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DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF TEACHERS.

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NEW BRUNSWICK SCHOOLS.

The London *Schoolmaster*, probably the most influential educational journal in Great Britain, is publishing a series of articles on "The Schools of Greater Britain." In its last issue, the rise and growth of the educational system of New Brunswick is reviewed, with a correct and carefully prepared *resumé* of its general plan and workings. Accompanying the article is a sketch of the Normal school building at Fredericton. This account will tend to draw the attention of British educationists to our splendid school system, and show the advantages that our Province possesses in this respect. "New Brunswick," says the *Schoolmaster*, "is proud of its school system, and can bring into the light of day not a few testimonials in its favor. It has been described by the *New England Journal of Education* as 'theoretically the best in America,' and its representatives in London on the present occasion are full to the overflow in its favor. Mr. Eldon Mullin, the principal of its Normal college, is enthusiastic in its praises, having gained his experience as teacher and inspector, besides the position of honor which he now occupies. The progress of its school system cannot be otherwise than interesting, therefore, as the record of an earnest effort to succeed. Very early in the history of the Province it was felt by the government and legislature that the education of the people was one of the duties of the State. In 1802, within a few months after its separation from Nova Scotia, the Province of New Brunswick resolved to make a beginning. The sum of £420 (or ten pounds to each parish) was set apart for the purpose of encouraging and assisting in the establishment of schools in the different parishes of the respective counties. From this small beginning there has been developed, by slow degrees, the present public school system of New Brunswick, claimed by its own official spokesman as one of the most perfect, in its principles at least, to be found in any state or country. It was to be expected that, as the population and the material wealth and resources of the Province increased, greater attention would be given to popular education; but the advancement made in respect to the latter has far outstripped the growth of the former."

Those who have aided in founding and bringing to perfection our excellent system of education will feel a pardonable pride in reading the above extract. It is referred to by two excellent authorities as "theoretically the best in America," and "one of the most perfect, in its principles at least, to be found in any state or country." Are not all who are interested in our educational development stimulated by these words to make the *practical, every-day work* of this system tell to the utmost in its favor, and to produce those substantial results that its most ardent friends and supporters claim for it?

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

In connection with our remarks on "Compulsory Education," the *Moncton Times* has the following:

It is possible a cast iron rule of the nature suggested would involve hardship in some cases. Moreover an attempt to make attendance a school compulsory might be misunderstood and objected to as an interference with the rights of the people, though compulsory laws have been adopted with good results in some countries. We think the people should see the necessity, without compulsion, of giving their children the benefits of our excellent school system. No doubt, however, there are some parents who are neglectful in this particular, and we fear also that there are many districts well able to maintain schools that refuse to vote the necessary funds. Perhaps a compulsory clause compelling districts to maintain schools at least a certain period in each year would be in order before compulsory education.

A little discussion of this subject, we think, would be beneficial, and we should like to hear the opinion of the press, generally, on the question.

We do not advocate a cast iron system, but one which shall compel each child of schoolable age to attend school a certain fixed proportion of the time. As to infringing on the liberty of the subject, it is now a recognized principle that the state has the right to educate its people. Would it be any more interference to say that children shall attend school than to say every man shall pay to support the schools? The complaint always comes from heavy ratepayers, having no children, "I would willingly pay my school taxes if the children would only attend school, but to see those children in whose interests the law was specially framed, idling about when there is a school provided is very unsatisfactory."

The provisions of the law are sufficient; stringent to keep the school open if any parent having children in the district wishes to have school privileges provided for them. If the people refuse to provide the necessary accommodation there is a provision in the act by which the Board of Education can do it for them. This plainly, then, is not sufficient.

As to the people seeing what is to their advantage, without compulsion, we quote from the 1882 report of John March, Esq., Supt. of St. John schools:

Attendance.—Some particulars in regard to the percentage of enrolled pupils daily present during each term and throughout the school year are given in another place, but the importance of the subject of attendance demands a further paragraph.

The actual number of pupils enrolled upon all the school registers for the winter term was 8,652, and for the summer term 8,319, with a reported total for the year of 4,171. It needs but little consideration to become convinced that this number is far beneath that of the children of schoolable age resident within the limits of this school district.

The particulars of the census of 1881, showing the population by age, has not yet come to hand, but a fairly correct idea can be formed by taking the figures of 1871 and applying to them the family basis as given in the information already published.

In 1871 there were in the city of St. John 5,668 families, and the population between the ages of 6 and 16 years amounted to 6,878. Our schools receive pupils at 5 years of age and provide for them an eleven years' course, so that really these figures from our standpoint ought to be increased to some-

thing over 7,000. In 1881 the number of families had fallen to 5,178, and upon the former basis, the population between the ages of 6 and 16 years would amount at present to 6,281. Add the children between 5 and 6 years and our schoolable population probably numbers somewhere in the neighborhood of 6,500.

The question is pertinent here: "Where during the past year, were the twenty-three or twenty-four hundred children, which constitutes the difference between the attendance as it was, and the attendance as it ought to have been?"

True, many children are not sent to school at such a tender age as five years, from prudential considerations on the part of the parents, and many others are taken from school before they have completed the full course, to start out for themselves into the various avenues of business, whilst others are receiving instruction in private schools, at home and abroad. But, allowing the widest margin for all this, there is reason to inquire again: "Why was not a very much larger proportion—at least a third more—of our schoolable children profiting by the educational advantages which the law and the authorities acting under it, have so liberally provided?" These questions are of grave importance in view of the future interests of our city and country. But there is something even worse, if that be possible, than the fact that so many are entirely oblivious of the well-being of the community in this respect. The school year consisted of 214 days, but the average number of days that the whole enrolment belonged to the schools was but 171, whilst the average days of attendance was but 117.

