrial struggle of the world. What was the lesson which this experience ought to teach us here in England?" . . . "The answer to this question," he said, "could not be better presented than it had been in Lord Rosebery's address to the students of Glasgow, and through and beyond them to all who loved and served the British Empire. For the business of the Empire in all its departments we wanted thoroughly trained and equipped business men, and, paradoxical as it sounded, nowhere was it more urgently wanted than in the field of business, for business was a question of education.

"Let any man," said he, "contrast the magnificent educational apparatus of Continental States, of which the humblest boy in those countries might make use, with our own scanty, slovenly, unscientific, and ill organized system or want of it, and he would no longer be at a loss to understand why England was handicapped in the race for commercial supremacy." And he urged upon the British Chamber of Commerce to press on Governments and Parliaments the urgency of creating and maintaining a properly equipped system of commercial and technical schools. There can be no question as to the practical value and wisdom of Mr Asquith's advice, albeit the learning may not be of the same nature as that Horace Walpole had in his mind, which was doubtless confined to the study of the Latin and Greek classics.

On the same night the President-elect of the British Association, Professor A. W. Rucker, when distributing the prizes to the students of Bradford Technical College urged that scientific and technical study should be relieved and aided by the

study of modern languages. Science was becoming more international. This year a scientific confederation of the world had been formed, and the new century would see the beginning of an international catalogue of scientific literature. He considered that a knowledge of modern languages should replace that of Latin; and insisted on the immediate, pressing, and vital importance for our national welfare that scientific knowledge should not only be more widely spread but also that the scientific method should be more widely applied to industry.

—Ex

#### BEDFORD TEACHERS' CONVENTION.

THE moral effect of school games was the subject of a very thoughtful paper by Inspector E. M. Taylor. It laid special emphasis upon the playground as a field where self-control is the predominating lesson. The school-room implies restraint and the domination by a stronger will, but in the sports boys and girls must restrain themselves and act for themselves. He called attention to the increased attention given to sports by leading Universities when the football teams, cricket eleven and hockey clubs take rank among the other organizations registered in their calendars. He had noticed, he said, when passing Roman Catholic Schools how the nuns and brothers mingled with the youth in their games showing that they recognized their moral possibilities. While selfishness is in a measure checked by the whole some rebukes on the playground, and self control largely trained and strengthened, decision of character and characteristics of prompt action are developed. The boy at play must instantly decide what to do as the ball comes in his direction. To hesitate is to provoke ridicule and

ensure defeat. He said that he was informed that the thoughtful moral philosophers of France have discovered that they are not keeping up with the English, largely owing to the fact that France has had no wide-spread school games and the French Government is now employing Englishmen to teach pupils of French Schools the games prevalent in England.

Mr. E Smith rather opened the eyes of those present by an incisive paper on teachers' salaries. He presented some interesting facts, based on reports of school inspectors, to whom he had directly addressed a series of questions. The results of his investigation he described as being "as distressing as they are astounding." These reports showed eighteen hundred and eighteen Protestant elementary teachers in the province are receiving an average salary of \$11.20 per month. This is on the reckoning of twelve months in the year. "Of course," said Mr. Smith, "if when the school closes in May a teacher can fall into a trance and not require to incur any expense for her maintenance until September, then her salary rises to the magnificent sum of \$16 per month."

Mr. Smith was very emphatic in his opinion that both teachers and commissioners were to blame for this shameful state of affairs. He strongly deprecated the habit of teachers underbidding one another. He had known graduates in arts in McGill and Bishop's strenuously exerting themselves to secure schools from \$250 to \$600 per year. Nothing could be more degrading in his opinion than the custom in vogue in our school municipality of which he had personal knowledge. It is there the custom for the school commissioners to assemble on a given day, of which due notice is

