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THURSDAY, MARCH 5, 1885.

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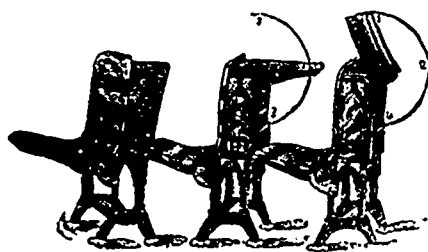
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The Educational Weekly.

TORONTO, MARCH 5, 1885.

IN the columns devoted to the Public School will be found an article on composition, by the editor of the *Indianapolis Educational Weekly*; and amongst our Notes and Comments are some remarks recently made on this subject by Mr. Tilley.

We think it would be difficult to lay too much stress upon the importance of teaching composition—more especially in this country. We have but to consider the loose modes of expression prevailing in ordinary conversation, the slipshod composition of the majority of letters, the inelegant phraseology of the bulk of our newspaper writers, to persuade ourselves that in Canada, and, indeed, in America, there is a great and indisputable lack of that regard for lucidity and ease of expression which are rightly considered to be the outcome of true culture. Indeed we may go further, and say that, even amongst many supposedly educated people, there is a widely prevalent ignorance of grammatical rules, resulting in an absolute impossibility of correct composition involving any comparatively complex constructions.

This being so, it is very necessary that attention should be paid to remedies for this so deplorable a want.

It is not a question of utility in the material sense. To belittle the value of acquiring grace in expressing our thoughts argues an inability to recognize the influence which such accomplishment undoubtedly possesses. It is hardly necessary here to enforce the truth of this assertion.

IN Mr. Olcott's and Mr. Tilley's remarks, many highly valuable suggestions are thrown out which, without doubt, our readers will find of benefit.

Mr. Tilley has mentioned the use of employing letter-writing as a help in teaching composition. We think the suggestion a good one. Composition, as such, is distinct from orthography, as such. To intelligibly articulate sentences is very different from correctly articulating words. The former is composition proper; the latter lies within the sphere of grammar. This distinction is not always sufficiently insisted upon. Indeed, so slightly is it recognized, that the pupil's attention is very often called away and expended upon inaccuracies of grammar, when it ought properly to be directed to inaccuracies of composition. We think that letter-writing would do much to obviate this. And in this way:—

The great difficulty children experience in

writing a composition upon a given theme is in finding "something to say." Now we consider that the first rule of composition should be—if you have nothing to say, do not say it—to use a hackneyed phrase. The efforts made to find this "something to say" are so great, that they usually exhaust all the power at disposal, and when the child begins to carefully consider how to say it, the energy is lost.

LETTER-WRITING will, we think, to a great extent eliminate this difficulty. The word "composition" carries about it an air of dignity that is often—especially to the nervous and timid, and to those who lack confidence in themselves—prejudicial to the free flow of thought—to the finding of something to say. It not seldom produces a mild form of fear, which is a great waster of energy. It is apt to paralyze the powers, to put a drag upon the mind. A letter contains none of these obstacles. It is supposed to be the expression of thoughts which the child has already had; it deals with subjects with which he is familiar; it is a style of composition to which he is no stranger; and, as a consequence of this, contains within itself a sort of standard of merit by which the writer may compare his various efforts.

The drawbacks to teaching composition by means of letter-writing may be that this will induce a colloquial or familiar style. But it would be by no means difficult to counteract this. It would be easy to impress upon the learner that no flippancy would be tolerated. A typical letter might be placed before him—English literature is rich in specimens of beautiful letters; and he could soon be taught to learn that he was expected to tell the master on paper, in the best possible style he could command, about such events as were of sufficient dignity to be worth relating.

WE think our assertion that to make children write on subjects familiar to them rather than on unknown themes, can be supported by strong and varied proofs. For, apart from the superficial points upon which we have touched above, is there not a deep and hidden significance in this caution? It could scarcely be said that it is going beyond the limits of the present question to say that we should use, with respect to teaching children composition, the same advice that Horace gives to poets:

Si vis me flere, dolendum est
Primum ipsi tibi:

"If you wish to make me weep, you yourself must have first suffered."

All great writers—writers famed for their composition, agree in this. Thus Plato: "He who, without the madness of the Muses, approaches the gates of poesy under the persuasion that by means of art he can become an efficient poet, both himself fails in his purpose, and his poetry, being that of a sane man, is thrown into the shade by the poetry of such as are mad."

So Matthew Arnold:

What poets feel not, when they make,
A pleasure in creating,
The world, in its turn, will not take
Pleasure in contemplating.

So Shelley:

They learn in suffering what they teach in song.

So D. G. Rossetti:

By thine own tears thy song must tears beget.