There was, consequently, a loss by those actually attending school of 138,925 school days during the year. Of this lost time, 38,294 days were reported to be caused by sickness, and 13,428 on account of bad weather. The remaining 87,203 days were lost mainly through preventable causes, were the people only alive to the terrible waste of time and money which such a neglect of attendance produces, to say nothing of the careless and injurious habits which non-attendance is apt to fasten upon the growing youth of the city.

At the opening of a new term of the Nova Scotia Normal School, at Truro, a few days since, the attendance was much smaller than that of the past term. This, says the *Truro Star*, may be accounted for in two ways: "First, by the abolition of the D class. This class we always considered an excrescence, and something quite beneath the dignity of the Provincial Normal School; therefore we are glad it is done away with. Another reason which may be given for the small attendance is that the great increase in the number of teachers in the Province of late years, which has caused so much competition as to reduce salaries to an extent that renders the position less desirable. The opening address on the subject, 'The Common School,' was delivered by Dr. Hall Mayor Muir, Rev. Mr. Cumming, Rev. Mr. Daniel and Dr. Allison all gave words of welcome and sound advice to the students."

The *American Teacher* gives the following very sensible advice: Despise not your own talent. Most teachers succeed in some department of their work. There is more good teaching than the profession gets credit for. But some teacher who unduly magnifies her own special tact or skill makes other teachers distrust their own worth. While holding yourself ready to learn of any one and every one who has a fresh live idea, do not allow any one to undermine your confidence in yourself. Better be yourself than an imitator. Use the thoughts of others to season your method. Do not permit yourself to be used to season other people's theories.

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HISTORY AND FORMATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY JAMES HUTCHISON, M. A., M. D.

Etymology (from the Greek *etimos*, true, and *logos*, a discourse, or word), is the science which treats of the origin and derivation of words, as related to their signification. English etymology treats of the origin and history of the English language.

English is not the original language of the British Islands. It is not even now the language of the whole of Great Britain and Ireland.

Keltic, the ancient language of these islands, is still spoken in many parts of Ireland, especially in the west, and is commonly called Erse or Old Irish. This is the best preserved language of the Keltic family. Keltic, under the name of Gaelic, is used extensively in the Highlands of Scotland, throughout Wales, under the name of Welsh, and in the Isle of Man, under the name of Manx.

English was not the language of the first inhabitants of England. It was introduced into Britain by various tribes from Germany about the beginning or middle of the fifth century.

These tribes gradually took possession of the most of the country, and it is the language spoken by them which forms the basis of Modern English. Of these tribes the chief were the Saxons and Angles; the Jutes were another tribe.

The language of these people, after settling in Britain, has generally been known by the name of Anglo Saxon.

A preferable term, and the one now generally employed, is Old English, thus identifying the present language with its earliest forms of history. The country was named after one of these tribes, England, the meaning of which is more easily seen in its French name Angleterre, i. e., Angle-land.

Old English was not a composite language, it was an unmixed language, having no admixture of any foreign elements. It was also an inflected language having grammatical gender, declensions, and at least five cases distinguished by different endings. English belongs to the Indo-European or Aryan family of languages. The term Indo European is a most appropriate one, as this family includes almost all the languages of Europe and all those Indian dialects which has sprung from the old Hindoo language (Sanskrit). The term Aryan has of late years almost superseded that of Indo-European from the influence of Prof. Max Muller's popular and suggestive lectures and writings on Philology.

The word Aryan is derived from the root *ar*, to fit, whence the derivative gets the successive meanings of *fitting*, *worthy*, *noble*, *honourable*, as opposed to *barbarian*. This was the name adopted by the Asiatic branch of the family, namely, the ancient Hindus and Persians, to distinguish themselves from the uncivilized or non-Aryans of India whom they had subjugated.

All the Indo-European languages are but dialects of an old and primitive tongue which has ceased to exist. If this statement be kept in mind we will not easily fall into the common error of supposing that Sanskrit is the original and primitive form. This error probably arose from the fact that we have records of Sanskrit speech stretching back to a much earlier period than those of other members of the family, and still more from the peculiar character of Sanskrit—long sentences being expressed by compounds sometimes extending over many lines. There is, indeed, hardly any member of the Indo-European family of languages but occasionally presents us with a form more ancient than the Sanskrit.

There are two great divisions of the Indo-European family, viz., Asiatic and European. Of the existing Indo-European tongues, Sanskrit is the oldest and most primitive.

The English language is a Low-German dialect of the Teutonic branch. The following table will illustrate the descent of English and its connection with the other branches and dialects of the Indo-European family of languages.

ORIGINAL LANGUAGES—INDO EUROPEAN, INDO GERMANIC, OR ANYAN.

Sanskrit and Persian (these include ancient languages and most of the modern dialects of India, Persia, and the surrounding parts)

Slavonic, (spoken through Russia, Poland, Bulgaria, Servia, Illyria and other parts of E. Europe).

Keltic, embracing the two sub divisions, *Kymric* or *Cambrian*, (including Welsh, Cornish, and the Breton of Brittany), and *Gaelic*, (including the Irish Gaelic or Erse, the Scotch Gaelic, and the Manx or Gaelic of the Isle of Man)

Classical, embracing *Hellenic*, (including ancient Greek and Romain or Modern Greek), and *Italian*, (including Latin, Italian, Spanish, French, Portuguese)

Teutonic, embracing *Scandinavian*, (including Icelandic, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish), and *Gothic*, (including *High-German*, Old High-German, and Modern German, and *Low-German*, Modern Frisian, English, Dutch, Flemish).

(In the relationship of the Indo-European peoples see Prof. Schleicher's *Compendium der Vergleichenden Grammatik*, pp. 6-8, and his excellent diagram showing the degrees of relationship of the main families of the Indo-European speech)

BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS FROM 55 B. C. TO 411 A. D.

