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THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

FEBRUARY, 1898.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN CANADA.

THERE was a time, shortly after the discovery of printing, when it was possible for a man like Casaubon to say that he knew the contents, more or less thoroughly, of every printed book. But the limits of human endurance were speedily passed, and to-day the enormous mass of literature taxes the ingenuity of the librarians to mould it into organized form. Each successive generation adds its own stratum, and the whole forms the storehouse from which the new generation draws its inspiration and facts. This is especially true of the scientific worker, dependent on the accumulation of minute facts, recorded by long series of patient observers. It is for this reason, therefore, that I bring before you, an institution devoted to science, a paper on the libraries of the Dominion.

The art of printing was introduced into the infant colonies at a very early period. In Halifax the *Gazette* was published in 1756, the first born of a numerous progeny, and was followed by the *Quebec Gazette* in 1764. In 1779 a number of the officers stationed at Quebec, and of the leading merchants, undertook the formation of a subscription library. The Governor, General Haldimand, took an active part in the work, and ordered on behalf of the subscribers £500 worth of books from London. The selection was entrusted to Richard

Cumberland, dramatist, and an interesting letter from the Governor, addressed to him, describing the literary wants of the town and the class of books to be sent, is now in the Public Archives, Ottawa. The books arrived in due course, and while no catalogue has survived, I think it would not be difficult to name a large proportion of them. The book world in which Dr. Johnson moved was yet a small one. A room for their reception was granted in the Bishop's Palace, and as late as 1806 we learn from Lambert's Travels that it was the only library in Canada. Removed several times, it slowly increased, until in 1822 it numbered 4,000 volumes. The list of subscribers having become very much reduced, it was leased to the Quebec Literary Association in 1843. In 1854 a portion of it was burnt with the Parliament Building, where it was then quartered, and, finally, in 1866, the entire library, consisting of 6,999 volumes, were sold, subject to conditions, to the Literary and Historical Society for a nominal sum of \$500.

PROVINCIAL LIBRARIES.

Naturally, on the organization of each of the Provinces, libraries were established in connection with the Legislature. In Upper Canada the small library in the Parliament Building was destroyed by the Americans,

and the one by which it was replaced by the fire of 1824, so that when the two libraries of Upper and Lower Canada were united in 1841 there appears to have been little left of the early fugitive literature of the Province. At the end of the past year the legislative libraries of the Dominion numbered nine, and contained 48,834 pamphlets and 309,395 volumes. By far the most important of these is the Library of the House at Ottawa. Originally established on the union of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841, it was successively removed with the seat of Government from Kingston to Montreal, to Quebec, to Toronto, again to Quebec, and finally to Ottawa, a wandering life, which effectually prevented its attaining large proportions.

The unfortunate fires in Montreal and Quebec still further injured it, robbing it of much that was very valuable, and which could not be replaced. On the federation of the different Provinces in 1865, the library of the two Provinces only passed into the hands of the Federal Government. The beautiful building in which it is placed, behind the House of Parliament, presents a prominent feature in the magnificent pile of buildings which crown the heights overlooking the Ottawa River, and from the windows the spectator gazes across the rocky gorge and the Chaudiere Falls, towards the Laurentide Hills, forming one of the most picturesque scenes on the continent. In the eyes of the librarian, the library has only one serious defect, it is complete; no arrangement has been made for extension.

On the confederation in 1867 of the Provinces which now form the Dominion, the union which existed between the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada was dissolved and, as we have seen, the library passed into the hands of the Federal Government.

Each of these Provinces, now known as Ontario and Quebec, established new libraries in Toronto and Quebec City.

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES.

The 62 colleges and universities of the Dominion are provided with libraries containing 627,626 volumes and 24,894 pamphlets, an average of 10,123 volumes and 402 pamphlets. It is scarcely fair, however, to depend on an average of the whole number, as some half dozen universities possess, at least, half of the whole number.

The senior of these, Laval University, Quebec, is famous as being, after Harvard, the oldest on the continent, being founded by Bishop Laval in 1663. During the dark days which witnessed the long struggle, first with the Iroquois and afterwards with the English and Americans, little progress was made in the collection of books, and it was not until it was converted into a university in 1852 that it commenced to increase rapidly. On the suppression of the Jesuit order and seminary these books were transferred to it. Its numbers considerably over 100,000 volumes, and is unrivalled for the extent and character of its French collection and its many scarce books in early French-Canadian literature and history. Their collection of the relations of the early Jesuit missionaries is only surpassed by the Lenox Library, New York. Our own Province of Ontario was for long the only one which attempted to grapple with the question of public libraries. Miss Carnochan, of Niagara, has given an interesting account in the Transactions of this Institute for 1895 of the formation and history of the first circulating library in Upper Canada, 1800-1820. Established by some enterprising citizens of the town of Niagara, for the supply of their own immediate wants and of those who could pay the small annual fee, it was

successful until the destruction of the town by the American troops in 1813 wasted its volumes and impoverished its subscribers, so that it shortly after quietly passed out of existence.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

In 1848 the late Dr. Ryerson drafted a school bill which contained provisions for school and township libraries, and succeeded in awakening a deep interest in the subject. Ever anxious to impress on his hearers the importance of libraries as the keystone to a free educational system, he urged it on every opportunity. Lord Elgin, at that time Governor-General, was so strongly impressed with the importance of the movement that he styled it the "crown and glory of the institutions of this Province." In 1854 Parliament passed the requisite act and granted him the necessary funds to carry out his views in the matter. The regulations of the department authorized each County Council to establish four classes of libraries:—

An ordinary Common School library in each schoolhouse for the use of the children and ratepayers.

A general public lending library available to all the ratepayers in the municipality.

A professional library of books on teaching, school organization, language, and kindred subjects, available for teachers only.

A library in any public institution under the control of the municipality, for the use of the inmates, or in any county jail, for the use of the prisoners.

To aid this work, a book depository was established in the education office to enable the smaller libraries to obtain readily good literature. The books were supplied at cost, and a grant of 100 per cent. on the amount remitted was added in books by the

department. During the 36 years of its existence 1,407,140 volumes were so supplied.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTES.

The proposal to establish the second class was, however, premature, and accordingly, finding that Mechanics' Institutes, supported by members' fees, were being developed throughout the towns and villages, the Education Department wisely aided the movement by giving a small grant proportionate to the amount contributed by the members for the purchase of books and reaching a maximum of \$200, afterwards increased, under altered conditions, to \$400 annually. In 1856 these had grown to number 26, in 1880, 74, and in 1896 to 292. The number of books possessed by these 292 libraries is 404,605, or an average of 1,385 each. With a total membership of 32,603, the issue of books for home reading was 700,958, or an average of 24.6 for each member, which is a very creditable return, considering that only 30 per cent. of the books are fiction.

In 1895 the Minister of Education brought in a bill, which came into force in May, changing the name "Mechanics' Institute" into "Public Library." By this act the directors of any Mechanics' Institute were empowered to transfer the property of the institute to the municipal corporation on condition that the library be free. This can be done without passing a by-law or requiring a vote from the people—a large number have already availed themselves of it.

In the cities and larger towns, however, the Mechanics' Institute, with its limited number of subscribers, was found unequal to the task assigned it, and accordingly in 1882 the free libraries' act was passed, based upon similar enactments in Britain and the United States.

FREE LIBRARIES.

The first free library established under the act was in 1883, and in the period between that date and 1896 54 have successfully come into operation. They contain 254,091 volumes, and circulated during 1895 1,216,407. Two of them, Toronto and Hamilton, take rank, both in number and character of their books, among the best libraries of the Dominion.

Unitedly the 346 public and free libraries of the Province of Ontario have on their shelves 658,696 volumes, and supplied in 1895 1,917,365 to their readers. Their revenue was \$183,688, of which \$42,741 was contributed by the Province, and they spent of this in books \$49,417.

The Province of Quebec has not yet introduced a free libraries' act, but the generosity of the late Mr. Fraser and of a number of gentlemen in Montreal has provided a fund for the establishment of a free library in that city, which was opened in October, 1885, under the title of the Fraser Institute. The Mercantile Library Association transferred to it 5,500 English books, and l'Institut Canadien 7,000 French.

In St. John, N.B., a free library was founded in June, 1883, to commemorate the landing of the Loyalists a century previous, and in Halifax a free library owes its origin to the generosity of the late Chief Justice Young, both of which have been very successful. A sister society, the Library and Historical Society of Manitoba, has been the means of introducing a public library, and with the assistance of the municipal authorities of Winnipeg have laid the foundation of an extensive and valuable library.

TABULATED STATISTICS.

In the lack of trustworthy information I have not attempted to give any particulars of the Law, Medical, Scientific, Collegiate Institute and

Young Men's Christian Association Libraries, further than they are summed up in the following condensed tables, showing the character and the Province in which they are placed, of the 480 libraries of a more or less public character in Canada.

Kind.	No.	Pamphlets.	Books.
Law	21	1,929	105,788
Legislative.....	9	48,834	309,395
Public.....	325	17,535	663,125
Collegiate, etc....	62	24,894	627,246
Others.....	29	15,224	96,918
Special.....	2	14,330	18,500
Y. M. C. A.....	32	23,660
Total	480	122,746	1,874,632

By Provinces the 480 libraries are distributed:—

Ontario.....	374	32,922	942,187
Quebec	39	31,841	531,356
Nova Scotia.....	26	17,756	97,521
New Brunswick..	15	2,689	54,787
P. E. Island.....	3	500	8,528
Manitoba.....	8	5,014	34,730
Brit. Columbia..	10	1,554	11,303
N.W. Territories	1	140	2,150
.....	476	93,416	1,682,572
Dominion.....	4	29,330	192,060
Total.....	480	122,746	1,874,632

LIBRARIES IN ONTARIO.

We may conclude, therefore, from these figures that so far as the ordinary reader and University student is concerned Ontario, at least in the cities and towns, is not badly served. The percentage of books per head is not unworthy of a Province which has only been redeemed from the wilderness during the past 50 years. In two directions, however, do we find shortcomings, if not actual want. Outside of the larger cities, towns and villages lies a large proportion of the population of this Province, as well as in the others, which are entirely without access to books. There are whole townships and numbers of villages where the weekly newspaper is the only connecting link with modern science and literature.

If we wish to create an attachment by the farmer for his farm, to give an interest in life to his children in their surroundings instead of in the city, and, in other words, to lay the basis for a successful and pleasant country life, we must try to make his intellectual surroundings more attractive and profitable.

And this is not a new problem. Men who have had their country's good at heart have tried for years to meet the difficulty. The late Dr. Ryerson, as we have seen, attempted to make every schoolhouse in the country a centre of "light and sweetness" by the school library, but failed because the effort was premature, and because no effort was made to add to or exchange the books.

WORK IN NEW YORK STATE.

Since 1892 an effort has been made in New York State to meet it in a different manner. The State law of that year authorized the Regents of the State Library to lend for a limited time selections of books from the duplicate department of the State Library or from books specially given or bought for this purpose to public libraries under State supervision, or to communities meeting required conditions. Out of \$25,000 appropriated for free libraries, a portion was at once set apart to buy and prepare books to be loaned under these rules.

The rules then adopted provide that a selection of ten books may be lent for six months to the trustees of any Public Library in the State on payment of a fee of \$5 to cover the expense of cases, catalogues, stationery and transportation both ways. Where no such library exists the books will be lent on petition of any 25 resident taxpayers. Special collections of books may also be lent to the officers of a University extension centre, reading course or study club if properly registered. A later rule offers selec-

tions of 50 volumes for a fee of \$3. In 1893 the librarian at Albany began to send out a number of small libraries, of 100 volumes each, to such of the small towns and villages as were not provided with free libraries. One of these small libraries remained in the community but six months, and was then exchanged for another. Hence the name "travelling libraries," which has been applied to them.

TRAVELLING LIBRARIES.

The leading purpose seems to have been to incite communities to found permanent local libraries, but the scope of the work has been widened, and the system now provides smaller collections of books for rural communities. So successful has it proved that in 1895 the State of Michigan appropriated \$2,500 to buy books for a similar system, and in 1896 the State of Iowa set aside \$5,000 for a like purpose.

In the same year Mr. Hutchins reports to the State Library Commission that in two counties of Wisconsin similar work had been commenced by private individuals. He says that each small library was put up in a substantial case with double doors, a lock and key, and so carefully packed that it could be safely shipped by freight. It was provided with a complete but simple system of blank records, so that it could be placed upon a table or counter, unlocked and be ready for as effective and methodical work as any larger circulating library. In order to insure good care for the volumes, and a continuous local interest, the libraries were only sent to communities which organized a local library association of twenty members, who agreed to care for the books and to place them where they would circulate freely under the simple library rules prescribed. Each local association elected a Secretary, who acted as its executive officer, and each paid a

fee of \$1 for each library as a partial payment of the transportation charges.