TO come down from this high stand and make applicable to our present subject the sayings of these great men, we may say that what we should consider in giving subjects for composition is that such subjects should be those upon which the pupil has already "something to say," about which he has had practical experience, and in which he is interested. One can never find all these factors existing in the case of every member of a whole class to which one single theme is given. This is another argument on behalf of letter-writing as, at all events, a powerful adjunct to the teaching of composition. Another—and not an insignificant one—is that by this means we are enabled to a certain degree to retain and develop individuality. Few exercises are able to give to the pupil unrestrained freedom in the expression of his thoughts. And not only so, but this system of letter-writing will give the master an admirable opportunity to study the various bents which the minds he is training possess. This is no unimportant consideration. Still another argument is that most children take a keen delight in being allowed to bring before their teacher something in which they are interested, and in which they hope to interest him. This too can be used to great advantage.

WE merely throw out these few thoughts as suggestions. The study of composition is a serious one. It involves the long and careful perusal of many authors. It necessitates an accuracy in the knowledge of the precise meanings of words which is not to be gained but by deep reading and incessant study. It means the training of the mind to recognize rhythm, point, lucidity, terseness, and all the other requisites for what is known as "style." To treat it exhaustively would be the labor of a life-time.

Contemporary Thought.

THE cause of technical education is making great progress in Massachusetts. The schools devoted thereto appear to be in great favor with the public, and to have passed quite beyond the experimental stage.—*The Current*.

REGULATED gymnastic exercise is only one means of physical culture; modes of dress, out-of-door exercise, bathing, sleeping, the plays of young children, all are of equal importance.—*Popular Science Monthly*.

PROF. KENNEDY discusses the question of Americans studying in Germany, pointing out the reasons for and against this course. He regrets that American colleges are so much below the German standard, but asserts that the best American high schools and academies are equal to the best German schools of the same class. He tells us that American students in Germany average twenty-five years of age, are admitted to the universities on diplomas, and stand next to those of Germany, herself, in number.

NOTHING can be conceived of as more contemptible than the code of honor adopted by many students at academies and colleges, compelling them to keep *num* on any matter affecting the doings or character of their fellow students. A man may have done physical violence to another, injured his property, or misrepresented his conduct greatly to his harm, and yet this *code* forbids "giving away" the offender. We would be far from encouraging tattling, or busy interference with the affairs of others, but the least we can say in regard to those who keep such secrets, is that they become guilty as accomplices in the wrong done, and stand in the way of the execution of justice.—*Academy News*.

WE believe that authors have cause for complaint against the United States. While we boast of our just laws and of our thorough care for a multitude of interests, we have neglected and swindled European writers. Our theory of economy: "Get all you can and keep all you get," and our assumption that to profit by trade we must cheat those with whom we deal, have made us regard all trans-Atlantic literary work as legitimate prey. We cry out for "protection" against cheap clothing, cheap food, cheap tools, and cheap labor, but we are not afraid of cheap literature, even if it be stolen.—*Academy News*.

THERE is now a demand for teachers of education, that is not likely to grow less, in a number of our best colleges, the presidents of which have taken up the lantern of Diogenes in earnest, and it is to be hoped, not in vain. The work of public school superintendence has lately become more professional in many parts of the country, and is also increasingly lucrative. . . . In view of these facts and many more, the writer is of the opinion that there is now no line of intellectual work to which a young baccalaureate can devote himself with greater certainty that industry and ability will find their reward in usefulness, reputation and position than to the professional study of the theory and history and institutions of education.—*G. Stanley Hall, in N. A. Review*.

IT is asked in England with as much seriousness as satire, whether it would not be well to add English to the list of languages taught in the schools, and especial point is given to the query by the statement of the Archbishop of York that he never, when a boy, read an English grammar, nor, indeed, in the whole course of his education, saw such a book. Yet, beginning before he entered his teens, His Grace doubtless spent much of his time for years in the study of Latin, Greek and Hebrew. The same fault exists in American educational systems. Scholars are drilled with untiring tiresomeness in classic tongues and foreign modern languages, and largely left to acquire a correct use of their vernacular by some sort of happy-go-lucky intuition. The disastrous results of this system are glaringly obvious to everyone who has eyes to read, or ears to hear, and mind to understand. Societies for the preservation of the mother tongue may do good, but every school and college should take up the work. To know the classics is well, and opinion nowadays inclines to hold that to be a master of modern tongues is better; but to use one's native language with correctness, directness and grace is decidedly the best of all.—*New York Tribune*.

THE lovers of history, in the modern literary sense of the term, will be delighted to learn that a fresh crop of material is nearly ready for harvesting. The Diplomatic Archives Commission of France has already in the press the first volume of a series of despatches from French ambassadors in London, beginning at the year 1538 and extending to modern times. The volume which is about to be issued includes the despatches of Castillon and Marillac from 1538 to 1543. This is excellent news for the reading public. No class of documentary evidence which modern industry has turned to account is so delightfully fresh and entertaining. When sovereigns were well served by their ambassadors they were provided every few days with the choicest dish of fact and scandal written by privileged hands, and intended only for privileged eyes. We are not obliged to take every bit of Court gossip for gospel truth, but it is certain that, from a comparison of letters by ambassadors writing in opposite interests, we can gain a far more lively picture of great personages and important events than from the statuesque portraits of contemporary writers or the pompous phraseology of official documents. Readers of Mr. Froude know what great things he has done for the Tudor period in the way of lively personal portraiture and interesting detail by the free use of the Spanish Ambassador's letters to his royal master. Now that we are to have the French Ambassador's letters for the same interesting period, we may reckon upon gaining an even clearer insight into the intrigues and machinations of an age so fruitful in results to the English nation.