It has before been stated that Keltic was the original language of Britain. In 55 B. C. the Romans under Julius Caesar invaded Britain, but from the shortness of their stay in the island, they made no impress on the language of the inhabitants.

The island was entirely neglected by the Romans during the reigns of Augustus, Tiberius, and Caligula. In 43 A. D. an expedition was undertaken against Britain; and after considerable successes of the Roman army under Plautius, the emperor Claudius entered Britain in person. From this time Roman governors were regularly appointed over Britain as a Roman province, most of whom extended the dominion of the Romans by subjecting additional states. The most illustrious of these governors was Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, who wrote his life, and in this work he describes the exploits of Agricola in Britain.

The victories of Agricola (A. D. 78-84) carried the Roman frontier and Roman civilization as far north as the Firths of Forth and of Clyde. The conquered population was grouped in great cities such as York or Lincoln, which were defended by massive walls and connected by excellently-made roads which extended throughout the island. The despotic rule of the Romans, by destroying all local independence, crushed all local vigor. It was only in the towns that the conquered Britons became wholly Romanized. Latin became the language of the towns, but the tribes inhabiting the rural districts continued to speak their native Keltic tongue. The Picts from the north began to make repeated and extensive raids, penetrating even to the head of the island for purposes of plunder. Against these attacks the Roman legions defended the Britons till dangers at home forced the Empire to recall the legions and leave the province to defend itself.

To defend Italy from the invasion of the Goths the Roman legions in 411 were recalled, and the province being thus left unaided, seems to have fought boldly against its Pictish assailants, and once, at least, to have driven them back to their mountain fastnesses. In Modern English we have some Latin words, chiefly the names of towns where the Romans had either encamped, or had formed a colony, handed down from this Roman conquest and settlement in Britain.

SAXON INVASION OF BRITAIN.

After the Roman legions had been recalled to defend Italy from the Goths, the Britons, who had before this depended mainly on the Roman power for their defence against the incursions of the Picts, found themselves unable to cope with these invaders who had, meantime, strengthened themselves by a league with the Scots (marauders from Ireland who had taken possession of the western shores of Scotland), and with a still more formidable race of

pirates who had long been pillaging along the British Channel. These were the English. The British rulers determined to break up this league by detaching the English from it, promising them land and pay for their assistance against the Picts and Scots. Two brothers, Hengest and Horsa, gladly accepted the terms offered, and having raised a band of men in Jutland in 449, landed at Ebbesfleet, on the shores of the Isle of Thanet. Having conquered the Picts in a great battle by the aid of these mercenary troops, the Britons now saw danger coming from the English themselves. Instead of returning to their own country after subduing the Picts and Scots, the numbers of the English were rapidly increased by additions of their own countrymen, and "this increase of their number increased the difficulty of supplying rations and pay." After disputing long over these questions the English at length threatened war. The Britons fought manfully but were forced to yield. It has been said that no land was so stubbornly fought for or so hardly won. "The conquest of Britain by the English was only partly wrought out after two centuries of bitter warfare." Those of the Britons who would not submit to the yoke of the conquerors sought refuge in Wales and Cornwall, in the former of which their descendants yet flourish and their language continues to be spoken. Those who remained became the slaves of the victorious tribes and thus "at the close of the struggle Britain had become English, a land that is not of Britons but Englishmen." It is from the landing of Hengest and Horsa with their band of Jutes at Ebbesfleet on the Isle of Thanet in 449 that English history begins, and with it the English language, which in this, its earliest stage, was formerly known under the name of Anglo Saxon, after the name of the two most powerful of the invading tribes, the Angles and the Saxons.

The Keltic words adopted by the English consisted chiefly of geographical terms such as the names of towns, rivers, islands, and mountains, as Arran, Bute, Clievot, Carlisle, Kent, Glamorgan, Pevrith, Devon, Dorset, &c.

WORDS OF DANISH ORIGIN.

The Danes, who about the year 787, A. D. landed for pillage on the eastern shores of England, continued with the Norwegians to make incursions into the island for about 250 years. We find that in 1013 the Danes had established a dynasty in England and they have left traces of their language.

The changes made in the English language by the occupation of the country by the Danes were, however but scanty when compared with those produced by the Norman Conquest. The following are traces of the Danish element: (1) *By*, as in *Whitby*, *Derby*, *Tenby*. This termination denotes *town*, the *Norwegian form being wick*, as *Berwick*, and this is softened into *wich*, as in *Harwich*. (2) *Scaw*—wood, as *Scawfell*; (3) *Ey*—island, as *Orkney*; (4) *Hain*—island, or flat on the bank of a river or firth, as *Greenholm*, *Lougholm*; (5) *Ness*, *Naze*, *Noss*—headland, as *Caitness*, *Furness*, *Noesshead*; (6) *Fure*—waterfall, as *Wiberforce*. *Fure* is still used in the north of England as a waterfall.

(To be continued.)

FIRST STEPS IN GEOGRAPHY.

Paper prepared and read by Miss Mary Alexander, before the Gloucester County Teachers' Institute, Nov. 3, 1888.

The first principles of geography are those which are relative to position or place, including both the position of places with respect to each other, and also their position as determined by the points of the compass. Under this head the idea of distance may also be arranged as leading to a necessity of a standard of measurement.

The second principle is that of form, which introduces the consideration of the boundaries of countries.

The third principle is that of physical geography, which affords most interesting materials for instruction, for by the help of models and by observation on the physical features of their own neighbourhood, even very young children may be led to develop the idea of other countries, and also carries out the

principle of leading from the known to the unknown.