Twenty-six libraries in one county were sent out in this way. They were visited about two months after by Mr. Hutchins, and he found them even more popular than he had expected. The most interesting accounts are given of the avidity with which the young especially seized the books. The movement is yet too young to allow of accurate statistics, yet they have proved that in Wisconsin, as in New York and Michigan, they supply an urgent need that has not been supplied by any other agency.

THEIR GOOD RESULTS.

They have carried into hundreds of homes new thoughts and information, higher aspirations and ideals, new forces that are making for a better individual, family and social life. Their books are warmly welcomed by families whose doors are closed to the reformer or missionary. Hundreds of small communities in Wisconsin have attempted to do such work for themselves, but have nearly always failed. They have raised money by entertainments or private subscriptions and have started libraries with high hopes. In most cases their selection of books has been unfortunate, and when the few entertaining books have been read by most of the patrons and no new volumes are added the popular interest dies, and the library is put in either an obscure place or its volumes are scattered.

By the new system only wholesome and entertaining books are bought, and they are constantly appealing to new readers until worn out by use and not merely shelf-worn. Every six months a library is new to some public, and its arrival is a matter of comment and draws new interest to the library station. The books are bought at the lowest prices and substantial

editions are selected. They can be occasionally examined and repaired, an important economy, for with books, as with clothing, a stitch in time saves nine. In the making of rules and regulations a wide body of experience can be drawn upon, and in the printing much economy exercised.

Finally, it practically takes the selection of the reading of great numbers of untrained readers, from the hands of blind chance, and puts it in the custody of trained experts who can draw for assistance upon the library experience of the world. Our great and costly system of public schools works unceasingly to teach children how to read and then leaves too many of them to go through their adult lives without using that power to the best advantage, because of lack of opportunity.

The travelling libraries offer an unexpectedly cheap, efficient and practical method of broadening our educational system, to include in its beneficent purposes everyone who goes out from the brief course of our Common Schools, and to enable them to pursue a life-long system of education.

APPLICABLE TO ONTARIO.

Such a system as has been described seems feasible in Ontario. No part of the Province is beyond reach by rail or steamer, and in no part need there be lack of readers. Our school-system, by providing school sections of moderate area, each with its school-house and teacher, seems to have placed the machinery ready to hand. In Wisconsin about one-third of the libraries are kept in the postoffice, one-half in farm houses and the remainder in small stores. But with the schoolmaster as librarian and the school-house as the distributing point, the most widely scattered farm population could be easily reached, while the results of the daily tasks

would be more satisfactory. By supplying also in this way the smaller existing public libraries who are barely able to add to their collections, boxes of 100 new books every six months, fresh life would be thrown into them and their readers brought into contact with the literature of the day.

The Minister of Education might justly consider the proposal to curtail the grants for libraries amounting to over \$42,700 and devote the saving to the establishment of travelling libraries.

NATIONAL NEEDS.

The second want is found at the other end of the scale. Our best libraries have not reached the stage of meeting the wants of our best scholars, and with the limited means at their disposal the time seems far distant when they will be able to do so. Rivalry is out of the question with such great libraries as those of Harvard, the Astor, Lenox, Smithsonian and others in the United States, not to speak of Great Britain, France, and Germany, or even Russia, but if our students are to remain at home some provision must be made to meet their wants. As a nation we cannot afford to be entirely dependent upon others for our highest culture, so that it is incumbent on us to consider carefully our position, and if possible, by combination and economy of energy, endeavor to supply our want.

TORONTO LIBRARIES.

We have in the City of Toronto some 15, more or less, public libraries, all of which, except four, are devoted to special subjects. These four are the Legislative Library, the University of Toronto, the Public Reference Library, and the Canadian Institute's. The first three mentioned are somewhat on the same lines, special departments being added to each to meet special requirements. In the past efforts have been made by

the librarians to prevent the duplication of expensive books and sets, but, necessarily, a large proportion of the books are alike, and much waste of money, time and energy, has ensued. The Legislative library, established to supply the demands of our legislators, has been forced to add to its shelves quantities of general literature. It has now outgrown the chamber provided for it, and it will be necessary for the Government at an early date to provide further accommodation. The City Public Reference Library has in like manner grown to about 45,000 volumes, which are housed in a building unsuitable for the purpose, exposed to danger from fire, and in need of additional space for expansion. The Canadian Institute, with its valuable collection of transactions, is in much the same condition, with the additional disadvantage that the student finds here only a portion of his work, though an important one, and a lack of proper catalogues and literary assistance.

We have here three libraries which partially overlap, and which fail to make full use of their opportunities by reason of special circumstances, and yet, which, if worked in harmony, would do much to remove the present reproach.

SUGGESTED REFORMS.

It has seemed to me, after careful consideration, that the best interests of the Province and city would be served by adopting a proposal such as the following:—

The Province of Ontario and the City of Toronto to unite in the maintenance of a common Provincial Reference Library, the books in which would be free to every person in the Province.

The Province, in consideration of the value of the books in the Public Library, to erect suitable buildings in a suitable locality.

The Legislative library to be

confined to such books as are actually required for legislative purposes, and the balance of the books transferred to the joint library.

The Canadian Institute to hand over their collection to the joint library, receiving in consideration a suitable meeting room.

Regulations made by which students in all parts of the Province could share in the use of the books, due regard being had for their safety.

In this way a library could be in-

stituted, free to the citizens of Toronto, as their own is to-day, furnishing the highest literature to every student in the Province, properly housed, with little more expense than the three libraries are at present costing; in which would be found room for extensive geological, mineralogical, botanical, and other departments, which are so much wanted, forming a national library worthy of the Province and of the city in which it is placed.

—*James Bain, Toronto.*

CHARACTER AND SCHOOL EDUCATION.

BY SUPT. C. B. GILBERT.

THE necessity of training youth to virtue is everywhere recognized. The importance of giving such training in the common schools is generally conceded. Most now admit tacitly, if not avowedly, that no other agency can be relied upon for the proper training of all citizens.

The church and the family, at their best man's two most sacred institutions, no longer sufficiently meet the needs of the youth. Comparatively few people come under the direct influence of the church. Some regard it with hostility, many with indifference. Whatever be the cause, it cannot be denied that there are large classes of people who receive no direct benefit from the labors of religious organizations.

The family, too, fails as the universal means for training the youth to virtue. How can it be otherwise? How can it be expected that families whose heads are not virtuous should train their children wisely? In too many instances home is the worst place in which children can be. More and more the public school is recognized as the only institution which can be utilized for the proper training of all children. Yet we must admit that

her too partial failure has thus far attended all efforts. But the public school is a institution under control, and one that reaches practically all citizens; hence it may be made the desired agency, and will be, so soon as its office is universally recognized.

We are still bound by precedent; the public school, as an institution for universal training of the youth, is still young. At first, and largely even at the present, it has been regarded as an institution for giving intelligence. The church and the home have been relied upon to supply the moral training; but intelligence is no longer regarded as a guarantee of integrity. The intelligent man, unless his character is sound, is simply more able to work evil than the unintelligent man. To give the child knowledge without giving him character is enlarging his possibilities for evil, as well as for good.

In general, there are three classes of opinion regarding the means by which virtue is to be inculcated through public schools. One class claim that the ordinary school discipline and the ordinary school instruction necessarily inculcate virtue. It is pointed out that through school ex-

perience the children are made accustomed to law, to order, and are taught what are called the virtues of punctuality, and silence, and obedience. This may be readily admitted; but punctuality, silence, and obedience are not, necessarily, virtues at all. At best they are expedients whose use may spring from evil motives, as well as from good. They do not indicate character, nor does their possession assure good conduct in other directions. I do not think it can be denied that the ordinary school discipline, even if it is of a poor sort, is of great value; but, nevertheless, it is inadequate for the cultivation of character.

Another class go to the other extreme, and claim that definite moral instruction should constitute part of the daily school curriculum, that children should be given regular lessons in morals, as in geography and arithmetic, in order that they may be made intelligent upon ethical questions as they are upon other questions. This, undoubtedly, has value. Intelligence upon moral questions is an excellent thing, but it does not make character. We have been accustomed to rely too much upon definite technical instruction in morals. Preachment is not nearly so instrumental in training character as many think; indeed, I believe that the ordinary school discipline and curriculum are worth more in training character than specific moral instruction.

While such instruction, wisely given, has great value, it is hazardous to require the average teacher to give frequent lessons of an ethical sort, and at any rate, such instruction is only of partial value. At its best, it can only affect the externals of conduct—what people call morals.

A very wide distinction should be made between morals and character. Morals are superficial; character is

fundamental. Many bad people have excellent morals. The genesis and evolution of morals are interesting. As everybody knows, morals—mores—are simply manners, conduct—are necessarily superficial, and change from time to time, and from place to place.

Good people in different ages and in different localities have had totally different standards of morals. The excellence of morals, as commonly viewed, depends upon their conformity to accepted standards. These standards are, in part, the product of the experience of the ages by which men have learned what course of conduct most tends to peace and general comfort. But, in part, morals depend upon existing conventionalities, ephemeral, often absurd. Our fathers did many things which we should regard as immoral. We do many things which they would have regarded as immoral, without in either case violating the prevailing standard. We never regard the standard of morals as fixed, if we are thoughtful, and the good are quite as apt to be violators of old standards and introducers of new, as the bad.

It is, doubtless, well that people conform to prevailing moral standards if they have no better ones, but it is not enough; character is needed. Character is fundamental, self-directing, self-acting, controlled from within. Morals are external, obeying extraneous laws, changeable, expedient, conventional. Morals include but a part of life; character, the whole. It is all inclusive, all extensive. The perfection of morals is complete conformity to external standards, avoidance of criticism and friction. The perfection of character is inability to do what is wrong, which in God or man is not a limitation, but an evidence of power. Wrong is a weakening and disintegrating force, like disease. The strong character moves.

in its midst like the "Children in the Furnace." Such power comes not from formal instruction in morals, nor from conformity to any external standards, and yet such power is needed by the citizens of a free state. Such only is virtue.

Virtue consists in a completeness and perfection of being, whose aims, ambitions, purposes, and ideals all tend to one end. It includes knowledge, not knowledge of laws, proverbs, or formulas, but a comprehension of causes and relations. It embraces all of life, every thought, every act, so that resistance to evil is no more an effort than the oak's resistance of the zephyr. To such a character good deeds become nature, not supernatural, not artificial. The new birth of the Scripture is its type. All its streams of life flow in one direction. No act is unmoral. It may appear so, superficially, but every act derives a moral quality from the aim and spirit of the life.

Such character can be produced by no system of formal instruction; it must grow out of experience; but this experience must not be artificial.

With this point of view, I claim that character can be produced in school; not by the ordinary formal instruction and discipline, nor by technical moral instruction; but by introducing the child to a real, complete life, in which every activity tends to produce in him moral force, for every influence of environment, every occupation of mind, every activity of the body or soul enters into and becomes a part of the child's moral fibre. It cannot be otherwise. Our characters are the products of the whole of our living, and not of a part of it.

What traits must a good character possess? First, high ideals; second, clearness of judgment to determine between good and evil. This includes

essential truth, which means the same, I suppose, as Dr. Harris' "moral insight," a grasp of relations, power to discern the real from the fictitious, the superficial. It is different from veracity; it is more than honesty, though it involves them both. It is such a constitution of the whole nature that the real appeals to it, appears lucid before it, and is in harmony with it. A good character possesses, third, taste, or appreciation of the good; fourth, a will both strong and good.

How may these traits of a good character be developed in school? By making the school life as real to the child as the larger life is to the parent, by filling his time with those experiences which result in wisdom.

It is sometimes said that one generation stands upon the shoulders of the preceding. If this were in every sense true, civilization would advance much more rapidly than it does. In a moral sense, it is not true at all. Intellectually, here and there, a soul standing upon the shoulders of the past, may, for a moment, catch a glimpse of a wider horizon; but we cannot stand on shoulders long. No generation, no man enters into the experience of the past. We grow by our own experience, and not by those of our ancestors. It is often said that, when we have acquired, through experience, wisdom enough to live, we die.

What one generation does for the following is to raise the sure foundation, a little, an inch; to create a little better environment than it itself enjoyed, so that the new generation shall gain a little better experience; only a little; not the experience of the past, not its failures, but the institutions it created, the spiritual atmosphere it produced are what benefit the future. The child of to-day is born into a world that is a little better than that found by the child of fifty years

ago. The struggles and the mistakes through which this was produced are of the past, and he cannot enter into them. He must make his own.