JUST as the scheme for university confederation in Ontario is going into successful operation, President Gilman, of the Johns Hopkins University, publishes in the *North American Review* a paper on titles, especially academic degrees, in which he suggests such a confederation, or perhaps such confederations, by the stronger American colleges. The advantages which it is thought would result from such confederation are essentially the same in

America as in Canada—the better facilities in the way of laboratories, museums, and advanced instruction, which could thus be placed within the student's reach, and the enhanced value of his degree in representing these greater advantages and the more rigorous examinations that could then be instituted. It is probable that the intensity of the sectarian feeling in the smaller American colleges would defeat the carrying out of such a scheme in the United States, at least in the case of the older colleges. Mr. Gilman believes that in those States in which the State universities have become especially strong and promising—California, Michigan, Minnesota and Wisconsin—the legislatures might advantageously find a way of grouping the little colleges about the State university, and thus forming a central university body for advanced instruction and for examining students and conferring degrees, students pursuing their purely collegiate work as before at the separate colleges and coming up to the university for examination, and for post-graduate work. While such a plan appears desirable on many accounts, we fear it could hardly be put into successful operation on account of the opposition likely to flow from the little colleges, which already possess charters, many of them with full university powers, and which would be loath to yield up the mere form of strength, even if it were plain that in so doing they would be reaping a substantial gain; and the legislatures of the newer States, where such a plan might be provided for by a prudent foresight, show little disposition to limit the number or imaginary powers of ambitious but sickly denominational schools.—*Index*.

FRANKLIN HAVEN NORTH in the *Popular Science Monthly* for March, in speaking of the Workingman's School, instituted some seven years ago in New York by Felix Adler and a number of business men, writes as follows on the system adopted:—

The theory of instruction is based upon natural inclination. A child visiting the circus, menagerie, museum, or theatre, is all eyes, all ears. Question it upon its return home, and you will, doubtless, be surprised at the amount and variety of its information. It has seen and heard that which you have failed to see and hear.

It is this faculty of the child of absorbing itself in what pleases or interests it that has been seized upon by the managers. In the public school, the young, restless with the impatience of childhood, are forced to remain quiet while attempts are made to describe to them a something which they have never seen, and, not being based upon anything in which their interests have previously been excited, leaves, at best, but little impression on their minds. When it has begun to dawn upon them that Columbus was a man and not a fish, and that he came hither in a sailing-vessel and not in a steamship; when they are a-hunger and a-thirst for information as to his reasons for believing there was a New World in the West, the bell rings and they are ushered into the awful presence of an arithmetician, who knows all about the denomination of numbers, circulating decimals, and the like, and who, having memorized all the rules, thinks everybody else should be compelled to do the same. This system of opposing the natural inclinations of the young is, perhaps, best expressed in the retort

of the lad to his mother when she told him to go to bed early in the evening: "You make me go to bed when I'm not sleepy, and get up when I am!"

An inclination of the visitor to the Workingman's School, as he looks over the heads of the children at work, is to compare their lot to his own when a boy. Unless he was unusually gifted, he will recall the tedious hours he spent while trying to memorize the rules in his grammar—rules which he didn't always understand—the struggle with the co-efficients of the n th power of binomials, and so on. He will remember with what reluctance he sometimes entered the school-gates and with what satisfaction he often closed them behind him. Holidays were marked with a red letter in his diary, and vacations not infrequently looked upon as the condemned are wont to look upon temporary respites. But now, as he looks about him, he sees children absolutely interested in their studies and their work. And such work!—molding with moist clay, cutting, sawing, and planing with real tools, fashioning artistic designs, and so on.

EVERY child born in this great Republic is born with the inherent right to be educated. He is born heir to that popular sovereignty which, upon coming of age, he is entitled to exercise. The coming responsibilities rest upon him from his very cradle up. He has an absolute right to such an education as will enable him to properly meet them. His parents who brought him into the world weighted with such responsibility, did it with the implied obligation on their part to give him that education without which his birth would be either a mockery or a crime. As with the parents, so with the state-local, and so with the state-national. If the parents fail in meeting this obligation it becomes a binding obligation upon the state-local, and if the state-local fails the obligation devolves upon the nation. . . . Education increases our wants and demands; increase in demand brings increase in supply; and this of necessity increases the demand for labor. . . . Economy on the part of the nation as well as the individual is a correct principle, and holds good in all states and conditions of life, but we must not forget that it is a relative term. For the individual who can neither read nor write to expend money for books and writing materials is a useless expenditure; but would you count that an extravagance on the part of him who can do both, so long as he keeps within his wants and means? What constitutes the difference in the application of the principle to the two cases? *Education.*

The pioneer farmer may have spent a life of patient toil on his farm, satisfied to live in his log cabin, with possibly a single room, a puncheon floor, and a clapboard door, unable to read or write—an upright, honest man, and probably as nearly contented as it falls to the lot of mortals to be. But mark the change! His sons and daughters are growing up toward manhood and womanhood; the free school has invaded his neighborhood; and they attend it. How soon it affects the household arrangements, manners, dress, and everything about the family! What has wrought the change? Education. Their wants, and what are now their necessities, are greatly increased.—*General John O. Logan in the Chautauquan for March.*

Notes and Comments.