The pupils should first be led to recognize the directions of streets, lanes, fences, rivers or streams; and questions addressed to them on these matters will lead them to observe these with correctness, and above all their attention will have been gained, because it is directed to matters which they can understand, and which interest them. Their faculty of memory will also have been exercised concerning things rather than words. Then their imagination will have been guided and directed to genuine objects. These common sense principles are very often violated in commencing the study of geography.

The text books generally take the child to things entirely unknown, and end with things familiar.

Geography loses its value as a branch of education when taken without some exercise of the intelligence. It should be from one end to the other a process of induction, every part being linked to another by some reason. Independently of this relation in everything made the subject of observation, there should be some adaptation of that particular thing, whether it be a sensible object or a social or political relation, or a process of art or manufacture, to an end or result.

But when a child's memory is loaded with a number of facts, linked by no association with the world of thought and action which immediately surrounds it, or that which is within it, he is thrown beyond the range of his mental powers. It is this that often makes the study so dull and profitless. Tell the child to observe the lines of the map which hang perpetually before his eyes and talk to him only of the names of the places indicated upon it, and you will soon weary his attention, but speak to him of the people who inhabit it, tell him of their manners, dress and ways of life, their form of worship, speak to him of the climate, of the forms of vegetable and animal life, which he would see if he dwelt there, and you will carry his interest along with you.

To prepare children to enter with intelligence upon the study of geography the first step is to draw their observation to relative position or place, beginning with the situation of things which they see around them, and the distance of these from each other. Place various objects before the children, ask them to notice and describe their relative position, disarrange them, and call upon a pupil to rearrange them from memory—the others criticizing. After going through the exercises before performed in this way, introduce new exercises, increasing the number of objects.

Let the children name the place in which they are sitting. See if they can distinguish by name the parts of the room as floor, ceiling, wall, pointing to each as directed. Exercise them in pointing out the various parts of the room with respect to other parts of the room, or to themselves, or articles of furniture, exercising them in applying the terms learned, as front and behind, above and below. When the children have been accustomed to determine the relative position of objects, they should then be led to consider places in the same point of view, and to this end they should be acquainted with the use of the several points of the compass. Explain these points by referring to the sun, at different times of the day. Tell them the place where the sun rises is called the east, where it sets is called the west, at noon it is in the south, and the point opposite the south is the north. Next take the intermediate points. To introduce these points the teacher should write the four cardinal points on the blackboard. Show them that these points never vary, and that things or places are not exactly at the north, south, east or west; that they may be between any two of these points, and they should know how to describe their position in this case. Tell them that a point half-way between the north and east is said to be north-east. The other semi-points can be taught in a similar manner. The lesson should conclude with a simultaneous repetition of the names of all the cardinal points of the compass.

The second principle should now be introduced.

Let the children repeat the names of those points of the compass which they have learned, and ask them to show where each point would be re-

presented on the blackboard. Now draw on the floor, or blackboard placed on the floor, the shape or plan of the room, ask them how many sides has the room, get them to point to the north side, which they will see is at the top of the board and the side opposite must be the south side. Ask them where must the line be drawn to represent the west side, then ask what side remains to be represented—the east side. They will now see that the lines drawn represent the walls of the room. Tell them that these four walls are its boundaries. Tell them that the boundaries show the shape of the room, then hang the blackboard up, and proceed much in the same way as before. Call their attention now to the boundaries of the playground, this may be done in the same way as those of the school-room. All this teaching is necessary to introduce the map-drawing stage. A plan of the school-room is now presented, and the teacher may tell them that the representation may be called a plan or map.

Now talk to them about the distances things are from each other. In this manner, the teacher should endeavor to make the children determine the relative distance from each other of the several parts of the room and its contents, and also their relative positions. A map of the school-room drawn on a large scale should now be shown to the children, and another considerably smaller. Show that both are correct, that neither is as large as the room, that it would be impossible to make a map upon the board equal to the size of the room. It should be carefully borne in mind that difference in size of the maps does not affect the size of the objects represented. Show them that in making maps it is usual to have some definite short length represent a longer one, and that this is called the scale of the map. They should now make a map on a given scale of the school-room. They should now be taught the length of the map in inches, and how much of the room each inch represents, and reminded that it would be impossible to reckon all distances by inches, so we estimate it by the mile. It is important that they should first form a definite idea of a mile.

When the children have been well exercised in determining the distances of places in their own neighborhood of a mile and its parts, they should learn how an idea of such a distance is given by a scale. They should now draw a map of the playground on a given scale on their slates.

Having determined how many miles to represent by an inch, they should now proceed to draw the map of the district well known to them all.

The teacher draws its outline or boundary on the blackboard, questioning the pupils as she proceeds. The position of any building or natural feature is noted. The map reduced in size is copied by the children. It is clear that children trained in this manner should at a subsequent period depend more upon the map for a knowledge of the great physical features of a country than upon committing to memory the mere statements of a text-book. The boundaries of these with which they are familiar being now represented with lines on the board and slate, will convey to them the first idea of a map and its uses.

The third principle should now be introduced. Question the children as to what they have observed respecting the surface of the neighborhood. Call their attention to the immediate locality of the school-room, playground, street and so forth, gradually extending the sphere of observation by embracing the physical features of adjacent places, noticing each point of variety either in inequality of the surface of the ground or in the form of any natural collection of water. The children should learn to describe the different appearances of land and water and the variety in form and appearance. They should also be made acquainted with the various means of travelling, as on roads, canals, railroads, rivers and seas. The teacher should pay a great deal of attention to the language used in describing the different appearances of land and water. The terms used should be thoroughly explained and repeated till they have become firmly impressed upon the memory. Having now called upon the children to observe carefully the natural features of the locality as the hills, plains,

valleys, brooks and ponds, tell them they are called natural or physical objects. Question them beyond what they have seen in their own locality, get as complete a description as possible from different children, who have been from home. The children may now make an outline map of the country, next put in the rivers and streams, then the town and villages, roads and railroads, then the parish lines.