Education proposes to create such an environment for the child that he shall gain daily, through experience, wisdom, so that he may live better than if he travelled through life unaided. In this, education is wise. Indeed, this is all it can do. School life is valuable to the child not chiefly for the definite instruction given, but for the character of the microcosm in which he is getting his experience. If it is rich, and broad, and real, if his time is devoted to search for essential truth, if he lives a life as genuine as the life of the adult, then he may really gain experience which will result in wisdom and character. This is more than is offered by the formal discipline of the school; more than is offered by its instruction, though it includes both.

If all life is a unit, and if every part of it partakes of the good or evil quality of the whole, school life, to be a preparation for it, must also be a unit, and every activity must be consciously directed toward wide, rich, and fruitful experiences such as may result in good character. I say, consciously,—this conscience is not entered into by the child. Most of those influences which form character are by him not directly felt. No school exercise is without its effect; the geography lesson, as much as the catechism, trains character; perhaps more.

Specifically, the school influences are the teacher, the curriculum, the method of instruction, and the mode of discipline. These are parts of the unit. I am to confine myself to the instruction. This necessarily includes, to a certain degree, the course of study. The method of discipline and the personality of the teacher are, perhaps, the greatest influences.

The value of a course of study in training the child consists in its fitness to produce breadth of view, clearness of judgment, nobility of ideals, love for the true and the beautiful, in general, to enrich and fructify the mind. It does not consist, to any considerable degree, in the definite information imparted. The subjects most valuable for all grades of school are those which have the richest content;—they are human history, literature, art, and nature. The child whose school life is devoted to the contemplation of these subjects inevitably receives moral elevation. If this contemplation comes as a part of a school life whose discipline is wise, with a teacher whose personality is inspiring, school will have done for each child the utmost it can do toward the creation of character. Specifically, ideals, judgment, and taste must come from the contemplation of high things. This is too clear to need elucidation. A little about the will:

We are all aware of the old controversy between the Herbartians and the Hegelians regarding the character of the will; a controversy which has been renewed in many educational gatherings of recent years. I have no desire to discuss the extreme views of Hegel or Herbart; the one, apparently representing the will as absolutely supreme, uninfluenced by motive, uncontrolled except by itself; the other, apparently believing that the will is entirely the product of forces other than itself, desires, environment, motives generally. The question is, Can the will be trained in strength and goodness? If it cannot, all attempts at character-development are futile. It is a fact which we all recognize when we do away with metaphysical terms and use common sense, that the will is influenced by motive; that, while it is supreme in one sense, in another it is controlled. We do what we want to do. What

appeals to us as most desirable, thus controls our choice. We may have conflicting desires; we may want to do wrong; and we may choose, notwithstanding, to do right, but, if we do, it is because, on the whole, right appeals to us as more desirable than wrong. The strong will is the one that is able to put aside obscuring views, and see clearly the right, and training of the will must consist largely in creating this power.

All that I have been advocating for the creation of ideals, for the training of judgment and taste, is for the sake ultimately of influencing the action of the will. The riches of literature, history, art, and nature derive their chief value from their power to create motives which will guide the will in its action. This does not belittle the will; it is still supreme; but in order to choose, it must have motives. It cannot choose without.

Motives cannot be external; they must be internal. For this very reason the whole mind must be informed with thoughts which are noble and elevating. Its fibre must be so composed that the good will be the strongest motive. The will grows strong by experience; that is, each choice makes easier the next choice; hence, if during the period of school education the child's life can be so filled with ennobling influences that good shall be to him the strongest motive, and hence be habitually chosen, the will can safely be trusted.

There is, however, another class of subjects which constitutes, and must constitute a large portion of the curriculum of every elementary school. The formal studies—the three R's—not only commonly constitute a great portion of the curriculum, but absorb and dominate it so that it may be said that in the average common school the time is devoted to learning to read, write, and compute; that all other studies are introduced as accessories

and means to these, and that school education is supposed to be satisfactory, if the child has become proficient in these, and possibly a few other arts. If he can have incidentally acquired some breadth of view and some knowledge of the noble products of civilization, some taste for the good, that is all very well; but that is not the essential thing. Just here is where our common schools break down, and here may be found the reasons why they do not produce such characters as I have outlined. The order is wrong.

The great broadening and enriching subjects should occupy the primary place, and the arts, so called, should be secondary. The difference in order is fundamental and essential. No art exists for itself. Art for art's sake is despicable. Arts receive their value from what they express.

I do not need to enlarge upon this. It will appeal at once to all; but I desire to call attention to this point; placing the chief value upon the formal prevents the child from acquiring the correct notion of value. If the child, all through his school life, is taught to look upon the secondary as primary, if he struggles for perfection in form as such, without regard to the real end, how can we expect the adult to do any better?

Men devote their energies to acquiring that which is secondary. Money, power, social position, reputation are what they strive for most. When they sit down and think seriously about it, they admit that they are only secondary. Why do they struggle in this way? Why do we see men who have acquired a fortune, unable to use or enjoy it? It is because all their experiences during the time of education have been in the same line; the judgment of the superiority of the real over the superficial has not been wrought into their natures; on the contrary, by the daily

experiences of school life, the judgment has been inwoven into their mental fibre, that life consists in the abundance of things possessed; that form is greater than substance, matter than spirit. No teacher will admit this in words, but we compel our children to live it. When reading, writing, and computing, with the other arts, are impressed upon children as the great end of education, and their daily life is devoted to them, without regard to the ends to which they must be put, we are simply drilling the child for an unsuccessful and unworthy life.

Remember that character consists in the wholeness of the life. An intelligent knowledge of moral distinctions and moral values, unless they are wrought into the being, and have become a part of its fibre, will not save men from following the lower, and it can only be wrought into the being when it becomes a daily, continuous experience; hence, what we must seek to do in school is to lead children to experience that which is noble.

The good, the true, and the beautiful are a trinity; the contemplation of one necessarily helps the others. Nothing is too good for the child. The best that civilization has produced is his by right. Literature, art, the wonders of nature, and the lessons of history belong to him. Through contemplation of them, his mind should grow. They should constitute the content of his course of study, and the form should be based upon and directed to them.

He should feel, when he is learning to write, it is that he may express the best thoughts in him for the good of man; and that he may feel this, he should at that moment be expressing the best thought that is in him. When he learns to read, he should feel that he is seeking for treasures; and that he may feel this, he should at that moment be seeking for treasures, not

learning the forms of letters and words. When he is learning to compute, he should feel that it is to enable him to understand the form and extent of the beautiful world he lives in, not merely to add dollar to dollar. And that he may feel this, he should at that moment be acquiring some acquaintance with these higher things.

Thus his curriculum takes its proper place, and thus his experience becomes rich, and at the same time the inferior, the secondary, the form are better acquired, because the child realizes that they are for a high purpose. I cannot repeat too often that this is not done by telling him that it is so, but by leading him to see that each exercise leads to some high end.

Sometime or other, teachers will see that education is development, uniform, complete, and that the best results in every department are secured, if proper attention is paid to symmetry and harmony, that attempts to produce special effects, at the expense of symmetry, are violations of unity of nature, and tend to immorality.—*School Journal*.

“More supervision and less inspection” is in the air, and every province in the Dominion is beginning to understand what that means for our schools. The test has been applied to school work in the United States, and as a contemporary says:

“Notwithstanding the hard times the township boards of education in many sections of the State are adopting supervision, and whenever or wherever it is put to the test faithfully, it proves to be an excellent financial as well as an educational investment. The additional expense is small and the increased attendance always resulting from systematic organization makes the per capita cost of education less than under the old plan of no organization or supervision.”

LATIN PRONUNCIATION.

BY ROBERT M. HARPER, B.A., LL.M.

NOT so very many years ago, a teacher of the classics dismissed the subject of Latin pronunciation in this way. "Every modern nation," he told his students, "pronounces Latin as it pronounces its own tongue. Thus there are divers methods of pronunciation. This diversity would be inconvenient if Latin were a general medium of verbal intercourse. At one time it was so, and then there prevailed one recognized manner of pronunciation." Since the time, however, when the matter of Latin pronunciation could be thus summarily disposed of, and students were satisfied to use a system of pronunciation analogous to that used in pronouncing their mother-tongue, things have in some measure changed. Since then Latin scholars have evolved, after a great deal of laborious research and comparison, a system of pronunciation which, according to the best classicists, gives us, in a more or less perfect degree, the Latin sounds as they were produced by the ancient Romans in using their own language. This new old method of verbal expression, which is called the Roman or Latin method, has been very generally accepted and is being used in an increasing number of our higher institutions of learning. Its introduction into the various colleges has, by the reaction of the university on the school through the graduate-teacher, made its acceptance or rejection by the school compulsory on those who have the authority to make selection. As yet this selection lies with the teacher. The powers that be have made no pronouncement on the matter other than indirectly through the authorized text-books. Of these, the ones which advocate the Roman

method of pronunciation, like Collar and Daniell's, also provide for the English method. In other words, still another minor problem has been created for the teacher to solve. "What method of Latin pronunciation shall be used in the schools?"

In opening the discussion of this question, I think I may safely predict that it will be limited to an examination of the respective worths of the English and the Latin or Roman methods of pronunciation. The other systems we sometimes hear spoken of, like the Continental and the Italian, will hardly enter into competition with these two; and hence the question we have before us may be put anew and in this form: "Should the Roman or the English method of Latin pronunciation be used in our schools?"

The best solution of the problem will, I think, be found in the answer to this other question, "Why does Latin form a part of the ordinary school curriculum?" I use the term "school curriculum" advisedly, for we should, in approaching this matter, differentiate between the school and the university.

Is Latin taught in our schools because it is an excellent "discipline" study? because it is, as someone has said, a "perfect" language? because it makes smooth the rough places for the pupil struggling with the intricacies of English grammar? because it is the key to some of the richest treasures in the world's literature? because it gives an introduction to professional studies and is a valuable aid in mastering their technicalities? To each of these the answer must be, yes—with a limitation. These are all good reasons for the retention of

Latin as an important part of the well-conceived course of study; but they do not indicate the real, the all-important end to be attained by the study of Latin. It is because of the influence it exerted on the development of English as a language; it is because a knowledge of it conduces, or perhaps is essential, to a thorough and accurate knowledge of our mother-tongue, that we plead for its continuance on the curriculum, and should be, one and all, sorry to see any determined movement on the part of a modern language to oust it from its lawful place. "If," as the teacher of Latin already referred to has said, "you are familiar with the two elements of English (the Saxon and the Latin) you possess the means of knowing and writing English." This idea has been developed by Dr. Harris in an article published in one of his more recent reports, where he draws attention to the value of Latin as a school study as furnishing "the root words to that part of our vocabulary which is more especially the language of thought and reflection." "Hence," he says, "it happens that even a little study of Latin makes a great difference in the grasp of the mind as regards generalization and principles. Without Latin the trope and metaphor underlying the abstract terms necessary to express all elevated sentiment or thought in English, and more specifically all scientific results, is not perceived nor felt. Such trope or metaphor is the basis of abstract terms, and hence the latter have been called 'fossil poetry.' To gain command of the resources of a language one must revivify this poetic element, must acquire a feeling of the trope and metaphor which it contains."

Not only this, but Latin embodied as it is in the English language, is as much the medium of intercourse between learned and cultured men *now*, as it was when scholars and

courtiers used the language of ancient Rome to express their ideas and opinions. You have all heard the wail, "Oh, Latin is a dead language, and I don't see why my boy or girl should be asked to learn it." There is an element of truth—a very small element of truth—in the statement that Latin is a "dead" language. As a self-contained, self-sustaining means of thought-expression, it is now practically "dead;" but at the same time, and in an important sense, it is very much alive. It lives in our own language and makes its vigorous transmitted life apparent in every sentence we utter. A little inspection will reveal the fact that a very large proportion of the words used in everyday conversation are of Latin origin, and the proportion becomes greater as the conversation becomes more cultured. What I have just tried to make plain is very well set out in this quotation from an article published in the report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1892-93:

"I would have children at the age of ten or eleven years commence the study of that language which, in the fields of persuasion and philosophy, of literature and law, is so largely the progenitor of the English—the incomparable Latin. This is the international arsenal out of which men in all ages have taken the weapons of words, with which they have fought the battles of all genuine culture. Latin is the carboniferous age in its relation to modern thought. We heat our firesides now by the consumed and adapted sunlight of Paleozoic times, so the light of modern literature and law comes from the intellectual sunlight that warmed the souls of the great masters of Greece and Rome. Side by side in daily study the two languages should be pursued, the Latin constantly illuminating the English, and mak-

ing the study of our native tongue more and more a delight, therefore more and more fascinating; and as an inevitable sequence, more and more profitable.