MR. HENRY. N. HUDSON, in his *Studies in Wordsworth*, calls him "the most spiritual and the most spiritualizing of all the English poets," and indeed of all secular poets whatsoever.

MR. THOMAS HUMPHREY WARD has written a memoir, compiled from autobiographical notes of Dr. Humphrey Sandwith, which Messrs. Cassell & Company will publish in a few days. Dr. Sandwith's career was varied and remarkable, and this record of its principal events, taking us into so many strange countries, is exceptionally entertaining.

ON Monday evening Professor Hutton, of University College, delivered a lecture, on behalf of a charitable purpose, on Plutarch. He examined delightfully Plutarch as a historian, biographer and moralist; and the lecture contained numberless interesting quotations, allusions and anecdotes, culled from a large range of classical authors. By kind permission of Professor Hutton, we are enabled to promise the lecture in full in the columns of the EDUCATIONAL WEEKLY. The majority, perhaps, of our readers will be glad to hear that it is entirely free from technicalities and from any too profound or intricate classical lore.

SCRIBNER & WELFORD are about to publish *The Life and Labors of Hablot Knight Browne*, more widely known as "Phiz," the famous English illustrator. The author of the work is Mr. D. C. Thompson, who has made a prolonged study of the subject, and his book is illustrated by over one hundred pictures copied from the artist's famous designs. The genius with which "Phiz" so delighted all England for so many years, and which went down to posterity in the drawings illustrating the text of such authors as Charles Dickens, was of a kind which does not flourish in America. The volume is published in the most elaborate and elegant form, and is sold only to subscribers, the edition being limited.

THE *Pall Mall Gazette* offered at Christmas a prize of ten pounds for the best list of the greatest living English journalists, writers, novelists, and so on. Some 1,450 persons competed for the prize, "many of them," observes the *Spectator*, "of course being women, and an unusual number fools." The *Pall Mall Gazette* cannot be declared free from taints of sensationalism, and the remarks of the *Spectator*, if not intended as a hit directed at this tendency, should be taken as such. What in the world is the practical value (except perhaps as an advertisement to the *Pall Mall Gazette*), of knowing who is considered by 1,450 persons of whose taste and knowledge we know nothing, to be "the greatest living English journalist, writer, novelist, and so on?"

AT the Leeds Teachers' Convention, Mr. Tilley, in his remarks upon composition, recommended the following method of teaching composition:—

1. Begin with correction of common mistakes in English, and drill in the corrections of colloquial errors.
2. Oral descriptions of actions.
3. Oral descriptions of things.
4. Original sentences to illustrate meaning of new words in the reading lesson.
5. Recital of the story of the reading lesson by paragraph, or as a whole.
6. Letter writing of the simplest kind, giving special attention to opening and closing.
7. Drill repeatedly upon common errors; give great attention to form of answers, and have them given in sentences. Accurate language should be insisted upon.
8. Teach pupils to make out bills in proper form, and also draw promissory notes.

For fourth class pupils the following work was recommended: (1) Description of animals; (2) Transposition of poetry; (3) Abstracts of reading lessons; (4) Biographical and historical sketches. Compositions should be read in the class and written on the board, in order that the pupils may see as well as hear. The composition should be correct, free, varied. He favored the placing of faulty English before pupils for correction. Composition should draw out linguistic power. The best composition is that which cultivates thought.

THERE was given in Toronto, last week, an exhibition of sparring—to use euphemistic phrase. Two men, named respectively Mitchell and Scholes, undertook to show all who were willing to pay the entrance fee, which of them could hit the other harder and better. The hall was full. Persons of reputed taste and refinement were by no means conspicuous by their absence—quite the reverse. The daily papers gave, on the following morning, long and elaborate accounts of the match; and the only item of news to which one's attention was incessantly called by the news-boys was "the prize-fight." Such things cause one to think. Is the difference between a prize-fight and an ancient Roman gladiatorial show one of degree only? or must we say that civilization has so softened our tastes that these should not be compared? Yet to us it seems that between mauling a man and killing him there are but few steps. True exhibitions of strength and trials of skill are always pleasurable; but surely an essential element of the pleasure is that we shall not witness either, first, anger, or second, physical suffering. Is it possible to arrange a prize-fight which shall be devoid of both? If so, it differs in no respect from football or tennis or chess. But as they are now constituted we cannot but think that on the press lies greatly the responsibility of proclaiming their degrading influence.

Literature and Science.

THE LAST LEAF.

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

I SAW him once before,
As he passed by the door,
And again
The pavement stones resound,
As he totters o'er the ground
With his cane.