First see that the map is arranged in accordance with the points of the compass. Second, take care that the map is of sufficient size to insure general accuracy of outline. Third, that the water-courses are fully and correctly filled in. Fourth, be careful that the parishes occupy their proper relative positions.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

By order of the Board of Education, November 2nd, 1886, the provisions of Regs. 30, 1 (8) and 37, 1, 2, 3, 4, were superseded by the following:—

1 Graduates in Arts of a chartered college or university shall, after December, 1886, be required to undergo examination in the syllabus prescribed for the class of license for which they apply, and shall, unless they have received professional classification at the Normal School or produce a certificate from the Inspector that they have taught and conducted a school in an efficient and satisfactory manner for a period of at least two years, be required, in addition to their written examination, to give practical illustrations of their knowledge of method before the Principal of the Normal School and one of the professors of the university, who shall make to the Chief Superintendent a joint or several report of the estimate formed by them of the same.

2 After June, 1887, there shall be an annual session of the Normal School, beginning on the first teaching day in September, and closing on the Friday preceding the second Tuesday in June.

3 Applicants holding a Provincial license of Class II or III, and who may wish to qualify for examination for advance of class, shall be at liberty to enter as student-teachers at the beginning of the session, or on the first teaching day in January. This provision shall also apply to graduates in Arts.

The Board was also pleased to make the following orders:

1 In the French department the session shall consist as heretofore of two terms,—the first beginning on the first teaching day in August, and closing on the Friday preceding the week in which Christmas falls, and the second on the first teaching day in January, and closing on the last Friday of May. Applicants for admission to this department shall be admitted, if qualified, at the beginning of each term.

2 A school district which employs a local licensed teacher shall not receive special aid as a "poor district" after the term ending December, 1886.

W. M. CHUCKER.

Chief Supt. Education.

EDUCATION OFFICE,

FREDERICTON, N. B., November 14, 1886.

PERSONAL.

We are indebted to Ira Cornwall, Esq., New Brunswick Agent in London, for copies of the London Schoolmaster and the Canadian Gazette.

Dr. Harper, formerly of the Quebec High School, has been appointed Inspector of Academies and High Schools in the Province of Quebec, and will during four months of the year make a friendly visit to the different institutions.

WHEN quite young at school, Daniel Webster was guilty of a violation of the rules. He was detected in the act, and called up by the teacher for punishment. This was to be the old-fashioned flogging of the hand. His hand happened to be very dirty. Knowing this, on his way to the teacher's desk, he spat upon the palm of his right hand, and wiping it off on the side of his pantaloons. "Give me your hand, sir," said the teacher, very sternly. Out went the right hand, partly cleaned. The teacher looked at it a moment, and said, "Daniel, if you will find another hand in the schoolroom as filthy as that I will let you off this time!" Instantly from behind his back came the left hand. "Here it is, sir," was the reply. "That will do this time," said the teacher, "you may take your seat, sir."

New Brunswick Journal of Education.

SAINT JOHN, N. B., NOVEMBER 23, 1886.

OUR PROSPECTS.

The present number completes the first half year of the JOURNAL. The warm acknowledgments and words of commendation that have reached us show that it is appreciated. Its aim is to be helpful to teachers, to furnish a medium through which they may be placed in closer communication with each other, and to advance the educational interests of the Province. That it has succeeded to a great extent in promoting these objects is proved by the substantial support that has been already extended to it. But there are teachers in the Province who do not yet receive it regularly, and these are the very ones who need a live educational paper. Will those who are willing to assist us in circulating the JOURNAL kindly furnish us with the names of any who are not now receiving the paper? and we will be glad to send a sample copy. A gentleman to whom a paper was sent writes us as follows: "I have just received a sample copy of the JOURNAL, and am convinced of its practical value, so I feel it a duty to myself as a teacher and to the profession in general, to subscribe immediately."

The subscription price of the JOURNAL was put at a low rate in order to secure, if possible, every live teacher in the Province as a subscriber. Our list amounts to nearly eight hundred paid subscribers. Are there not others from whom we should hear? Write promptly, enclosing the amount, as did the subscriber above referred to.

Further, we would urge those interested in the success and prosperity of the JOURNAL to write for it. Short articles, with hints on teaching, expositions of method, questions, statements of difficulties—in brief, all matters and explanations that will be of assistance in the school-room are desired for its columns.

A lady writes: "I have taken the New England Journal of Education for some years, and think the articles in the New Brunswick JOURNAL are equally as good." This is too great praise. But with the co-operation and assistance of our fellow-teachers, we can see how this paper may be made more helpful to the teachers of New Brunswick than any other educational paper could possibly be.

Mr. Geo. E. Croseup, B. A., who is well-known to many of our readers, and is at present engaged in business at Short Hills, New Jersey, sending a two years' subscription to the JOURNAL, adds: "Although in a measure severed from the profession, and deeply engrossed with other cares, yet I find my interest in its advancement none the less. Permit me to congratulate you on the character of your paper. I find it of great interest and am sure of its success, as I cannot conceive of any other condition than that on your list will be found the name of every teacher and friend of education in the Province. May you be the means of great good to the noble army of workers in the schools of dear old New Brunswick!"

We have great faith that the New Brunswick JOURNAL OF EDUCATION will exert an influence increasing with each successive issue.

RECENT CHANGES.