given, and in the presence of applicants auction off the school appointments to the lowest bidder. Scarcely less reprehensible is the custom of advertising for a teacher and asking him to state salary expected. This means that so long as an applicant is cheap, does not drink and will not put the board to any expense for school apparatus he will fill the bill. The cheapest man gets the post. Mr. Smith urged united action on the part of teachers in resisting these humiliating methods and the invoking of legislative action to correct them. He was in favor of government control of school taxation and the fixing by statute of a minimum salary for each class of teachers. He held that the minimum salary of a Principal of an Academy should be \$900; of a Model School, \$600; of an elementary, \$200. He would also place restrictions upon the promotion of teachers, each requiring to have certain qualifications in the way of experience as well as diplomas.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Lynch made a very pleasing speech in which he strongly urged the teachers to unite to raise the standing of their profession in the eyes of the public so as to induce a more just recompense. He was not an advocate of combines or strikes, but he was inclined to tell the teachers that if they could not accomplish their purpose any other way, then strike. His Honor called attention to the importance of healthy school games. He strongly advocated the encouragement of cricket and begged of the Principals of the several Academies in the district to interest themselves in this subject.—*Daily Witness, Montreal.*

SOCIAL STANDING OF THE TEACHER.—A second great difference between town and country schools lies in the social standing of the teacher

and the social importance of the school. In the city the teacher is a private individual with her own private social circle of friends and acquaintances selected in accordance with her own tastes or family connections. What she may say or do outside of the school-room is her own concern and gives rise to no comment beyond that of her own circle. In the country, on the other hand, with its limited social life, the teacher, by virtue of her office, holds a semi-public position, and every word and act, out of school no less than in school, is subject to the light of publicity. The proverbial gossip of country places is often annoying, but it is a natural result of the conditions of rural life, and is not in itself an essentially bad thing. The teacher cannot escape, she must meet it, and the manner in which she does this determines whether for her it shall be a good thing or a bad one. She may set the neighborhood to discussing things which make for their own social, intellectual and moral improvement, if not so easily yet quite as surely as she can allow them to descend to empty discussion of her dress and manner or criticism of her behaviour, and this power of the teacher is reinforced by the importance of the school as a factor in the social life of the community.

In the city, the school is regarded almost from a business standpoint. It is a place where so much knowledge, so much thinking power, is to be gained at the cost of so many hours of attendance. Little or no social interest is connected with it. The social needs of the people are met in full by other means, the theatre, the lecture, the concert, the various Church meetings, clubs, societies, parties and friendly calls. Even the children are often allowed more of social recreation than they

can afford either the time or the strength for, and it is the interest of the city school to restrict rather than to encourage this.

But in the country it is quite different. Many of the aids to social life are quite lacking, all are greatly reduced and the school in the absence of other institutions becomes an important social centre not only for the children but through them for the whole community. And in turn the social element becomes an important part of school life.

Again we find this fact to be seldom clearly recognized. The young teacher fresh from her home school has left behind her a circle of friends and companions, to whom she expects to return soon, and she has little or no desire to assume other and essentially different social relations with people with whom she has little in common and on a footing which she either does not understand at all, or but dimly at best. Her home, her friends, her social sympathies are all elsewhere; she is employed to teach the school, and doing that to the best of her ability she seems to herself to have done her whole duty. The social opportunities for good which the school presents and her responsibility for the best use of those opportunities is too often completely overlooked.

—*Florence Burlingham Minn.*

The *London Press* has the following item among its editorial notes:

"Wanted—A teacher for a day school at Roseville, Gaspé County, who would also act as leader in Sabbath-school and organist in Sabbath preaching services. An opportunity for a Christian worker to deny self on a salary of \$125 a year. Address Rev. A. Fairbairn, Cape Ozo, Gaspé Co., Que.

"The *Free Press* generally charges

a cent a word for its want ads., and they are well worth it, because they bring results. But the above is printed gratis, just to show what grand openings there are in the world for ambitious people. The ad. is genuine, and appeared in a Toronto paper."

The teaching profession in the Province of Quebec is worse than it is here, but that may not long be the case, if our present system of education is not changed. The Ontario Education Department, which had for so many years the Hon. Geo. W. Ross—an old school teacher—at its head, seems to have been managed with the idea that the sole end and aim of education was to turn out men and women fated for the profession of teaching. The whole system of studies was arranged with that one object in view. In a new country, where education of a kind which would fit men to develop its resources was an absolute necessity, bookish learning was the only thing taught. For twenty-five years the Hon. Geo. W. Ross has neglected the most essential side of the educational problem—technical training. As a result, the bright young men went into teaching and the learned professions instead of into the more practical vocations of life. We are grinding out teachers by the hundred, while the openings for them are not increasing in number. Salaries, under such a system, must necessarily go down. When young men learn that the practical callings offer better inducements, and when our system of education has been directed along such lines as will lead them to adopt these callings, then there may be a change for the better in the salaries of teachers.