They say that in his prime,
Ere the pruning-knife of Time
Cut him down,
Not a better man was found
By the crier on his round
Through the town.

But now he walks the streets,
And he looks at all he meets
Sad and wan,
And he shakes his feeble head,
That it seems as if he said,
"They are gone."

The mossy marbles rest
On the lips that he has prest
In their bloom,
And the names he loved to hear
Have been carved for many a year
On the tomb.

My grandmamma has said—
Poor old lady, she is dead
Long ago, —
That he had a Roman nose,
And his cheek was like the rose
In the snow.

But now his nose is thin,
And it rests upon his chin
Like a staff,
And a crook is in his back,
And a melancholy crack
In his laugh.

I know it is a sin
For me to sit and grin
At him here ;
But the old three-cornered hat,
And the breeches, and all that,
Are so queer !
And if I should live to be
The last leaf upon the tree
In the spring, —
Let them smile as I do now,
At the old forsaken bough
Where I cling.

THE STAR AND THE WATER- LILY.

BY THE SAME.

THE sun stepped down from his golden throne,
And lay in the silent sea,
And the Lily had folded her satin leaves,
For a sleepy thing was she :
What is the Lily dreaming of ?
Why crisp the waters blue ?
See, see, she is lifting her varnished lid !
Her white leaves are glistening through !

The Rose is cooling his burning cheek
In the lap of the breathless tide :—
The Lily hath sisters fresh and fair,
That would lie by the Rose's side :
He would love her better than all the rest,
And he would be fond and true :—
But the Lily unfolded her weary lids,
And looked at the sky so blue.

Remember, remember, thou silly one,
How fast will thy summer glide,
And wilt thou wither a virgin pale,
Or flourish a blooming bride ?
"O the Rose is old, and thorny, and cold,
And he lives on earth," said she ;
"But the Star is fair and he lives in the air,
And he shall my bridegroom be."

But what if the stormy cloud should come,
And ruffle the silver sea ?
Would he turn his eye from the distant sky,
To smile on a thing like thee ?
O no, fair Lily, he will not send
One ray from his far-off throne ;
The winds shall blow and the waves shall flow,
And thou wilt be left alone.

There is not a leaf on the mountain-top,
Nor a drop of evening dew,
Nor a golden sand on the sparkling shore,
Nor a pearl in the waters blue,
That he has not cheered with his fickle smile,
And warmed with his faithless beam, —
And will he be true to a pallid flower,
That floats on the quiet stream ?

Alas for the Lily ! she would not heed,
But turned to the skies afar,
And bared her breast to the trembling ray
That shot from the rising star :
The cloud came over the darkened sky,
And over the waters wide :
She looked in vain through the beating rain,
And sank in the stormy tide.

THE CHAMBERED NAUTILUS.

BY THE SAME.

THIS is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main, —
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purple wings
In gulfs enchanted, where the siren sings,
And coral reefs lie bare,
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their stream-
ing hair.

Its webs of living gauze no more unfurl ;
Wrecked is the ship of pearl !
And every chambered cell,
Where its dim dreaming life was wont to dwell,
As the frail tenant shaped his growing shell,
Before thee lies revealed, —
Its irised ceiling rent, sunless crypt unsealed !

Year after year beheld the silent toil
That spread his lustrous coil ;
Still as the spiral grew,
He left the past year's dwelling for the new,
Stole with soft step its shining archway through,
BUILT up its idle door,
STRETCHED in his last-found home, and knew the
old no more.

Thanks for the heavenly message brought by thee,
Child of the wandering sea,
Cast from her lap, forlorn !
From thy dead lips a clearer note is borne
Than ever Triton blew from wreathed horn !
While on mine ear it rings,
Through the deep caves of thought I hear a voice
that sings :

Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul ;
As the swift seasons roll !
Leave thy low-vaulted past !
Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till thou at length art free,
Leaving thine out-grown shell by life's unresting
sea !

AUTHORS AT HOME.

[THIS series of articles on "Authors at Home" is reprinted in the WEEKLY by kind permission from Messrs. J. L. and J. B. Gilder, editors of the *Critic*.]

DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES IN BEACON STREET.

Alice Wellington Rollins.

"It is strange," remarks Lady Wilde, "how often a great genius has given a soul to a locality." We may prefer our own illustration to hers, and remember in simpler fashion what Judd's "Margaret" did for a little village in Maine, or what Howe has lately done for a little Western town, instead of insisting that Walter Scott created Scotland, or Byron the Rhine. But the remark suggests, perhaps, quite as forcibly, what locality has done for genius. The majority of writers who have tried to deal with people, whether as novelists, poets, or essayists, localize their human beings until "local color" becomes one of the most essential factors of their success. Sometimes, like Judd and Howe, they make the most of a very narrow environment ; sometimes, like Cable, they make their environment include a whole race, till the work becomes historical as well as photographic ; sometimes, like Mrs. Jackson, they travel for a new environment ; sometimes, like Mrs. Howells and James, they travel from environment to environment, and write now of Venice, now of London, now of Boston, with skill equal to the ever-varying opportunity ; sometimes, like George Eliot writing "Romola," or Harriet Prescott Spofford writing "In a Cellar," they stay at home and give wonderful pictures of a life and time they have never known, compelled, at least, however, to seek the environment of a library. Even Shakespeare, who was certainly not a slave to his surroundings, sought local color from books to a extent that we realize on seeing Irving's elaborate efforts to reproduce it. Even Hawthorne, escaping from the material world whenever he could into the realm of spirit and imagination, made profound studies of Salem or Italy the basis from which he flew to the empyrean. To understand perfectly how fine such work as this is, one must have one's self, either from experience or study, some knowledge of the localities so admirably reproduced.