"It cannot be controverted that Latin, as some one has recently written, is the most valuable and loyal handmaid in securing that accurate and discriminating use of the English language which is the sign and seal of the educated and cultured. I therefore deprecate the force and fervor of that movement, now gathering strength, which will permit some modern language to usurp the place which rightly belongs to Latin, and for which there is no adequate alternative."

I may have laid myself open to the charge of evading the real question at issue, in what I have so far said, but I think I can justify myself, for in the answer I have tried to give to the question, "Why has Latin a place in the school curriculum?" lies the solution of the other problem, namely, the selection of a method of Latin pronunciation.

If we teach Latin on account of its influence on the development of our own language and because it is of incalculable value to the child in getting a thorough working mastery of his mother-tongue, then it is not hard to see which method of pronunciation is best adapted to the object in view. The *Roman* method is no doubt interesting—to the scholar, to the antiquarian, to the enthusiastic searcher after historical truth; and we owe a debt of gratitude to the men whose diligent labors have thus restored to us the pronunciation of the ancients. But will this improved method of sounding vowels and consonants in a way strange to English ears be of any assistance to us in making Latin the "handmaid" of English?

Even if it be not true that, as has

been remarked, the approach to the true pronunciation of Latin furnished by the Roman method is "so far away that were Cicero—I beg his pardon—were Kikero to come to life again and hear some of us at this *near* pronunciation, he would either not be able to understand us or immediately die of an apoplexy of chargin or laughter;" that the introduction of the Roman method into our schools would and could have no other effect than to uselessly disturb the existing condition of things; that there is an evident lack of internal uniformity in the pronunciation which results from an adoption of this method; that there is something in the rumor that some of the advocates of the Roman pronunciation have now an inclination to recede from the stand taken so confidently by them a few years ago; even if these things be *not* true, there is a better argument than is to be found in any of them against the use of the Roman method of pronunciation in our schools, and it is this: Will it help us to make the most educational capital possible out of the analogies between the two languages—Latin and English? Will the person who hears the English word *Ciceronian* understand its significance as well if he has been taught that the Roman orator was called *Kikero*, as he would if, like most of us here, he knew of him as Cicero? Will he as readily grasp the meaning of the expression, "So-and-so is a very Crœsus" if he has never heard of the Lydian king except as *Kroisoos*? Or take almost any word derived from the Latin. For instance, will the child who is acquainted with the Latin noun *vigil* or the one who has only heard of *wriggle* get the better conception of the English word *vigil*, or the more readily understand the poet when he says, "So they in heaven their odes and *vigils* tuned"?

My examples may not be the best

that might have been used to illustrate my meaning ; but I think they will suffice to show that in selecting our method of Latin pronunciation we should, if we understand aright why we teach Latin at all, choose that one which gives the greatest possible help to the student in tracing the shades of meaning of the words he uses, and throws the fewest possible obstacles in the way of his seeing, with as little effort as may be, the "trope and metaphor" just mentioned. As that is what the English method does for the student, we should do our best to foster its adoption—or, I should rather say, its perpetuation—in all our schools. It should be used in the school even though the Roman method be universally adopted by the college.

As I have already hinted, a distinction is to be made in discussing this matter, between the university and the school. The education of the individual, taking it from its earliest stage, is, in a sense, a process of selection or contraction, going from the *general*, as embodied in the all-embracing (sometimes too-much-embracing) common school curriculum, to the *special*, when the faculties are to a great extent turned in one direction, that is, towards the particular calling or profession. In this peculiar sense, we may regard matriculation as one of these contractions. Not

all of those who attend our schools purpose following an academic college course, just as not all of those who take such a course purpose preparing themselves for one and the same profession. So not all of our pupils are going to make a special study of Latin as a language unit ; but all of them, without exception, are going to feel the benefit, unconsciously it may be, of their Latin studies reflected in their increased and more intimate knowledge of their own language. This is my reason for saying that even though the university adopts the Roman pronunciation, the school should adhere to the English method.

But, you will say, this is a strange way to plead for uniformity, to set the school against the college, and I confess there seems some reason for the remark. You will bear in mind, however, that any uniformity we may have must not be obtained at the expense of the child's best interests ; and besides, that we are not so anxious for an international uniformity or even a national uniformity of Latin pronunciation, as a *school uniformity*. And if the benefit to be derived by the student from the use of the English method of pronunciation is greater than can be derived from the adoption of the other ; if his mastery of his own language is facilitated thereby ; then let the *school uniformity* be along the lines I have indicated.

AN EDUCATION BUDGET IN GERMANY.

THE attention which has recently been drawn to the organization of education in Germany, and notably Mr. Sadler's recent article among his "Special Reports," lead us to scrutinize, not only the educational methods, but also the administrative machinery employed in that country. Mr. Sadler's pages are concerned in the main

with one out of several classes of schools, and the inquiries which they contain seem to have been conducted with a view to approaching the thorny subject of the delimitation of Primary from Secondary Schools in England. But there are of course other points of view from which one may regard educational organization in Germany,

and amongst these is the financial aspect of the matter. To appreciate the thoroughness of German educationists in setting themselves to meet varied requirements with the minimum waste of force, and to realize the efforts which Germans are prepared to make in order to attain efficiency, we must observe how they go to work in a town large enough to give scope for the due development of many types of school. Now Cassel, with its 81,000 inhabitants, not only forms a good specimen as regards size, but is recognized in the Empire as a model educational centre. Was not the German Emperor once a pupil at one of its gymnasien? There is a considerable variety of callings amongst its inhabitants; no kind of employment is so predominant as unduly to influence education, or necessarily to multiply schools of a particular type. The engineering works, for instance, which exist in the town, do not overshadow other industries as they might in some parts of Westphalia. Cassel is in the District Authority of Hesse, one of the thirteen education divisions of Prussia. The authority consists of a president, generally a trained official; and of men of standing, often ex-headmasters, of whom one in particular, as an expert, is entrusted with the general direction of affairs. Through this District Authority the Central Authority communicates with the schools. The District Authority appoints head and assistant-masters, supervises examinations, and even prescribes books to be used. A town has no direct control over the gymnasien within its area, though it naturally enjoys considerable influence over them, and is willing occasionally to contribute to their funds. Besides two gymnasien, with about 1,000 pupils, Cassel has a Realgymnasium (teaching Latin but not Greek), with over 400 pupils; an Oberrealschule (neither Greek nor

Latin), having over 600 pupils; a Realschule, with over 200 pupils; and a Preparatory School, with nearly 400 pupils. So much for the boys. The public girls' schools are two—a Higher School with 550 pupils, and a Middle School with over 600. Thus we find that Cassel has over 2,500 boys attending Secondary Schools—a proportion which almost takes one's breath away, for it is five or six times as great as that which prevails even in those towns in England where Secondary Education is considered to be not ill-organized. The proportion of girls attending public Secondary Schools is much lower, but still far above what we should consider a liberal proportion even amongst boys in our country—more than 14.4 per 1,000 of population. The Educational Budget includes, of course, the provision made for the Elementary Schools, which are ten in number, and cost more than 20,000*l.* a year for the education of their 8,000 pupils. We find that the gross amount spent upon Secondary Schools slightly exceeds the sum devoted to Primary Schools. This result is perhaps not surprising, for not only are the Secondary Pupils comparatively numerous, but also Secondary Education is, even in the Preparatory stages, considerably more costly. Each pupil at the Realgymnasium costs nearly 15*l.*, of which the town contributes two-thirds. The two Realschulen cost about 9*l.* 10*s.* and the Preparatory School 3*l.* 5*s.* a head. The girls' schools cost about 6*l.*, and the Elementary Schools about 2*l.* 10*s.* per head of pupils. But besides these heads of expenditure there are others, for administration and special objects, which raise the whole to nearly 55,000*l.* a year. Of the whole expense incurred the State defrays rather less than 6 per cent., the town nearly four fifths, and the school fees in the higher schools about 22 per cent.

Consideration of these figures will show that the stride which Technical Education has made of late in Germany have their counterpart in the field of Secondary Education. Both are part and parcel of a national movement. The same spirit which has led in Darmstadt and elsewhere to a liberal expenditure upon Technical Institutions may be found in Cassel. In point of population Cassel might be compared with South Shields

or Gateshead—towns with poor-law valuations of nearly 300,000*l.* The relative wealth of the burghers of Cassel would be hard to calculate; but one thing stands out clearly, that for purposes of Secondary Education the German citizen is willing to pay what would be equivalent in England to a rate of nearer two shillings than one shilling in the pound.—*Education, London.*

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE GIRLS' PRIVATE SCHOOL.

NO one wishes to bring back Puritan times. The "good old days" undoubtedly gain from distance much of their enchantment; but they had certain characteristics, they produced certain fine, hardy types of character, that make every true New Englander hold his head higher because of his ancestry. Are the characteristics of the present time—are the types of character it is producing—such that the twentieth century shall have like cause to be proud of its heritage from the nineteenth? A recent writer says: "The spirit of individual independence is the spirit to which the progress of civilization is due; but, if not controlled by reason, it becomes the parent of anarchy, destructive of free institutions and of social order. In America we have been living under conditions which have admitted no checks upon this spirit of independence; and the result is seen in every class, in the enfeebled sense of the virtue of obedience and the necessity of discipline, in the unrestraint of expression, and the readiness to question and to resent the exercise of authority." No thoughtful observer can deny this charge or the seriousness of it. To shut our eyes to such a tendency, not to seek its cause and its check, is

practically to say, "After us the deluge!"

The cause is found in the lack of discipline in the family. It may be the reaction from the sternness of the Puritan home; it may be the desire not to interfere with the development of the child's personality; it may be that weakness of nature which spares itself the present pain of discipline regardless of the future welfare of the child; it may be American laziness that lets a thing go rather than "make a fuss about it"—whatever it is, it is not "parental tenderness and love" that thus sows the seeds of lawlessness by the failure to insist upon obedience in the home. To fail to teach a child obedience is to throw him out to the rough handling of life to be taught lessons of self-control and self-poise that should have been learned in the loving atmosphere of the home. It is to make it hard for him to reverence anything in earth or heaven, for he has not learned to reverence his parents. The growth of a spirit of license is invariably followed by a decline in the sense of duty. Why is it that in all departments of work, from the kitchen to congress, it is so next to impossible to find faithful service? Is it not because our people have ceased to ask

themselves what they ought to do, and ask only what they wish to do?

If ever we needed a hardy, self-controlled, upright race of men and women, a race with clear moral vision and broad, warm sympathies, we need it now. Life is growing increasingly difficult and complex. Economic and social problems are pressing for solution, and they will not always be put off. New duties—perhaps new social conditions—must result from the changed relations between labor and capital. Who must wrestle with these problems? Who perform these duties? The people who hold the power—the people of wealth. It is this class from which the girls' private school largely draws its pupils. It is the sisters and wives and mothers of this class for whose education it is responsible. What shall be the attitude of the private school toward these destructive tendencies that characterize our age? It can do only one of two things; it can either work with them or it can work against them. Many of the girls who come to it are the living embodiment of these tendencies. They have never obeyed except when they felt like it; they have done nothing except what they wished. The private school can, if it chooses, continue the education the home has so successfully begun. Or it can try to turn the current. It can demand thorough work in everything undertaken, concentrated study, clear thinking, definite expression; realizing that a slipshod performance of school work means later a slipshod performance of life's work; that a giving up of a hard arithmetic example means, in the future, a giving up before a hard duty; that muddled thinking in lessons means muddled ideas of right and wrong in conduct; that inaccuracy of recitation in the classroom means untruthfulness in word and deed in life.

But the private school can do more than restrain. By insisting upon honest intellectual work and good reading, by opening the eyes and the heart to nature's beauty, it can arouse such a thirst for knowledge, such a love of the best in literature and art, such a serene delight in woods and fields and mountains and sea, that those other pleasures that do not please shall lose their charm, and a marvellous new world of pure and satisfactory joy be opened to the view. The school can also give a higher and better gift even than this. It can teach its girls the sacredness of duty, the joy of self-sacrifice, the happiness of unselfish friendship, the love of the Lord. And the teacher—what does the work demand of her? Absolute consecration—a consecration that shall continually inspire to new acquisitions of mind and character; that shall ennoble drudgery; that shall hesitate at nothing that can help her girls; that shall be brave enough to speak the unpleasant truth, to impose the disagreeable restriction, if the good of one soul committed to her demands it. Let the private school learn its lesson. Let it give the girl enough food to enable her to find her wings; and let it not grieve if she never knows to whose provident care she owes her strength. For love of her and for the deed's sake let it do the deed.