The order recently passed by the Board of Education, providing that there shall, after June, 1887, be an annual session of the Normal School, will be hailed with general satisfaction. The time is ripe for such a change, not only from an educational standpoint, but from the fact that the teaching profession is overcrowded. The friends of education in this Province have always deplored the necessity for the change from the annual term

to the semi-annual, made some time ago. It has had the effect expected, that is, of thrusting upon the country a number of inefficiently trained teachers to gild "wisdom by experience." But the ratepayers have also learned wisdom strongly tempered by economy, and the result has been that the salaries have been lowered. The short term system has caused distrust and lowered the status of the profession. None will be more pleased, because none have been more embarrassed by the old system, than the teachers at the Normal School.

This provision that teachers holding licenses of Class II. or III shall not be required to attend the Normal School for the full term, but may enter at the beginning of the session or on the first teaching day in January, is, we think, a wise one.

There will be as heretofore two terms in the French department. This, no doubt, has been deemed necessary owing to the scarcity of trained teachers for the French districts, where many local licenses have yet to be granted. It is to be hoped that this provision will have the effect of entirely doing away with the necessity of local licenses altogether. They are not now granted outside of the French Districts, which is a matter of congratulation. The order depriving a district employing a local licensed teacher of special aid as a "poor district" will have a wholesome effect in assisting toward the entire abolition of these licenses.

The provision requiring graduates in Arts to undergo examination in the syllabus prescribed for the class of license for which they apply, will not be considered a hardship by holders of *bona fide* degrees. A certain percentage of marks is required for Grammar School class, to which all graduates aspire. This percentage is very high. The most difficult portion of the examination has always been considered by graduates to be the professional subjects, especially if they have not had previous experience in teaching. No graduate of any of our colleges or universities will have the least difficulty in making the required marks in those subjects which may have formed a part of a college course, and the excess of marks made on these subjects over the required average will largely counterbalance the deficiencies on professional subjects where so many had formerly failed.

DEATH OF DR. JACK.

We announce with deep regret, which will be shared by many, the death of W. Brydono Jack, A. M., D. C. L., formerly president of the University of New Brunswick, which took place at his home in Fredericton on the 23rd inst. After his retirement from active duties his health had been poor, and a trip to his native land, Scotland, was undertaken in the hope that a change of air and scene would be beneficial. This was partially the case, but an unfortunate accident on the passage back to the country of his adoption greatly enfeebled him and rendered him an easy victim to an attack of pneumonia of which he died.

Dr. Jack was born at Turwald, Dumfriesshire, Scotland, Nov. 23, 1819. He took an M. A. degree from St. Andrews University in 1840. In this year he was offered the professorship of physics in Manchester, in connection with the London University, and about the same time the professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy in the university of New Brunswick, then King's College.

He accepted the latter position, being at the time but twenty-one years of age. In 1861 he became president of the institution, which position he held until 1885, when he retired on a well deserved pension.

During his time the university passed through many vicissitudes, but steadily progressed from twenty-one students in 1840 to sixty-seven in the

last year of his presidency. In addition to his labors in the college he was for a long time a member of the Board of Education of this Province, where his ripe experience, scholarly attainments, and sound judgment gave his counsels great weight. Many know him as an examiner for licenses of the Normal School, and in the different grammar schools of the Province his face was familiar. While he never sought public favor, he ever took a deep interest in all educational matters, and our Free School system had no warmer advocate, and bears in no slight degree the impress of his judgment. As a mathematician he was without a peer, and had almost a world-wide reputation.

While he unostentatiously performed his duties as president of the university, the graduates had no warmer friend or more esteemed counsellor. Mingled with the feeling of deepest regret at his sudden death, is one of gratitude for his unvaried interest and kindly advice, and the many old men and young throughout the Province who have come under his care will hold him in memory ever green.

LECTURES ON NATURAL HISTORY.

Mr. G. F. Matthew, M. A., has consented to deliver a course of lectures on mineralogy and geology, for teachers and students during the coming winter, commencing on the 4th of January next. This will be an excellent opportunity for those who wish to acquire a fuller knowledge of the elements of geology. The teachers of St. John and vicinity will, without doubt, be glad to avail themselves of Mr. Matthew's instruction on a subject in which he is so thoroughly conversant. Further, Mr. Matthew's intimate knowledge of our local geology, on which he is a high authority, will make his lectures of the greatest value and interest to students of natural history and to teachers who have to impart instruction on this subject. We hope that a large class will be formed. The fee for the course of twenty lectures will be five dollars. Persons desirous of joining the class will give their names to Mrs. Carr, of the Victoria School, or to Mr. Hay, of the Grammar School, from whom further particulars may be obtained.

The following outline will show the intended scope of the lectures:

MINERALOGY.

Physical properties of Minerals.

1. Crystalline form.
2. Hardness and Specific Gravity.
3. Other specific properties.

Chemical properties of Minerals:

4. Behaviour before the Blowpipe.
5. Action of Acids, &c.

Determination of Minerals:

6. Native Elements, Sulphurets and Arseniurets.
7. Fluorides, Chlorides and Oxides.
8. Quartz and its varieties.
9. Silicates.
10. Sulphates, Phosphates and Carbonates.

GEOLOGY.

1. Features of the earth in relation to Geology.

Lithological Geology:

2. Mineral constituents of rocks.
3. Kinds of rocks.
4. Structure of rocks.

Historical Geology:

5. Cambrian and Earlier Ages. (Reign of Trilobites.)
6. Silurian Age. (Reign of Cuttle.) Devonian Age. (Reign of Fishes.)
7. Carboniferous. (Reign of Amphibians).
8. Mesozoic. (Reign of Reptiles.) Cenozoic. (Reign of Mammals.)

Dynamical Geology:

9. Water in motion. Glaciers.
10. Heat, viz.: igneous action; alteration of rocks by heat; formation of Mineral veins.

SEVERAL articles for publication have been received but are crowded out of this number.