The genius of Oliver Wendell Holmes is almost unique in the fact that, dealing almost exclusively with human beings—*not* merely human nature exhibited in maxims—rarely wandering into discussions of books

or art or landscape—it is almost entirely independent of any environment whatever. He has been anchored to one locality almost as securely as Judd was to New England, or Howe to the West; for a chronological record of the events of his life makes no mention of any journeys, except the two years and a half as medical student in Europe, fifty years ago. He spends every winter in Boston, every summer at the Beverly Farms, which, like Nahant, may almost be called "cold roast Boston;" yet during the fifty years he has been writing from Boston, he has neither sought his material from his special environment, nor tried to escape from it. It is human nature, not Boston nature, that he has drawn for us. Once, in "Elsie Venner," there is an escape like Hawthorne's into the realm of the psychological and weird; several times in the novels there are photographic bits of a New England "party," or of New England character; but the great merits of the work which has appealed to so wide a class of readers with such permanent power appeals to them because, dealing with men and women, it deals with no particular men or women. Indeed, it is hardly even men, women and children that troop through his pages; but rather man, woman and child. His human beings are no more Bostonians than the ducks of his "Aviary" are Charles River ducks. They are ducks. He happened to see them on Charles River; nay, within the still narrower limits of his own window-pane; still, they are ducks, and not merely Boston ducks. The universality of his genius is wonderful, not because he exhibits it in writing now a clever novel about Rome, now a powerful sketch of Montana, and anon a remarkable book about Japan; but it is wonderful because it discovers within the limits of Boston only what is universal. To understand perfectly how fine such work as this is, you need never have been anywhere yourself, or have read any other book; any more than you would have to be one of the "Boys of '29" to appreciate the charming class-poems that have been delighting the world, as well as the "Boys," for fifty years. In "Little Boston" he has, it is true, impaled some of the characteristics which are generally known as Bostonian; but his very success in doing this is of a kind to imply that he had studied his Bostonian only in Paris or St. Louis; for the peculiar traits described are those no Bostonian is supposed to be able to see for himself, still less to acknowledge. If Dr. Holmes were to spend a winter in New York, he would carry back with him, not material for a "keen satire on New York society," but only more material of what is human. Nay, he would not probably carry back with him anything at all which he had not already found in Boston, since he seems to have found everything there.

So there is no need of knowing how or where Dr. Holmes lives, or what books he has read, to understand and enjoy his work. But all the same, one likes to know where he lives, from a warm, affectionate, personal interest in the man; just as we like to know of our dearest friends, not only that they dwell in a certain town, but that their parlor is furnished in red, and that the piano stands opposite the sofa. Of his earliest home, at Cambridge, he has himself told us in words which we certainly will not try to improve upon. Later came the home of his early married life in Montgomery Place, of which he has said: "When he entered that door, two shadows glided over the threshold; five

lingered in the doorway when he passed through it for the last time, and one of the shadows was claimed by its owner to be longer than his own." A few brief, half-mystical allusions such as this are all that we gain from his writings about his personal surroundings, as a few simple allusions to certain streets and buildings are all that localize the "Autocrat" as a Bostonian. For the man who has almost exceptionally looked into his own heart to write has found in his heart, as he has in his city, never what was personal or special, always what was human and universal. But it will be no betrayal of trust for us to follow out the dim outline a little, and tell how the five shadows flitted together from Montgomery Place to Charles Street. Then, after another dozen years, still another change seemed desirable. Dr. Holmes feels, as few men do the charm of association, and the sacredness of what is endeared by age; but the very roundness of his nature which makes him appreciate not only what is human, but everything that is human, makes him keenly alive to the charm of what is new if it is beautiful. A rounded nature finds it hard to be consistent. He wrote once: "It is a great happiness to have been born in an old house haunted by recollections," and he has asserted more than once the dignity of having, not only ancestors, but ancestral homes; yet if we were to remind him of this in his beautiful new house with all the latest luxuries and improvements, we can imagine the kindly smile with which he would gaze round the great, beautiful room, with its solid woods and plate-glass windows, and say gently: "I know I ought to like the other, and I do, but how can I help liking this, too? Yes, the charming new architecture and the lovely new houses were too much for them; they would flit a gain,—though with a sigh. Not out of New England,—no, indeed! not away from Boston—certainly not. Hardly, indeed, out of Charles Street: for although a "very plain brown stone front would do," provided its back windows looked upon the river, the river they must have.