The north magnetic pole of our earth does not coincide with the geographical north pole. It is more than a thousand miles away from it, being in lat. $70^{\circ} 5' N.$ and long. $96^{\circ} 46' W.$ In 1831 Sir J. C. Ross found it to be at Boothia Felix, perhaps 250 or 300 miles within the Arctic circle. Boothia appears on the map of North America, and is, roughly speaking, directly north of Winnipeg about 1,350 or 1,400 miles. Canada has not sent out any expeditions to find the north pole: but the magnetic pole is ours.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

" Deliver not the tasks of might
To weakness, neither hide the ray
From those, not blind, who wait for
day,
Tho' 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."

The great events of interest in the Canadian world at the present moment are more or less connected with the educational question; and the management or mismanagement of secular department, the building of canals or the transfer of railways, even the agitation among the office-seekers, all sink with a blush behind the greater question of education. There is the attempt to fan into flame again the Manitoba agitation over its schools, by waving the advice of a foreign potentate in the eyes of some people; there is the question of the Ontario feeling on the matter of departmental supervision, its entrenchments behind the authority of one, and the needful checks it requires; while in Quebec nothing has been discussed in the newspapers for a month past with greater show of excitement than the proposed education bill which the upper chamber of the legislature has refused to ratify. There is not likely to be much feeling excited among the people of Quebec, we are told, on account of the measure being blocked, though there is likely to be a more careful examination of the clauses of the bill by those who are to be most affected by it, than there would have been had it been passed this year. The people should know for themselves what is being done in their name and ostensibly for their benefit, and this could only be done by giving the people a year's reading of the bill which was to give them a Minister of Education instead of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, and possibly deprive them of many other

things. The bill, it is said, was no dangerous bill, and yet it is always better for our legislators to take the people into their confidence beyond merely declaring that there is nothing of a revolution about any of their doings. The people of Montreal were surprised lately when the Legislature, unknown to them, began to prepare legislation in their behalf, and so the people of Quebec perhaps have to thank the Councillors of the upper chamber of the Quebec Parliament that they have escaped the preparation of legislation on education in their behalf, before having had an opportunity of discussing that legislation in the concrete, clause by clause.

One very illogical feature about the Bill which has just been set aside was that less than no provision was to be made through it for the better support of the schools, seeing the subsidy in behalf of elementary schools had been decreased instead of increased by the action of the government. A proposition was made in one of the clauses of the Bill to take away from the subsidy to the intermediate schools and give it to the elementary schools, a step rendered all the more ridiculous had it been taken, from the utter inadequacy of the amount thus to be stolen from the higher schools to meet the demands of the elementary schools, and the crippling that would have befallen the institutions, which have been the only successful element of the Quebec system, had they been deprived of such a sum. And there are many such

anomalies in the Bill, which we intend to refer to from time to time, so that our teachers may be in touch with the movements in behalf of their work or to the contrary, and so that the people, through them, may come to know what is right and what is wrong, what is proper and what is improper about the Bill, if it ever comes up again. The necessity for having an educationist on the floors of the Legislature becomes very apparent when such a measure as this is up for discussion, and in this respect Ontario is, possibly, to be congratulated. The Bill that has been defeated has deprived the people of Quebec, for another year at least, of the services of a Minister of Public Instruction; but who will say, after all the rhodomontade that we have read of through the newspapers forwarded to us, as coming from the would-be educationists in the Quebec Assembly, that all their wisdom would have been nipped in the bud had there been a Minister of Education present who was only a politician and knew little or nothing of the first principles of education, or what a system of public instruction should be, outside the retention of this or that party in power, through the exercise of the patronage which the clauses of the school law framed on purpose gave him.

As the time approaches for the Convention of the Dominion Association of Teachers, our teachers are coming to enquire what is being done to complete the arrangements for a successful gathering in Halifax during the summer vacation. There is no more pleasant place for the enjoyment of a summer's recess than the oldest of the cities on the eastern shore line of Canada, and if steps be taken in time by the executive of our National Association of Teachers, there is no reason why a large representation of our teachers should not

be brought together in July next to take counsel with their brethren of Nova Scotia, in regard to the great educational problems agitating the world at large, and Canada in particular. As an exponent of the educational movements in the whole of Canada, and of no particular section or province, the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is endeavoring to emulate the Dominion Association of Teachers in the inter-provincial character of its advocacies and the influence of its national sympathies. The appearance of success about the first convention of the Dominion Association of Teachers was not the best thing that could have happened to the society, since even the "king-makers of the occasion," as one of our correspondents once called them, are said to be dissatisfied to the present moment, because they were checked by somebody or other in their efforts to make a pocket burgh of the society in their own behalf, a kind of gilding shop for their own special benefit, in which the supply of gilding was to be perennial, like that which comes to them through the coerced votes of the Quebec Association. It is said that some of these "king-makers" have not yet done their duty towards the society,—that, like the money spent in the famous History Competition, the financial statement of the association has neither been received nor audited by the present officers, nor the books of the secretary handed over. This can hardly be the case, unless the President of the Association, Dr. A. H. Mackay, Superintendent of Education of Nova Scotia, and his associate officers have failed in their efforts to place the affairs of the association on a business basis. The Dominion Association of Teachers is a confessed necessity. Its organization is for the advancement of no individual man's ends, but for the advancement of education in Canada as a whole, for the

interchange of educational sympathies among all Canadian teachers, and for the promotion of a common pedagogy from the school-room in the remotest corner in Cape Breton to the school-room about to be opened, let us hope, in the Klondyke region. This is a noble work, and the Dominion Association of Teachers will only ennoble itself by engaging in it : and if there has been any ignobility about its earlier ways of doing things, let bygones be bygones, and let us begin again under the invigorating auspices of the Nova Scotian brethren. THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY may be relied upon as a zealous co-worker with the Association in every branch of its operations.

There is an idea abroad, which some people are trying to develop into a kind of unwritten law, that certain citizens should keep aloof from the open exercises in which citizenship finds its health and strength, just as there are some parents who are disinclined to submit their children to the school exercises that tend to produce an all-round and healthful education. Clergymen, like government employees, should take no active part in public affairs, while for a teacher to interest himself in the political phases of his citizenship is an indiscretion which leads often to the worse results. Rev. Mr. Mayo, however, tries to put this matter right when he says :—

“The friends of Universal Education everywhere would be a more cheerful and effective army of the Lord, if they would take a more philosophical view of the movements of educational public opinion, and acquaint themselves better with the relation of education to its public and private environment. There is always a sufficient reason outside for every wave that makes high or low tide inside the school-room. The

teacher who is only a pedagogue, living in his little world of childhood and youth, with no mental environment save the world of books and his own personal and professional affairs, is as much at the mercy of the world outside as the lone sailor clinging to his life preserver in a mid-Atlantic storm. The real cause of so much undue exaltation and consequent reaction into discouragement is the fact that so many, even of the most cultivated teachers, practically leave out of account the whole going on of society outside their own little school-yard. They seem to forget that these children are the vital parts of families, churches, communities, states and a nationality, all unique and all essential to the existence of such an arrangement as the American system of Universal Education. Indeed it often seems as if many of the most accomplished of these people were dealing with their pupils as if childhood and youth were the ultimatum ; their graduates, bound express for ‘ Kingdom Come, or some ideal realm of humanity existing only in the imagination of the educational theorist. We have already learned that the president of a successful university must be not only a scholar, but a man of the world, a statesman, and, in the best sense, an astute politician. A state, city or county superintendent of schools must be all this, or himself be an inferior member of an educational machine worked by men more capable than himself.”

The special correspondent of the *Montreal Witness* some time ago drew attention to educational affairs in Ontario, and our teachers must know for themselves whether he states the case rightly or not. “The educational controversy which,” as he says, “has raged with more or less vehemence during and since the late session of the Ontario Legislature, has had

the effect of directing public attention to what the Minister of Education, in a recent circular, condemns as an evil. The circular is intended to call the attention of teachers and school boards to the fact that the departmental examinations have sometimes been put to uses for which they were not intended when they were instituted, and which have had a somewhat injurious effect on the work of both public and high schools. It embodies three statements, each of which is of the greatest importance in connection with the current polemics: (1) That the departmental examinations are specially designed for candidates for teachers' certificates, or for some other professional standing; (2) that they are not intended to be used by high schoolmasters as a test of fitness for promotion from form to form of the course of study; and (3) that they should not be regarded as the chief test of a teacher's efficiency. These warnings exactly meet the difficulty and specify the evil, but it would be too much to expect them to solve the one and remedy the other without persistent reiteration and some lapse of time. This community has been drifting too long and too steadily in one direction to be very promptly pulled up and set back. The right course, especially as the teachers themselves are largely to blame for what they complain of. They have been in the habit of competing with each other at these departmental examinations, and of parading their own successes until they have educated the public into the belief that if they do not pass a fair number of candidates they have failed as teachers. It is not difficult to understand how this abuse of examinations has become so widespread and so deep-rooted. Twenty-five years ago the system of examinations for teachers' certificates underwent a great change. Prior to 1871 they were conducted by county boards

except in the case of normal school students, and in those days the normal school gave an academic as well as a pedagogical training. Since 1871 the non-professional examinations for certificates have been conducted by the department, and the certificates have been good for the whole province. This change threw the work of academical training into the high schools, and soon afterward the normal schools became mere pedagogical institutions. Preparing candidates for certificates soon became the chief work of the smaller secondary schools, and the efficiency of each school and its staff was judged by the number and percentage of its successful candidates at what was then a uniform provincial examination. The most effective corrective of this tendency would perhaps be to throw the examination for third class certificates back on county boards, but it is not easy to do this now. In view of the difficulties in the way it is satisfactory to find at least that the department is itself fully aware of the mischievous effect of the competition that has been going on. Authoritative intimations, frequently reiterated and widely circulated, may in time mitigate the evil, and teachers themselves may choose to assist the work of reform by exercising a wise self-control. If these means prove ineffective some other remedy will no doubt be resorted to, for the evil has become quite intolerable."

A mind, by knowing itself, and its own proper powers of virtues, becomes free and independent. It sees its hindrances and obstructions, and finds they are wholly from itself, and from opinions wrongly conceived. The more it conquers in this respect (be it in the least particular), the more it is its own master, feels its own natural liberty, and congratulates with itself on its own advancement and prosperity.—*Shaftesbury.*

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

In connection with the training of teachers in England, an examination is held each year of those who wish to enter a training college, of which there are thirty-three. Those who pass the examination are termed queen's scholars. The education department allows each training college \$500 for each male queen's scholar trained for two years who obtains a diploma; \$350 for each female. Usually the student boards in the college; of this kind there are twenty-six. The education department holds two examinations each year in these colleges. A large proportion of the principals are clergymen; one is a Roman Catholic. The queen's scholars can select their own college. In some of the colleges the subject of religion occupies an important place; in one, attendance at chapel is required twice daily. Among the amusements, dancing is stated to be the most popular.

And this is how the "new fad" is to be further introduced into the New York Schools, if the words of *Primary Education* are to be taken as authoritative:

"It is now proposed to try this plan in a few public schools of New York city, but on a more elaborate scale. Nearly every city department in New York has been asked to assist in preparing the rules for the mimic city government. Now this is not a 'make believe' affair, but is conducted in good faith and all seriousness. Think of mimic officials 'sitting' on school lunches in their office as 'food inspectors'; on the condition of cleanliness of hands and faces as 'hygienic inspectors'; on the physical status of the children—no, beg pardon—*citizens*, as 'medical inspectors,' etc., etc. *When* is all this to

be done? In the twenty minutes that the teacher is required to be in the school-room before the beginning of school. The primaries are to be held one morning, the convention will hold session the next, and an election will be held on the next. Isn't this about as well as for the teacher to be so 'nerved up' by the necessary discipline of the children before school that she is already wearied before school opens? And isn't it about as well for boys to be managing themselves as to be rebelling against the teacher's control? But nothing is said about the woman vote in this ideal municipality? Will the 'new woman' be evolved from this new order of things or will it prove one more opportunity to teach the coming woman her 'proper sphere'?"