In a very comprehensive lecture at the Presbyterian College, on Friday afternoon, where there were a

number of ladies present, besides the students, the Rev. Dr. MacVicar gave his views on the subject of studying and teaching a Sunday-school lesson. The teacher should first become familiar with the lesson by reading it often and thoughtfully, with the context, and comparing parallel passages and the revised version. Next he should enumerate the elements contained in the lesson, finding these by asking himself numerous questions, personal thinking being better than outside helps. He should next define the terms involved in the elements. In the fourth place, he should fish out the thoughts that logically clustered about the dominant points. The Doctor reminded his hearers that the deadliest enemy of real knowledge was fancied knowledge. The teaching should be in harmony with all the fundamental doctrines of the Bible. All evidence on doubtful points should be carefully studied, analyzed and proved before being given to the class. It was wise to go before the class with the chief points of the lesson systematically arranged and to stick to the lesson for the short time at one's disposal. A teacher should know much more about the lesson than he expected to teach and make a careful selection of the best for consideration. A teacher should study his pupils and be in earnest. A careless teacher should be dismissed. The continual and final aim of all teaching should be the salvation of the class.

The Lindsay Collegiate Institute has issued a neat brochure announcing the lecture course arranged for the season of 1900-01. These lecture courses have become an established feature of the Collegiate Institute's work, their influence tending toward broader culture and keener intellec

tual activity among the students. Public interest and appreciation are shown by the representation of the Town and County Councils on the Lecture Committee, which also includes representatives of the Board of Education, the Literary Society, the Athletic Association and the four forms of the Institute. The season's course began on December 14 with a lecture by Hon. Geo. W. Ross on "Undercurrents in Canadian History." Mrs. S. Frances Harrison (Seranus) has chosen as a subject "Canadian Scenery: Its Influence Upon Nationality." Mr. Benjamin Russell, M.A., D.C.L., of Halifax, will lecture on "The Seamy Side of Democracy," and the course will close with a lecture by Hon. Thos. Chase-Casgrain, of Montreal, on "Law, Lawyers and Law Practice in Quebec." These courses have given the people of Lindsay the advantage of contact with the thinkers of the Dominion and most active participants in our public affairs, and the influence is by no means confined to the Collegiate Institute. The brochure contains portraits and brief biographical sketches of the lecturers, with enlightening dates and other relevant information.

The Right Hon. Sir Donald Alexander Smith, Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, High Commissioner for Canada, in London, was born in Morayshire, in Scotland, in 1820. He received his education in a parish school, and entered the service of the Hudson Bay Company in 1839. Promoted step by step he became a Chief Factor. Subsequently he became resident governor of the company, and its chief commissioner, a position he still holds. He came into public notice in connection with the settlement of the Red River Rebellion in 1869,

which he managed with great tact. He represented Manitoba in the local legislature and in the Dominion parliament for many years. He is a Queen's Privy Councillor of Canada, has frequently received the favor of the Queen, has been connected with industrial and railway progress in Canada for a generation, and his gifts to Canadian institutions of charity and learning, with other benefactions, have made his name justly famous.

"The Canadian Pacific Railway would have no existence to-day, notwithstanding all the Government did to support that undertaking, had it not been for the indomitable pluck and energy and determination, both financially and in every other respect, of Sir Donald Smith.—Sir Charles Tupper, 1897.

The latest department of work to be established in Dartmouth College is a teaching agency, to aid Dartmouth alumni in securing suitable positions. The names of all alumni who are teaching will be recorded, and the specific work of the department will be to ascertain their precise qualifications. This will furnish a bureau to which schools may apply, and secure men of the qualifications which are needed to fill their vacancies. Such a department will certainly find a field.

Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, the Canadian High Commissioner, was installed December 18 as lord rector of Aberdeen University. He met with a demonstratively cordial greeting from the students. In his rectorial address Lord Strathcona dealt with the unity of the Empire. He referred to the gratifying growth of the Dominion of Canada, the federation of Australia, and the similar federation of South Africa, to follow the war. The speaker did

not altogether favor an imperial parliament. He thought a consultative imperial council would meet all the needs. At the close of his address Lord Strathcona announced that he would give £25,000, provided £50,000 more was raised within a year, to wipe out the debt of the University.

#### OXFORD UNIVERSITY STATISTICS.

In the Calendar for 1901, issued by the Oxford University Press and published by Mr. Henry Frowde, the number of Undergraduates is given as 3,499, there being 6,258 members of Convocation and 13,136 members on the College books. The last total may mislead if it is not borne in mind that many members have their names on the books of more than one Society. A year ago the figures were respectively 3,446, 6,220 and 12,968. The matriculants in 1899 numbered 856, or 42 more than in 1898; there were 355 Masters of Arts, or a decrease of 29; and 556 Bachelors of Arts, or 57 fewer. Christ Church has 307 Undergraduates, New College 294, Balliol 267, Keble 216, and All Soul's has fewest, with a total of six. There are 208 non Collegiate Undergraduates. The following have upwards of 500 members on the books: Christ Church 1,338, Balliol 1,005, New 926, Exeter 874, Keble 747, Magdalen 743, Trinity 694, University 662, St. John's 653, Brasenose 565, Merton 534 and Queen's 527.

Co-education in the States seems to cause no difficulty in the classroom, but in social gatherings things do not always go smoothly. It is reported that at Chicago the "co eds." have been excluded from University functions, as they say, because the professors' wives were jealous, as the faculty say, because too much gaiety interfered with the

girls' studies. Harvard has organized an "Anti-Fussing Society" to make head against the distractions of feminine influence. It is said that a great many of the students were so taken up with pink teas and dances and receptions that they lost interest in athletics. The members of the "Anti-Fussing Society" bind themselves to pay a fine of \$5 for a dinner or a dance; \$3 for one tea; one call, not more than an hour in length, \$1; (duty calls, half rate.) If one of the members becomes engaged, all the rest go into mourning for three days. If at Harvard such an elaborate protest against feminine influence is necessary, it is evident that the Oxford and Cambridge undergraduates were justly apprehensive of the results of admitting women to graduate standing. McGill has, it may be hoped, chosen the golden mean which will give women fair opportunities for higher education without distracting the male students. It is the latter, poor things, who are the objects of such tender solicitude. It seems to be generally admitted that the girls are quite able to look after themselves.

—*Gazette, Montreal.*

The magistrates of New York and other cities comment on the increase of youthful criminals, especially pickpockets; the last five years this has been particularly apparent. It is the practice of some of the magistrates to inquire whether the suspected youth can read and write; he always can, and often writes a good hand; he has attended the Public School—in fact, the law compels this.

This state of things deserves the closest investigation by the teachers of the cities. It has been thought that the salvation of youth was insured if they went to school. Our opinion is that the school and home

are too far apart. The teacher should know the parents; the parents the teacher. The teacher must be far more than a hearer of lessons. We would have the principal and the teachers active in social beneficence in the district tributary to the school.

The discovery of a great tract of fertile country in the Province of Ontario, north of the height of land, adds one-sixth to the area in that province available for cultivation. This country extending to the shores of Hudson Bay, was, until recently, an almost unknown wilderness, and was supposed to be too cold for cultivation. Now, however, it is stated that, owing partly to its lower elevation, the climate on the south shore of James Bay is more moderate than that of Manitoba. A railway is under construction from Sault Ste. Marie northward, and is

expected to reach Moose Factory within three years, opening up rich forest and meadow land as it goes, and finally giving access to the valuable fisheries of Hudson Bay.

Prof. Earl Barnes, in a recent address before the London Sloyd Association, spoke strongly of the advantages of country life, in education. The training a country boy gets is, he said, simple, concrete, persistent and natural; the city boy's education is complex, abstract, variable and artificial. The country lad learns the true relations of cause and effect. He does not grow up with the notion that water comes from a tap; he knows that it must be sought in veins of the earth. Though rural education has its defects, the children in the country have, by reason of their every-day contact with the simple things of life, a great advantage over the children of the city.

#### BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

The opening paper in the November number of *The Studio* is a criticism of the work of A. D. Pepper-corn, written by R. A. M. Stevenson, the art critic who was a cousin of Robert Louis Stevenson's, and whose name is familiar to those who have read the Stevenson letters. Mr. R. A. M. Stevenson's death occurred early in the year; it was stated frequently at the time that his work had not received its proper appreciation. Its balance, earnestness and seriousness will be found exemplified by this article on a modern landscapist.

The November number of *The Philistine* contains an esoteric account of a meeting on a railway train, or perhaps one should rather say an esoteric meeting. There is also a

diverting description of Mr. Bliss Carman's present Bohemian surrounding.

"The Rhyme of the Tory Tollevers" is one of the prettiest contributions to the December number of *St. Nicholas*. It is written by Ethel Parton, and the illustrations, in color, are by Guernsey Moore.

The most important article in the December *Cosmopolitan* is an account by Sir Robert Hart of the Chinese uprising of the last summer. The same article appeared in England in the *Fortnightly Review*. It would be difficult to over-estimate the consideration which ought to be given by the English and American Governments to what Sir Robert Hart has felt himself compelled to write.

The Christmas *Lippincott* contains interesting contributions from Miss Agnes Repplier, George Hibbard and Amelia E. Barr. Mrs. Barr's contribution is the complete novel, "Souls of Passage." There is also a charming fairy story by Evelyn Sharp.

Mr. Lawrence Hutton contributes to the December *Book Buyer* a most interesting account of Penelope, Mrs. Wiggin's Penelope, which is no more commendatory in tone than that fascinating young person deserves. There is also a pleasing article on "The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock," written by George W. Cable.

With the exception of Mrs. Wiggin's Penelope, the palm must be given to a very taking contributors' club in the December *Atlantic*. The headings, from which one may imagine the variety and charm of the disquisitions, are: Charles Dudley Warner; A Bit of the Gospel According to Stevenson; Profanity as a Resource; Pot Boiling; The Glittering Generality, Woman; The Inaccuracy of Accuracy; The Passing Bell.

The Christmas number of the *Century Magazine* is most successful in illustration and from a literary point of view. "Down the Rhine," by Augustine Birrell, is the contribution most worthy of attention from a literary standpoint, although if "Broken Wings" were quite as successful as most of Mr. James' stories one would hesitate before saying so.

Puvis de Chavannes, by John La Farge, is a piece of successful art criticism which appears in the December *Scribner's*. Besides a number of pleasing short stories, there is also an article of considerable weight on George Eliot by W. C. Brownell.

MACAULAY'S ESSAY ON CLIVE—Williams (Longmans—Copp, Clark Co.)

A very complete annotated text, with annotations of the right kind, supplying the information not accessible to the ordinary student or reader. The book has a valuable introduction in which the literary characteristics of the great historian are intelligently discussed.

The Temples and Ritual of Asklepios. By Richard Caton, M.D., F.R.C.P. London: C. J. Clay & Sons. 3s.

This is a beautifully printed and illustrated volume, containing two lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain. It is a most interesting and instructive account of ancient Greek medicine. The history of medicine is now a very favorite subject with medical scholars, who will receive the present volume with delight.

Books received:

*Longmans, Green & Co*, through The Copp, Clark Company, Toronto—

Elementary Algebra, by W. G. Constable and Jos. Mills.

Preliminary Magnetism and Electricity, by John Henderson.

*Macmillan & Co*, through the Copp, Clark Company, Toronto—  
Elementary Mechanics of Solids, by W. T. A. Emtage.

*Ginn & Company*, Boston—  
Folk-lore Stories and Proverbs, gathered and paraphrased by Sara E. Wiltse.

The Story of American History, by Albert F. Blaisdell.

Wilderness Ways, by Walter J. Long.

Krieg und Frieden, selected and edited by Dr. Wilhelm Bernhardt.