Dr. Holmes wanted, not big front windows from which to study the Bostonians, but a big bay-window at the back, from which he could see the ducks and gulls and think how like to human nature are all their little lives and loves and sorrows. So little is there in his work of what is personal, that it is possible there are people—in England—who really think the "Autocrat" dwells in the boarding-house of his books. But those who believe with him that as a rule genius means ancestors are not surprised to know that Dr. Holmes himself has many more than the average allowance of ancestors, and that, as a descendant of Dudley, Bradstreet, the Olivers, Quinceys and Jacksons, his "hut of stone" fronts on one of Boston's most aristocratic streets, though the dear river behind it flows almost close to its little garden gate. Under his windows all the morning troop the loveliest children of the city in the daintiest apparel, wheeled in the costliest of perambulators by Frenchiest and most white-capped of nurses. Past his door every afternoon the "swellest" turn-outs of the great city pass on their afternoon parade. Near his steps, at the hour for afternoon tea, the handsomest coupes come to anchor and deposit their graceful freight. But this is not the panorama that the doctor himself is watching. Whether in the beautiful great dining-room, where he is first to acknowledge the sway at breakfast, luncheon and dinner,

of a still gentler Autocrat than himself, or in the library up-stairs which is the heart of the home, he is always on the river side of the house. The pretty little reception-room down-stairs on the Beacon Street side, he will tell you himself, with a merry smile, is a good place for your "things;" you yourself must come directly up into the library, and look out on the river, broad enough just here to seem a beautiful lake. I know of no other room in the heart of the great city where one so completely forgets the nearness of the world as in that library. Even if the heavy doors stand open into the hall, one forgets the front of the house and thinks only of the beautiful expanse of water that seems to shut off all approach save from the gulls. News from the humming city must come to you, it would seem, only in sound of marriage or funeral bells in the steeples of the many towns, distinct but distant, looming across the water. And this, not because the talk by that cheerful fire is of the "Over-Soul," or the "Infinite," so unwordly, so introspective, so wholly of things foreign or intellectual. Nothing could be more human than the chat that goes on there, or the laugh that rings out so cheerily at such frequent intervals. Even now, with the shadow of a deep personal grief over the hearth-stone, a noble cheerfulness that will not let others feel the shadow keeps the room bright though the heart be heavy. Are there pictures? There is certainly one picture; for though a fine Copley hangs on one wall, and one of the beautiful framed embroideries (for which Dr. Holmes's daughter-in-law is famous) on another, who will not first be conscious that in a certain corner hangs the original portrait of Dorothy Q.? Exactly as it is described in the poem, who can look at it without breathing gratefully:

O Damsel Dorothy, Dorothy Q.,
Great is the gift we owe to you.

and thinking with a shudder that if

A hundred years ago,
Those close-shut lips had answered No,

there would have been no Dr. Holmes! Somebody there might have been: but though he had been only "one-tenth another to nine-tenths" him, assuredly the loss of even a tenth would have been a bitter loss.—*From the Critic.*

THE *de luxe* edition of *Romeo and Juliet*, with illustrations by Frank Dicksee, which Cassell & Co. published last autumn, has already become scarce in England, and the publishers have advanced the price from £3 10s to £5 5s.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in preparation among their new books: *The Life of Society*, a general view, by E. Woodward Brown; *Bible Characters*, a series of sermons by the late Alexander D. Mercer; *How Should I Pronounce*, by W. H. P. Phylfe; *Fragments From an old Inn*, sketches and verses, by Lillian Rozell Messenger; *The Spanish Treaty Opposed to Reform*, a report of the Free Trade Club; a one-volume popular edition of Williams's *History of the Negro Race*; *The Lenape Stone*; or, *The Indian and the Mammoth*, a monograph on a stone bearing Indian designs, recently discovered in Pennsylvania, by H. C. Mercer; *Queen Bess*, a story for girls, by Marian Shaw; and a romance of Hawaii, by C. M. Newell, which is entitled *Kamehameha the Great of Hawaii*.

Educational Opinion.

SPELLING REFORM.

Paper read at the Teachers' Institute, County of Peterborough, February 6th, 1885.
(Continued from last issue.)

THE history of shorthand writing is extremely interesting. There is space for but a very brief sketch of the origin and development of "the winged art." Along with a great many other things, upon the exclusive possession of which we moderns plume ourselves, the Greeks and Romans possessed the art of stenography. Roman (and, I believe, Greek) shorthand, was, however, rather abbreviated forms of longhand than true phonetic writing, or writing by sound. Still they fulfilled many useful purposes; and Cicero himself acknowledges his indebtedness to the shorthand of the period.

No doubt, did we possess information upon this point, we should find that the Chinese practised stenography, hundreds, possibly thousands of years ago; just as so many of the other great triumphs of these latter days may be traced back in a rude form, to the dwellers in "The Flowery Kingdom."