The "Cosmopolitan University" is another of the new things under the sun, and this is how Dr. Andrews of Brown University sums it up:

"The work of this institution is avowedly along the lines marked out by the Chautauqua movement, but extends them much further, by providing that men and women everywhere, without any payment whatever, and without any affront to their religious prejudices, may receive competent direction in their studies. Courses of reading in the various ranges of art, science, philosophy, and literature can be carefully prescribed and conscientiously supervised; examinations thereon can be conducted; the merits and defects of work pointed out; promotions instituted, and, ultimately, degrees offered."

There is a state of affairs in Aberdeen University at present which brings to mind a chapter of the early

history of Queen's University, Canada. As the *Journal of Education* says:

"Professor Johnston was responsible for some of the most extraordinary scenes Aberdeen University has ever witnessed. Exercising his right to lecture on Biblical Criticism, he attempted to deliver an introductory address in the Pathology class-room, Marischal College, but the attempt was made amid an uproar that, though it rose and fell, was always deafening. Students of various faculties crowded the room and drowned the Professor's voice. Ultimately, the lecturer left the room, and, after a brief interval of wild confusion, the greater and rowdier part of the students also left, singing as they went, 'Shall we gather at the river?' Presently, Professor Johnston reappeared and resumed his lecture. But the noise was also resumed, as students came back on hearing of the resumption of the proceedings; and, by-and-by, Professor Reid, Dean of the Medical Faculty, and Dr. Hamilton, Professor of Pathology, entered to stop the meeting; their efforts, however, being ineffectual till Professor Hamilton laid hands on Professor Johnstone's manuscript and carried it off. One recalls the famous occasion when Professor Wilson (Christopher North) was interrupted in his inaugural address by the appearance of the Professor of Anatomy, watch in hand, exclaiming: 'Sir, it's past one o'clock, and my students are at the door; you must conclude.' Since his stormy opening lecture, Professor Johnston has been lecturing at King's College, Old Aberdeen, at the same time as Dr. Gloag, the Lecturer on Biblical Criticism, but no students are attending the Professor's class; he has been speaking to ladies, retired clergymen, and reporters. But he means to hold his ground, and he is not slow to express publicly his inten-

tion to do so and his opinion of those who have helped to bring about the present situation."

The training of teachers came up for discussion at the last annual meeting of the National Education Association of the United States, and this is what Mr. Hinsdale had to give by way of statistics on the subject:

"There is no country in the world where the provision of properly-prepared teachers for the schools is so serious an undertaking as in the United States. Of the numerous causes that contribute to this end, two should be specified. One is the enormous scale upon which education, and particularly public education, is carried on. The cost of our public schools, taking the country together, has already passed 175,000,000 dols. a year, and it will probably reach 200,000,000 dols. by the close of the century. In 1894-95 there were 396,327 teachers employed in the public schools. France in 1891-92 had 146,674; England and Wales in 1894 had 109,776 teachers; Prussia in 1891 had 71,731 teachers. Moreover, the number of teachers required increases considerably every year. The second cause is the instability of the teaching body, owing to the growth of population, the greater relative increase of schools, deaths, and most of all, no doubt, the passing of teachers from the service into some other employment or into married life. Unfortunately we have no statistics showing the average period of service, or the number of new teachers called for to fill vacancies and occupy new places that are created year by year. It was said a few years ago that in Maine the average term was four years; that is, 25 per cent. of the teachers of the State came and went every year. A report was published in 1892 showing that all the professionally trained teachers

who were employed in the high schools of Washington four years before had resigned in the interval. A German expert, in a report made after examining our industrial system in 1893, quoted this sentence from some American authority : ' In the United States the profession of teaching seems to be a kind of waiting room, in which the young girl waits a congenial ulterior support, and the young man a more advantageous position. In fact, the teaching body is so fluctuating that the rank of a profession is often denied to teachers.' If we may assume that the average period of service throughout the country is six years, then about 60,000 new teachers will be required each year, at the present stage of progress, to recruit the army of public-school teachers. How impotent the schools that are engaged in preparing teachers professionally are to meet this demand a few facts will show. The public normal schools in the country in 1894-95 sent out only 5,492 graduates, the private normal schools only 3,074, making a total of 8,566. Further, 192 colleges and universities counted 6,402 students in pedagogical courses, and 433 public high schools taught 6,809 so-called normal students. These students considerably swelled the number of teachers that had received more or less professional training ; but we are not told to what extent. It is obvious that the whole contingent of trained teachers every year is but a small fraction of the total number. In Massachusetts, which is better furnished with normal schools proportionally than any other State, only 3,267 teachers out of 10,965 a few years ago had graduated from such schools. In Prussia, on the other hand, the 3,200 recruits sent from the normal schools every year are quite sufficient to keep the ranks of the army of teachers, more than 70,000 strong, constantly full."

This may be true of the pupils attending some schools in Great Britain, but Dr. Gordon Stables, who writes it, will, on enquiry, hardly find it true in the case of all pupils on this side of the Atlantic :

" The average boy of sixteen has no more idea of the mechanism of his system than he has of the internal economy of the planet Saturn. For all he knows to the contrary he may be just as homogeneous as a jelly fish. He knows that if he cuts his finger it will bleed and be painful, but cannot tell you where the blood comes from, or what makes it painful. He is ignorant of the fact that the blood comes from the heart, that the great arteries carry it to every portion of the body, however remote, and become more and more numerous and smaller as they proceed, till they are as small as floss silk, and so close together that one cannot prick one's finger with a needle without destroying a score of them."

The Knights of Labor, at a convention in Montreal some time ago discussed the question of free education for Quebec, and during the discussion it was stated that items appeared in the press occasionally to the effect that people with large families were deprived of the benefits of education through being unable to pay the school fees. It was contended that any one making their wants known, their children would be educated free of charge. Such a contention did not receive much support, as the children receiving education in that manner would be looked down upon as paupers, and many poor honest fathers kept their children at home for that reason. It was finally decided to petition the Legislature to enact a law making education free and compulsory, and thereby do away with the obnoxious system as it at present

exists, but the petition has evidently not been forthcoming.

The criticism that it is the examination that fails and not the candidate is a common enough cry, the morning after the roll is called and the defeated lie around disconsolate. The thirty law students who lately had to report themselves at home as being among the plucked, had at least the sympathy of numbers as a support, and when the record is sent out from Montreal that only seven out of thirty-seven of the candidates passed the Bar Examination, and that four of the seven were English-speaking students, there is room for quite a number of inferences, though the most of them may be wide enough of the mark. The Board of Examiners have, it is true, wisely adopted a new line of procedure, and perhaps this has had something to do with the slaughtering that has taken place among the would-be lawyers. Formerly the Board divided itself up into sections, endowing each section with the power of recommending the selection of candidates whose papers had been read by them. Now all the papers of all the candidates have to be read by all the examiners, and, as a result, there is no possibility of a poorly prepared candidate passing.

Some of the defeated candidates in the above examination will no doubt appreciate the following paragraph taken from the *Journal of Education*, of Boston, though the local appreciation will hardly improve the remarkable logic of its statements. The name of the defeated candidate is given in the paragraph so wittingly penned by the editor of the paper from which it is taken, but for obvious reason there is no need to repeat it here. This is the paragraph entitled "The Failure of the Examination."

"There has been no educational

episode in many a day so every way unsatisfactory as the examination of Mr. A. W. E., assistant superintendent of — city. There is nothing satisfactory connected with it, either in detail or in result. The fact that he did not get the "required per cent." on the technical features of the examination is in no sense humiliating to Mr. E.; for, most fortunately, he is well educated and well-trained. All that a good normal school and a good New England college could do for a bright, diligent, aspiring student was done for him some years ago, and every month of his life since graduation has been spent in teaching in a normal school, or in supervision in town, city, or state. He has written and talked on many educational themes, and always acceptably. It would be difficult to find in the country a man of his age whose education, training, experience, and professionalizing has been more generally satisfactory. It was not Mr. E. who failed, but the examination. The authorities certainly attempted to have a fair, wise, serviceable examination. Presumably it was of the best, and yet a thoroughly equipped man failed; failed because of his successful preparation for the work for which he was examined. The humiliation is on the part of the examination. Something is wrong. What?"

And how many of our Ontario teachers, and our Quebec teachers, and the candidates of the late examination for the entrance to the practice of law in Montreal and elsewhere, will enjoy the above, and how many of them will further enjoy the editorial comments of the paragraphist. "The whole tendency of the day among professional people, among the best and most progressive educators," says the editor, with his eye on the galleries perhaps, "is to em-

phasize the professional examination, which works very well so long as it is applied to youth and maiden, fresh from the technicalities of the schools; to young men and women who know little of that about which they are supposed to be examined, but which breaks down absolutely the moment it is applied to any one who is expert in that upon which he is examined. If that be the case, is it an examination to test power, or merely an exhibition of professional athletic exercises? There is no longer any question about the absurdity of a technical examination of a successful well-educated superintendent, but how about the other examinations? How about a wholesale examination of candidates for the principalship of grammar schools? Is that as absurd? Why not? If a man is well educated, if he has had ten or fifteen years of uniformly successful experience as a principal, can there be any question about his ability to administer a school? Certainly not, but can he pass as good an examination as a fresh, inexperienced youth right out of the professional hothouse? Certainly not. It is not that the busy superintendents and principals do not know as much, for they know infinitely more. Passing examinations is an art, almost a "trick," to which one must be trained, and the hot-house training keeps a youth at this "trick" every week or two for years, until he is as skilful with the question as is a baseball expert with the twirled sphere.

There is, or was (for the teachers of the province of Quebec are not very sure whether their association is at present on *terra firma*, now that the Montreal triumvirate have made it their own by a process of unsightly coercion)—there is, or there was appointed a committee on "Child-Study," with Mr. Brown, of Lachine,

as its convener. The organization of such a committee (belittled as was the work of all the committee appointed at the last Montreal Convention, in the life and death effort to secure votes and a seat on the Executive Committee, was a step in the right direction, and it is to be hoped that, with such an introduction as was given to it by Mr. Brown's paper on the subject, something practical will come out of it. We have just received a notice from the New York Society for Child-Study, informing us of the meeting that it held lately at Syracuse, and at which the following suggestive papers were read: (1) "The Relation of the Home and School in Child-Study," (2) "Child-Study for the Practical Teacher," (3) "Child-Study in the High School," (4) "The Dullard," (5) "Child-Study by a Women's Club," and (6) "Scientific Child-Study."

The proposal to organize a Society for Child-Study for the Dominion of Canada, embodying, as it might, the minor organizations already in operation in some of the provinces, may be fostered by the following announcement in connection with the society above referred to, as the circular sent to us says: "The American Society for Child-Study was organized during the 1897 summer meeting of the State Teachers' Association in New York city. While other States have developed an unprecedented enthusiasm in organizing teachers and parents into Child-Study co-operation, the Empire State has promoted this phase of current education inquiry largely through the efforts of the State Superintendent's office. Many private and academic clubs of mothers, teachers, and university students have been doing efficient work for many years in different sections of the State, as in New York, Buffalo and Syracuse. This Society was

organized as a Bureau, under the presidency of Dr. Griffith, Superintendent of Utica Schools, and the secretaryship of Professor O'Shea, of the Buffalo University, to unite these scattered, local agencies, to promote Child-Study by establishing and fostering round tables for parents and teachers, to distribute helpful literature, and to 'direct scientific studies relating to the rational treatment of childhood from maternity to birth.' The Society has been unable to effectively promote these aims through the resignations of the Secretary-Treasurer and his successor, Mr. Hyron T. Scudder, both of whom removed from the State soon after their elections. On December 1st, 1897, the Society issued Leaflet No. 1, containing (1) "Suggestions for Testing Sight and Hearing," and (2) "A Few Suggestions upon Fatigue." It is hoped to follow this in the near future with pamphlets on special topics. The Society will be glad to undertake

special studies upon any problems which may arise in the actual work in the school of life of the home, and invites anyone facing such problems to communicate them to the Secretary-Treasurer. The Society invites all persons interested in Child-Study, whether residing in the State of New York or elsewhere, to become members. All such persons are enrolled as members upon the payment of fifty cents (50c.) annual dues to the Secretary-Treasurer. This fee entitles each member to all the publications and other benefits of the Society during the year of membership. At the Syracuse meeting the vacancy in the office of Secretary-Treasurer was filled by the election of Professor Edward F. Buchner, of New York University. All remittances of membership fees, and all inquiries respecting the State Society for Child-Study should be sent to his address at New York University, Washington Square East, New York city.

THE HAPPIEST HEART.

Who drives the horses of the sun
Shall lord it but a day:
Better the lowly deed were done,
And kept the humble way.

The rust will find the sword of
fame,
The dust will hide the crown:

Ay, none shall nail so high his name
Time will not tear it down.