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CULTURE.

We hear a great deal now a days about culture and the cultivated classes, and we are led to enquire what the terms in their true significance can really mean.

America has made some claim of late to possessing communities that have arrived at that stage of development which is expressed by the word culture.

But if we may accept the opinion of three at least of its scholars and thinkers, we will find it very doubtful if such be the case. Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr. in his address before the Harvard Law School Association at the late anniversary services, deprecates the lack of real culture in America. "Culture," he says, "in the sense of fruitless knowledge, I, for one, abhor. The main part of intellectual education is not the acquisition of facts, but learning how to make facts live. The mark of a master is that facts which before being scattered in an inorganic mass, when he shoots through them the magnetic current of his thoughts, leap into an organic order and live and bear fruit. I fear that the bar," he continued, "has done its full share to exalt that most hateful of American words and ideas—smartness—as against dignity of moral feeling and profundity of knowledge."

In this statement we perceive a consciousness that the hurry, the incompleteness, the display of American life generally and, consequently, of her educational methods, are not conducive in any true sense to a culture of the whole man intellectually and morally.

There can be no such thing as cultivation where mere "smartness" is elevated as a point of intellectual attainment. Culture implies in the very nature of things a quiet, steady growth under the conditions that tend to promote the development of the mind and character. No forcing process is admissible but only such cultivating as will ensure the best unfolding of the faculties in accordance with nature.

James Russell Lowell, also, in his Harvard oration, recognizes, by implication, the lack of anything like a general culture in America. "It is a far cry," he says, "from the dwellers in caves to even such civilization as we have achieved. And what we need more than anything else is to increase the number of our cultivated men and thoroughly trained minds, for these, wherever they go, are sure to carry with them, consciously or not, the seeds of sounder thinking and higher ideas."

"The only way in which our civilization can be maintained even at the level it has reached, the only way in which that level can be made more general and raised higher, is by bringing the influence of the more cultivated to bear with more energy and directness on the less cultivated and by opening more inlets to those indirect influences which make for refinement of mind and body."

"I am saddened," continues Mr. Lowell, "when I see our success as a nation measured by the number of acres under cultivation, or of bushels of wheat exported, for the real value of a country must be weighed in scales more delicate than the balance of trade. The gardens of Sicily are empty now, but the bees from all climes still fetch honey from the tiny garden-plot of Theocritus. On a map of the world you may cover Judea with your thumb, Athens with a finger tip, and neither of them figures in the Prices Current, but they still lord it in the thought and action of every civilized man. The measure of a nation's true success is in the amount it has contributed to the thought, the moral energy, the intellectual happiness, the spiritual hope and consolation of mankind."

And Professor Fiske, contrasting American and Athenian life, which latter, he says, exemplified as never before or since that true condition of culture that as yet is the despair of modern society, considers that the very conditions of American life are essentially antagonistic to true culture. We are now "passing tollfully through an era of exorbitant industrialism," he tells us, we live in "a state of

chronic hurry which directly hinders the performance of thorough work."

"We lack culture because we live in a hurry, and because our attention is given up to pursuits which call into activity but one side of us."

We are bent mainly upon securing material benefits. "Our time and energies, our spirit and buoyancy are quite used up in what is called 'getting on.' It is thus that we are traversing what may properly be called the *barbarous* epoch of our history,—the epoch at which the predominant intellectual activity is employed in achievements which are mainly of a material character.

(To be continued).

QUESTION DEPARTMENT.

Is there a course of study a young man might take up and still remain at his usual business? If so please answer, giving full particulars of said course.

The Correspondence University of Chicago and the Illinois Wesleyan University of Bloomington, Ill., offer complete courses of study which may be pursued without actual attendance at these institutions, and on passing satisfactory examinations degrees are conferred. Both of these institutions have regularly appointed examiners in this Province. See the advertisement of the Illinois University in another column. Calendars may be obtained on application to either University.

1. In what state is sulphur, chalk, borax, and alum found? How manufactured?
2. Can the sulphur of Italy be due to the volcanoes there? Is it found anywhere else?

SULPHUR is found in gypsum, coal, in the waters of certain mineral springs, in granite and other primitive rocks, it is also a constituent of many minerals, such as iron, copper, lead, &c. The sulphur of commerce is obtained from the natural deposits of free sulphur found in the earth in the neighborhood of volcanoes, by melting and by distillation. The sulphur of Italy and Sicily is due to the volcanoes there, being found in the fissures or cracks of Atna and Vesuvius and other districts of Southern Italy. It is found also in the fissures of Popocatepetl in Mexico, and in other volcanic neighbourhoods. It is very widely distributed, but the greater portion of the world's supply is derived from Southern Italy.

CHALK is in great part composed of finely comminuted shells and corals, and constitutes rock formations of vast extent, especially in England and France.

BORAX is found as a salt, chiefly in connection with sodium, in mountain lakes of Europe, Asia and Western America. It is obtained naturally in small quantities, by evaporation of the waters of certain lakes in Thibet, but usually formed by adding carbonate of soda to a solution of boracic acid.

ALUM.—Potash alum occurs ready formed in nature, especially among volcanic rocks, but the alum of commerce is chiefly manufactured by burning aluminous and argillaceous rocks.

3. What is the cryolite of Greenland? The cryolite of Greenland is a compound of sodium, fluorine and aluminium, used largely in the preparation of a white porcelain glass, and in the preparation of caustic soda.

4. What kind of mineral is cobalt? asbestos? Where are they found? What used for?

COBALT is a metal resembling steel, but with a slightly reddish tinge; is very hard, and said to be more tenacious than iron. It is found in combination with oxygen, as the oxide of cobalt. The oxides and salts of cobalt are distinguished for their beautiful colors, and hence are used as pigments. Wire of great strength is manufactured from cobalt.