The happiest heart that ever beat
Was in some quiet breast
That found the common daylight
sweet
And left to heaven the rest.

SCHOOL WORK.

SCIENCE.

J. B. TURNER, B.A., EDITOR.

COMPARATIVE ZOOLOGY.

A BOOK with the above title written by Prof. Kingsley and published by Henry Holt & Co., of New

York, has just been published. It is of especial interest to the teachers of Zoology in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of our province, in that the text deals with the types that have been selected for study in the work of the fourth form of these schools.

The principles which guided the author in the preparation of the work are well stated in the following sentences taken from the preface: "A knowledge of isolated facts, no matter how extensive, is of little value in education, excepting as the powers of observation are trained in ascertaining those facts. Nature studies are truly educational only when the student is trained to correlate and classify facts."

Guided by these excellent principles, the writer has produced a work which will be of great service to the student making use of it.

The directions for laboratory work are simple, and yet free from unimportant details which are so frequently found in many laboratory manuals, and which are, by reason of their trifling character, offensive to an intelligent student. In addition to the practical work, there is much valuable information contained in the text with regard to allied forms with which the laboratory specimens may be compared. On the whole this book seems to be one of the most satisfactory manuals for introducing this delightful subject that we have yet seen.

The same firm has recently issued a seventh edition of Bessey's Essentials of Botany. The fact that this excellent work has run through so many editions sufficiently attests its value.

METHODS IN SCIENCE.

PHYSICS AND BOTANY.

1. State clearly your plan of introducing the study of Botany in Form I., noting also the material selected for this purpose and the time of the school year in which you would begin the work.

2. Botany is placed among the inductive sciences. Select a general-

ization in this science and show how you would lead pupils to reach it.

3. Conduct a class through the experimental work necessary to form the conclusion that matter is transmutable. Illustrate by question and expected answer how you would lead your pupils to form this conclusion.

4. In a physical laboratory fitted and equipped for individual experimentation, lead a class to arrive at the truth of the statement, "At a given depth in a liquid the pressure is equal in all directions."

Indicate the contents of the pupil's note-book at the conclusion of the lesson.

5. "Before a student is fitted for experimental investigation (in Physics) he must have a clearly defined idea of what it is that he is to do, and how he is to do it; what he is to expect, what errors are to be guarded against, and how he is to use the results obtained."

Discuss this method in its bearing upon the student's independence, growth of perception, and skill in manipulation.

FOR PASS CANDIDATES.

1. By what experiments would you enable your students to acquire a proper conception of the method of propagation of sound in air? State clearly how you would have these experiments carried out, and give the questions you would put to the pupils at the various stages of the work and the answers you would expect.

2. A colorless liquid, which the teacher alone knows to be carbon disulphide, is given to pupils in unlabelled bottles. Show how you would lead your pupils to the conclusions (a) that this substance contains carbon and sulphur, (b) that it is a chemical compound.

3. "Among the experimental

sciences Chemistry stands preeminent in its adaptability for mental discipline."

Have your pupils perform simple experiments with metallic sodium and water, and use these experiments to illustrate their "adaptability for mental discipline."

4. By a first lesson on the earth-worm illustrate your method of teaching Zoology, assuming that the following types have been previously studied:—grasshopper, crayfish, spider.

5. In a lesson on any plant of the orders Rosaceæ, Labiataæ, or Cruciferaæ, indicate how you would subordinate the mere illustration and acquisition of the technical language of Botany to the true aim for which the science should be taught.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

FEBRUARY.

THERE occurs this month one of those rare conjunctions of planets which are interesting to know about, but rather difficult to observe. Mars and Mercury, now only seen as two little specks, approach very closely to each other on the morning of February 11th. The distance apart is only one minute of arc. They are both moving northward and eastward, Mercury, of course, the more rapidly as he closes in upon the sun. The declination is far south, but with a clear morning sky the phenomenon may be seen in the ordinary amateur's telescope. Jupiter is now a beautiful object, about 40 seconds of arc in angular diameter, and rising at a convenient hour in the evening. The phenomena of the satellites are of particular interest on the night of February 12th and again on the 20th. At 10 hrs. 57 min. on the latter night

the shadow of the largest of the moons, Sat. iv, will enter upon the disc of the planet. More interesting still is the eclipse of Sat. ii. on February 28 at 10 hrs. 01 min. 42 sec., standard time at Toronto. This will be well worth observing and a 2-inch telescope will show it nicely.

Saturn is still a morning star and far south. But the disc has an angular diameter of about 16 seconds of arc, and with a magnifying power of say 60 we have a very beautiful telescopic object. We are now looking upon the northern surface of the rings. It may be noted here that unless we see the shadow of the ball on the ring we are not fairly equipped for observation of Saturn. This shadow takes some curious forms sometimes, not altogether easy of explanation. For instance, the shadow of a sphere upon a plane should be convex in outline. But Saturn's shadow has been distinctly seen with a concave outline. Whether this is due to the form of the ring itself, is an open question; if the surface were curved this appearance would result, as may be seen by experimenting, but there is an irregularity about this phenomenon which does not fit in with any theory of the form of the ring surface. Some time ago a beautiful drawing of Saturn was made at a 12-inch reflector at Simcoe, Ont., and the concave outline was specially marked.

Observers need hardly be reminded of the beauty of the stellar heavens at this season; we have the constellation of Orion claiming most of our attention and may continue speculations upon the great nebula in the sword-belt. Some very fine drawings of this object have been made with the pencil, and the field for this class of work is open for all amateurs. The most remarkable feature about the Orion nebula is its vast extent; there seems to be no distinct outline at all when viewed with great light-gathering

power; it fills the whole region round about, and we are simply overawed when we begin to think of the linear extent. It is not merely a stellar system we are looking at, but a whole universe, and yet there is the most positive proof that it is a mass of glowing gas.

The only favorable occultation by the moon in February is on the 25th at about 8 o'clock p.m., when the moon passes over a sixth magnitude star in Aries.—*Thomas Lindsay, Toronto.*

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE NOTES, HAMILTON.

THE college re-opened on the 11th ult., for the spring term. The number of students in attendance is about one hundred and ninety. During the vacation, Dr. McLellan had a reading-file set up in the gentlemen's retiring room, and on this has been placed the leading educational journals and reviews.

The election of officers for the Literary Society for the next half year resulted as follows:—Hon. Presidents, Dr. McLellan and R. A. Thompson, B.A.; Patron, Hon. J. M. Gibson; President, L. H. Graham, B.A.; 1st Vice-President, Miss V. K. Scott; 2nd Vice-President, F. C. Shaw, B.A.; Treasurer, W. H. T. McGill, B.A.; Recording Secretary, J. S. Martin, B.A.

At a meeting of the college branch of the Y.M.C.A., two delegates, Messrs. J. T. Luton, B.A., and G. E. Pentland, were appointed to attend the Brantford Convention. It was decided not to send a delegate to the International Convention of the Students' Volunteer Movement to be held in Cleveland this month.

Besides teaching in the Collegiate, the students will have to teach, as well

as observe, in the public school classes, a certain number of lessons. This has been arranged by the Board of Education, and accords with the views held by some of the principals of the schools here.

The Athletic Association have elected the following officers for the coming term: Hon. President, Hon. G. W. Ross; President, J. T. Crawford, B.A.; 1st Vice-President, R. O. Joliffe, B.A.; 2nd Vice-President, F. Eastman; Secretary-Treasurer, B. French, B.A.; Basket Ball Committee, Messrs. Anglin, Brown and Garvin; Gymnasium Committee, Messrs. Keys, Tinney and Thompson.

The secretary was instructed to obtain rates for members of the association from the different skating rinks.

During a lecture on "Reading," F. F. MacPherson, B.A., had just uttered the line "And Satan was now at hand," when there came a rap at the door. The coincidence caused quite an outburst of laughter.

Canada is a great country, with a thrilling history, with wide reaches, wonderful variety and great wealth. No man can measure her possibilities. The Canadian Pacific Railway authorities, along whose line I came with great comfort and speed from Toronto to St. John, bear a great responsibility for the material development of Canada, and every evidence of the generous expansion of their system by the use of the wealth made and voted from the Canadian people is another step, if wisely guided, in a wonderful future. In a similar way, and in a higher realm, in the moral, rather than the material, the Methodist Church bears a great responsibility in the Dominion of Canada, and in Newfoundland.—*A. C. Courtice.*

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

BOOKS.

One of the most useful books to the student of French is the "Dictionnaire complet illustré de la langue française," by Pierre Larousse. The book is divided into three parts. The first part, comprising 804 pages, forms the dictionary proper, and contains, as the author claims, "une nomenclature très complète de la langue."

This is a French dictionary for Frenchmen, with the definitions and all the rest given in their own language. This is an advantage to foreigners, as in looking up the definitions of words, they are obliged to read the French phrases, and thus become more familiar with correct French idioms. The explanations given are good, and in the case of important words full and explicit. In addition to this, the explanations are accompanied by illustrative sentences, so that the correct use of the word can be ascertained. Take for example the word "rompre." There are noted nine different significations of the word taken in a literal sense, and with a figurative meaning eleven or twelve more, with short French phrases illustrative of each separate definition. About the same number of definitions and sentences are found under "recevoir."

A prominent feature of the work is the pictorial illustrations it contains. Every teacher knows how much more easily an explanation is understood if the subject under discussion can be represented to the eye by a figure. There are in the Larousse Dictionary more than thirty full-page illustrations, besides hundreds of smaller ones. To show the value of these illustrations it is necessary to refer to one only, that of "La Maison," in which the various parts of a French dwelling-house from

"cave" to "comble" are indicated. The interior of one room is also shown and the parts named, "foyer" "plafond," etc. No one after seeing this illustration need be at any loss to know exactly what is meant by "rez-de-chaussée" and "premier étage."

Part II. contains between thirty and forty pages, and is a collection of expressions, mostly Latin, with literal translation into French, and a short explanation, also in French, of the origin and application of these expressions. This will be found a useful and convenient dictionary of reference, especially as the Frenchman's familiar Latin phrases are far from being those in current use among Englishmen.

There are two editions of the Larousse Dictionary, in both of which Part III. forms the most distinctive feature, being, as the title page announces, "un dictionnaire illustré historique, géographique, biographique et mythologique." It is really a small encyclopedia. In the Paris edition this latter part contains 624 pages, comprising a large number of very valuable historical and biographical sketches of persons and places celebrated in history, and also short articles on some of the most important works in French literature. Of course, within the compass of a work of this size, it is not to be expected that exhaustive descriptions can be given. Indeed, the chief value of these articles consists in their conciseness. Only the prominent facts are touched upon, and these are arranged in such a way that the busy teacher can, without waste of time, procure the necessary information. When we add that this part of the dictionary is illustrated by 750 portraits of famous historical personages, and is revised every year, all the articles being corrected up to date, it will be seen that

the Canadian teacher of French has within his reach a very valuable book of reference.

There is a Canadian edition of this work, in which the historical and biographical section has been prepared and published expressly for Canadians by Beauchemin & Fils, Montreal. In the latest edition (1896) this part has been revised and enlarged, and contains 304 pages, comprising nearly 11,000 articles, about 5,000 of which refer to Canada. It is illustrated by 260 portraits, about half of which are those of Canadians. The portraits are small, and some of them are indistinct, but for the most part they are well executed. In the biographical sketches the preference is given to Canadian celebrities; those who in earlier times laid the foundation of New France, as well as those who in more recent years have contributed so largely to the glory and reunion of this Canada of ours—Champlain, Sir John A. Macdonald, Sir Alex. Mackenzie, etc. All this is no doubt useful and interesting, and yet, as this information is more accessible to Canadians than is similar information regarding France, probably the Paris edition of the dictionary is the one best suited to the needs of the Canadian teacher.

Both editions are sold at such a low figure as to bring them within the reach of every one. The Canadian edition, in pasteboard covers, sells at 75 cents. The Paris edition is a little dearer, but may be procured for about \$1. Both of them can be obtained from Beauchemin & Fils, Libraires-Imprimeurs, 256 and 258 Rue Saint Paul, Montreal.—B. K.

The year 1897 has been marked by the appearance of two works of the greatest value to all who in any way study modern languages, and more particularly French. These books are the "Chrestomathie

française," by A. Rambeau and J. Passy, and the "Dictionnaire phonétique de la langue française," by H. Michaelis and P. Passy.