ASBESTOS is a peculiar fibrous form of several minerals. It is capable of resisting ordinary flame and hence is used for fire-proof clothing, roofing steam-packing, &c. The Greeks used it for clothing for wrapping the bodies of the dead when laid on the

funeral pyres, and also for making napkins, which they cleaned by throwing in the fire.

5. He is a friend of my brother or brother's. Which is correct? How should the underlined words be parsed? J. M. E.

The first is right. That is, it means he is my brother's friend, which is the sense in which it would be undoubtedly used. "He is a friend of my brother's" is elliptical, and if occasion required the use of such an expression, the ellipsis would have to be supplied, thus—He is a friend of my brother's friend (or friends). This explanation makes the parsing sufficiently clear.

6. Please give the composition of dynamite in your JOURNAL. T. E. C.

Dynamite is finely pulverized silver or silicious ashes or infusorial earth, saturated with about three times its weight of nitro-glycerine.

LITERARY NOTICES.

THE MASQUE OF THE YEAR is a literary and musical melody originally prepared for an evening of the Unity Club, St. Paul, Minn. It is admirably adapted for public or private entertainments, incident to the close of the year. Price 10 cents. Published by Chas. H. Kerr & Co., 175 Dearborn St., Chicago.

The catalogue of the Anglo Canadian Music Publishers' Association, Toronto, has been received. Its table of contents embraces a varied and complete collection of instrumental and vocal pieces.

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WANTED—For Intermediate Department Graded Schools, Dalhousie, N. B., a second-class male teacher. Only one of undoubted teaching capacity will be employed. Reply, giving best references obtainable, and lowest salary from District, to Trustees School District No. 1, Dalhousie, N. B.

EVERY one knows how to become a lawyer, a doctor, or a clergyman. There are settled courses of instruction to be followed, fixed examinations to be passed, and certain ceremonial acknowledgments of fitness to be awarded, but it would puzzle most men to know how to become a journalist. Some of the progressive universities and colleges in Great Britain have realized this want in their scholastic training, and chairs of journalism are now to be found in all the great centres. If newspaper men in this country received a thorough training for their calling, our press would be free from those personalities which now disgrace it, and high coloring would soon become a lost art—*Halifax Critic*.

A CAT'S TOES.—"How many toes has a cat?" This was one of the questions asked of a certain class during examining week, and simple as the question appears to be, none could answer it. In the emergency the principal was applied to, and he also with a good humored smile gave it up, when one of the teachers determined not to be beaten by a simple question, hit on the idea of sending out a delegation of boys to scour the neighborhood for a cat. When the idea was announced the whole class wanted to join the hunt. Several boys went out and soon returned successful. A returning board was at once appointed and the toes counted, when to the relief of all, it was learned that a cat possessed eighteen toes, ten on the front and eight on the hind feet.

WE are informed that Inspector Oakes, per order of Chief Superintendent of Schools, has called a general meeting of the ratepayers of Centreville School District, on Saturday, November 27th, at 10 a. m., for the purpose of taking a vote for the erection of a new school-house, and for the transaction of other important business. Centreville is a thriving village with some well-to-do men therein, and it should have one of the best school houses and one of the best schools in the county. The present teachers, Mr. F. B. Carvell and Miss M. M. Harold, so report says, are capable teachers and should be well supported by the ratepayers. It will give us pleasure to record that a large majority voted in favor of the new building.—*Carlton Sentinel*.

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THE CENTURY is an illustrated monthly magazine, having a regular circulation of about two hundred thousand copies, often reaching and sometimes exceeding two hundred and twenty-five thousand. Chief among its many attractions for the coming year is a serial which has been in active preparation for sixteen years. It is a history of our own country in its most critical time, as set forth in

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THE WAR SERIES,

which has been followed with unflagging interest by a great audience, will occupy less space during the coming year. *Gettysburg* will be described by Gen. Hunt (Chief of the Union Artillery), Gen. Longstreet, Gen. E. M. Law, and others; *Chickamauga*, by Gen. D. H. Hill; *Sherman's March to the Sea*, by Generals Howard and Slocum; *Generals Q. A. Gillmore, Wm. F. Smith, John Gibbon, Horace Porter and John N. Morby*, will describe special battles and incidents. *Stories of naval engagements, prison life, etc., etc.*, will appear.

NOVELS AND STORIES.

"The Hundredth Man," a novel by Frank R. Stockton, author of "The Lady, or the Tiger" etc., begins in November. Two novelettes by George W. Cable, stories by Mary Halleck Fouts, "Uncle Remus," Julian Hawthorne, Edward Eggleston, and other prominent American authors will be printed during the year.

SPECIAL FEATURES

(with illustrations) include a series of articles on affairs in Russia and Siberia, by George Kennan, author of "Tent Life in Siberia," who has just returned from a most interesting visit to Siberian prisons; Papers on the Food Question, with reference to its bearing on the Labor Problem; English Cathedrals; Dr. Keggleson's Religious Life in the American Colonies; Men and Women of Queen Anne's Reign, by Mrs. Oliphant; Clairvoyance, Spiritualism, Astrology, etc., by the Rev. J. M. Buckley, D. D., editor of the *Christian Advocate*; astronomical papers; articles throwing light on Bible history, etc.

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Special facilities will be afforded to ladies wishing to pursue the full undergraduate course, and to teachers who may need to teach during the Summer Term. One or more cash prizes will be offered for competition at the Matriculation examinations, to commence on the 3rd day of September next. Intending students are invited to correspond with the President.

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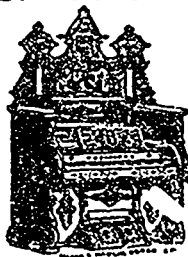
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