The "Chrestomathie" is by far the most important work in French phonetic literature that has yet appeared, with the possible exception of the "Dictionnaire phonétique." It contains nearly 250 pages, mostly made up of specimens of different sorts of French, in handsome phonetic type on one page with the key in ordinary characters on the opposite page. The introduction, which forms above thirty additional pages, contains a discussion, as valuable as it is original, of the best methods of teaching languages, and gives a masterly and succinct view of the nature of French sounds, with practical directions for overcoming common English faults in pronouncing them.

In this latter particular it is for us more suggestive than P. Passy's "Sons du français," which has proved to be a very successful work. There is not a page of the introduction to the "Chrestomathie" that is not full of assistance to any one who is seeking to form a correct French pronunciation, or to learn to use the language. The main body of the work is divided into three parts. The first begins with extracts in double transcription, to show the differences between slow and rapid delivery, and then gives a series of amusing anecdotes turning on peculiarities or faults of pronunciation; followed by a collection of conundrums depending on puns, and ends by familiar prose and poetry. The second part contains more dignified prose, among which we find the now widely celebrated address of Gaston Paris on the Song of Roland and French nationality, delivered during the siege of Paris in 1870. The third part contains some forty pieces of poetry and a scene

from the "Bourgeois Gentilhomme." As regards the transcription it is worth noting that for the first time the stressed syllables are plainly indicated in heavy black type. This alone renders a very great service to the foreigner; and when he comes to read the specimens of French poetry in connection with the theory of verse outlined in the introduction, he will find himself in possession of a key to one of the most arduous parts of his study of French language and literature. The book is not meant for beginners in French, to whom other works, such as the "Leçons de choses," by Passy and Tostrup, or the "Elementarbuch," by Beyer and Passy, are better suited. The "Chrestomathie" is published in Paris by H. Le Soudier; New York, Holt & Co. Price in paper a little more than one dollar. In cloth, about \$1.50.

The "Dictionnaire phonétique" is probably the first of its kind. In about 300 pages the authors have gone over the whole vocabulary of French words in the spoken language, omitting only comparatively rare terms. The result is not an ordinary French dictionary with the pronunciation following the word, but a dictionary in which the words occur first in phonetic type, and are then followed by the same word in its academic form. The slight inconvenience of using an alphabet of thirty-seven sounds in their proper order soon disappears in practice, for there are really only thirteen new signs and they are easily remembered. The type used in this book, as in all the others by the Passy Brothers, is that employed by the International Phonetic Association in the "Maître Phonétique." This alphabet bids fair, indeed, to become universal among phoneticians, and has already been applied to some 150 different lan-

guages or dialects. That some simplification of sound notation is urgently needed in learning French is surely apparent, if only from the fact that there is scarcely any other language, except our own, in which simple sounds are indicated by academic orthography in so many different ways. A certain authority has counted in French as many as thirty signs or combinations to indicate the open and closed "o," fifty-two for the nasal "an," and fifty-five for the open "e". What a boon, then, is this book, not only to the beginner in French, but even to the veteran student who feels uncertain of many anomalous words as soon as he is asked to pronounce them, although he may not be far wrong in a host of others! Few of us yet realize the fact that there is not one single sound which is the same in French and English, though an examination of the preface to the "Chrestomathie" would soon convince us of it.

But the Phonetic Dictionary is not satisfied with one pronunciation for each word; it often gives two where both are common in cultivated speech, and it also supplies us with a very interesting table of the principal divergences in pronunciation, taking M. Paul Passy's pronunciation as a basis, and this is followed by a second table of divergences of which no account has been taken because of their wide departure from the standard adopted, but which one often hears in the mouths of natives of different parts of France. The book does not pretend, however, to set up a standard pronunciation; phoneticians have long ceased to do that. But it undoubtedly does represent the pronunciation which, on the whole, prevails among cultivated people of Northern France, and which, we are informed, is chosen, "not as preferable in itself, but as

being at the same time the most accessible to us and the most important for most of those who study French." No student of French can fail to be pleasantly surprised by the liberal views expressed on this subject in the preface, which is by M. Gaston Paris, and in the introduction, by the authors.

It must, of course, be understood that this dictionary will teach pronunciation to no one who has not completely mastered the sounds represented by the phonetic characters; and for that one needs to refer at the outset to a Frenchman, or some one who is a safe guide. Once the sounds can be made accurately, the dictionary becomes an inexhaustible source of the most valuable direction, and should be constantly referred to. There is one improvement which should be made in the second edition; that is, the insertion of many more proper names of persons and places, which, though they do not strictly belong to the language of every day, certainly do present very frequent cases of difficulty, as they do in our own language. The authors have already given a number, and they should greatly enlarge the list. The "Dictionnaire phonétique" is printed in Hanover, but can be had from the Paris publisher of the "Chrestomathie," as no doubt from Holt & Co., New York. Price five francs in paper, and six francs bound. The paper edition is very unsatisfactory.—
J. A. Cameron, M.A., Univ. Coll.

A book of special interest to teachers and students of modern languages is the "Etude Progressive de la Langue Française," by Profs. Stern and Meras, of Stern's school of languages. New York, Henry Holt & Co.

It may be recommended first as a book to be put in the hands of pupils

for oral French reading at sight. Progressive teachers of French and German recognize more and more the value of oral reading as a means of giving the pupil power to think in a foreign language, and thus grasp the meaning without the process of translation; and it is for the purpose of sight reading that the libraries of many of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes contain a dozen or two copies of some easy French story or play. But teachers engaged in this work have felt the ordinary book of fables or foreign tales to be inadequate. While it may be simple enough for the pupil to read without translating, it is not graded; that is, does not lead from the easy to the more difficult. The chapters are too long for the lesson, the narrative is consequently interrupted at the wrong point, and both teacher and pupils have a sense of incompleteness in the lesson. Besides, the ordinary story or easy comedy presents only one style of French composition, whereas a book for sight reading should be so varied as to avoid monotony and should give an idea of the different phases of French literature. Stern's "Etude Progressive de la Langue Française" possesses not merely one or two of these requirements, but seems to have them all combined. It is written in dialogue form, being a series of talks between teacher and pupils. These conversations are well guarded, covering the rules of French grammar, and leading from such simple subjects as the hour of the day, the seasons and months of the year, talks on cities of the old and new world, to a brief outline of French literature. From the beginning there is a plentiful sprinkling of anecdotes, and thus the narrative style is combined with the conversational. Stories are told from the great masterpieces, as the "Chanson de Roland," the farce of "Maître Pathelin," "Le

Bourgeois Gentlehomme," and extracts given from them. The pupil is in this way introduced to the study of French literature. The book will also be found of great service to a teacher as a means of supplying him with interesting material for his classes in French conversation.

We are also indebted to Prof. Stern for two volumes in German, "Studien und Plaudereien." These books are made on the same plan as the French one, the second volume, being more advanced than the first. The German books have one addition, which makes them still better adapted to the needs of a school reader. The last part of each volume contains a collection of poems, some of the gems of German literature, also some of the best known "Volkslieder" with music. If such books as these were used, the reading class would lose much of its monotony, and the French and German conversation, instead of being forced and stilted, would become natural and fluent.—
A. E. M.

The most distinctive and interesting contribution to this month's *Scribner's Magazine* is from the pen of Ernest Seton Thompson, a Canadian naturalist and artist, who, in his own line of field observation has won for himself an enviable place in the world of art and science. The sketch is called "Old Silverspot, the Story of a Crow," and the scene is cast on Castle Frank near Toronto, Canada. One recognizes with pleasure what good names these are to use in writing. Thomas Nelson Page contributes this year the serial to *Scribner's*, telling at last the story of the war from a southern point of view. There are as usual a couple of good short stories.

The third and last of the "Just-So Stories" appears in the present number of *St. Nicholas*. One has a certain dislike to be a perpetual Oliver Twist, but we hope Mr. Kipling will continue to tell Miss Kipling stories and to let the rest of us have the benefit of his insight and imagination. There have been lately a number of excellent tales of sport in the *St. Nicholas*, illustrating football, hockey, etc. This is a commendable departure. The jolly little rhymes continue to be one of the features of the magazine.

C. D. Gibson has drawn a charming cover for the February number of *The Ladies' Home Journal*. One is continually hearing that Mr. Gibson's model is his wife, and again, that Mr. Gibson's model is not his wife, but at least she is a most serviceable model. There is nothing more interesting or instructive in this magazine at present than "The Inner Experiences of a Cabinet Member's Wife." It must give Washington people the sensation of skating over thin ice, and it is all so sadly true, like a photograph.

In a recent number of *The Youth's Companion* there appeared an article written by the Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, notable for other reasons than for its authorship. It was a reminiscence of the friend of his youth, but better known to the world at large as the friend of Tennyson, Arthur Henry Hallam. Nothing can be more beautiful than the way in which the great man, looking back in the fulness of his age, repeats his early judgment that this was the greatest man he has ever known. Not all the fair, brave and great, live to evident fruition, there are those, even superior to the remainder, who pass away and leave a cloud of memory behind.

The standard of the *Youth's Companion* is evenly maintained and more than commonly high.

“Black and White Rights in Africa,” by H. R. Fox Bourne, is one of the notable articles in *Littell's Living Age* for January 29th.

“Notes on Open Letters,” in the *Sunday School Times* for January 22nd, contains a mention of the mysterious and vague but fascinating figure Melchizadek. The constant service which is rendered to the students of the Bible by this publication it would be hard to overestimate. The number of Sunday School teachers who regularly look to it for the greater part of their information is continually increasing.

“A Brief History of our Late War with Spain” is concluded in the February *Cosmopolitan*. This has been one of the odd and visionary experiments in futurity which is characteristic of the magazine. But its place has been taken by an excellent continued story of adventure, with admirable characterizations. Col. Geo. E. Waring, in the series “Great Business Operations,” tells of the management of the waste of a city. One of the greatest opportunities of the present generation in city government, it is also the least regarded.

“Across the Sub-Arctics of Canada,” by J. W. Tyrrell. Toronto, William Briggs. The imagination of the general public in Canada is becoming more and more affected by the vast unexplored region in our country that lies to the north. We are interested to hear what has been seen there, we want to learn what adventures, trials

and experiences may be met with there; and this being the case we are fortunate in possessing a Nansen of our own in the person of Mr. Tyrrell, who has been gifted with the spirit of an adventurer and with the talent of a recorder. The book is interesting from many points of view, not the least from that of a botanist, who will find an appendix giving systematically the plants collected on the expedition.

“American Literature,” by Katharine Lee Bates. The Macmillan Co., New York. The first chapter of this interesting book is devoted to the Colonial period of American literature, the second to the Revolutionary, after which the author in four chapters speaks of the National era, when the individual spirit of the States became more manifest. The question of indebtedness is a weary one and may as well be dropped, for the nations of the world do not promise to become more various as they grow older, literature is but a reflection of life. In explaining the position of American (of the United States) literature the author wisely confines herself to few rather than to many names and treats of broad distinctions.

We have also received: “Books: A Guide to Good Reading,” by John Millar (William Briggs, Toronto); “The Children's Fourth Reader,” (Ginn and Company, Boston); and “Helbig's Komodie auf der Hochschule,” edited by B. W. Wells (D.C. Heath, Boston).

“The Study of Children,” by Francis Warner, M.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. The systematic and scientific study of children is becoming every day a more necessary

part of a teacher's life and training. The subject here receives a thoroughly competent treatment at the hands of an English scientist, and the book is one that should be read thoughtfully and with due reverence by those who are sufficiently advanced to profit by it. That number should of course include all teachers.

“Lessons with Plants,” by L. H. Bailey. The Macmillan Co., New York. In this botanical text-book the attention of the pupil is secured by the fact that it is written for him. It is not so much an instrument of formal instruction as the companion that a book becomes commonly¹ only in later life. There are, it is true, a few lessons outlined, but they are given for the purpose of suggestion. It is an admirable book to use for studying alone.

“The Merchant of Venice,” edited by A. W. Verity; “Earle's Microcosmography,” edited by A. S. West; “A Selection of Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare,” edited by J. H. Flather; and MacAulay's “Essays on William

Pitt,” at the University Press, Cambridge. These standard editions are too well known and too satisfactory to need any praise. They are presented in the usual manner of these University publishers and will be found perfectly adapted to the use of secondary schools.

“Minna Von Barnhelm,” edited by H. J. Woldtenholm; “Eight Stories (in German) from Andersen,” edited by Walter Rippman; “La Fortune de D'Artagan,” edited by Arthur R. Ropes; “The Fairy Tales of Master Perrault,” edited by Walter Rippman; and “Remi et Ses Amis,” a selection from Malot's *Sans Famille*, edited by Margaret de G. Verrall. Teachers of French and German will be glad to avail themselves of these very excellent selections.

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