The history of shorthand in England, may be said to embrace three distinct periods, which may be termed: (1) the era of religious struggles; (2) the era of political struggles and independence; and (3) the era of the diffusion of knowledge amongst the masses.

The first period dates from the year 1588, when appeared "Bright's System of Shorthand," in which merely arbitrary characters for words were employed; or perhaps it would be more nearly correct to say from the appearance of the first regular shorthand alphabet by John Wilkes, in 1602. This period terminated in 1682, with the adoption of Mason's system.

No further progress in Stenography seems to have been made until the latter part of the last century, when the second era referred to may be said to have opened. Britain was at that time in a state of great political excitement. In 1780 *The Daily Chronicle*, of London, organized a corps of stenographers for the purpose of reporting the parliamentary debates, which were most eagerly read in all parts of the kingdom. It must be borne in mind that, previously to this, parliamentary speeches had not been "reported," as we understand the expression, but had been manufactured by the newspapers almost out of whole cloth, and ascribed to the various speakers. Dr. Johnson (whilst a newspaper reporter) used to say that he always took very good care in his reports not to give the Whigs the best of the argument. During this second era many new systems appeared, prominent among them being those of Mavor and Taylor.

The last period in the history of phon-

etic writing opened in or about the year 1830, and has continued from that time until the present day. This fifty years of British history has been pre-eminent for the rapid diffusion of knowledge amongst the middle and lower classes; a diffusion attributable, to a very large extent, to the utilization of steam and electricity, and the establishment of a system of general education. Among the names of those who, during this period, have contributed to the success of phonography stand forth in prominence, Benjamin and Isaac Pitman.

Since 1830 the development of phonography has been rapid and steady; all doubts as to its utility, all questions even as to its necessity are now forever silenced.

As the name indicates, phonography is "writing according to sound," i. e., it is a system of writing (or printing) in which each distinct sound employed in speaking has a separate symbol for its representation. These signs or symbols are formed primarily of straight lines, curved lines, dots and dashes; the dots and dashes being the vowel signs, the straight and curved lines being the consonantal signs. By various combinations of these, by changing the position of the vowel marks, and by distinguishing between heavy lines, dots and dashes, and light ones, ample materials for the spelling phonetically of all English words are obtained.

From the nature of the case, there can be no difficulty in spelling by phonography; the only thing to do is to simply combine the self-explanatory signs into the required words. Should, however, great speed be desired, recourse is had to the reporting style, in which are employed grammalogues, i. e., word signs, as also consonantal outlines—the vowels being omitted.

It is impossible to estimate the good results that have followed the cultivation of phonography. We can only wonder—now that we read in the morning paper the speeches (verbatim) delivered in London, Washington or Ottawa, the evening before—we can only wonder how the world could have got on so long without "the art preservative."

It is very doubtful whether phonography, as it now exists, i. e., a system of spelling by means of an alphabet totally different from the ordinary English alphabet—will ever displace the present method of spelling. It may be doubted further whether the present style will ever be displaced by what is called "phonetic writing," as apart from pure phonography: such, e. g., as the scheme advocated by Dr. Hamilton, of Port Hope, a scheme in which the major part of the ordinary alphabet is employed, supplemented by characters for sounds now unprovided for.

But prognostication upon such a point is very fruitless. On the one hand, even an Emperor could not change the gender of a Latin noun. On the other hand, alterations and innovations just as sweeping as those under consideration have again and again been made.

For example, the introduction of the new style of time-reckoning; the introduction of the use of standard time a year or so ago; the change in the Dutch system of spelling, etc.

Still, the obstacles in the way of so complete a spelling revolution are by no means few in number. Some of these are easily overcome, others are almost insurmountable.

(1). It is argued that the introduction of phonetic writing would so disguise the derivation of words that all benefits accruing from the study of derivations would be lost. In reply to this, it may be said, acknowledging the utility or necessity of an acquaintanceship with derivations in order properly to comprehend the meaning of many poetical and rare words, yet the number of the students of derivations is so small compared with the number of people who use the English language, and who constantly feel the need of an easily acquired system of spelling and a more rapid mode of writing, that the scholastic consideration of the few ought to be waived in favor of the every-day convenience of the many. But those who desired to follow up the study of etymology would be no more debarred from doing so, than are English scholars now debarred from pursuing the study of Latin or Greek. Great authorities, like Professor Max Mueller, Dr. Latham and Chevalier Bunsen, assert, however, that the science of etymology would actually be benefited by the proposed change, and by a return to the fundamental principles of phonetics. Dr. Latham's words are: "All objections to changes in spelling on the ground of theoretical propriety, are as worthless as ever they could be thought to be."

Chevalier Bunsen goes still further and says: "The introduction of a phonetic alphabet is the generally felt desideratum of the age." Again: "The history of ethnology is inseparable from that of phonology;" and again: "Phonetic spelling is comparative philology combined with universal ethnology."

Max Mueller is very bold and says: "I feel convinced of the truth and reasonableness of the principles on which phonetic spelling rests, and as the innate regard to truth and reason, however dormant or timid at times, must, in the end, prove irresistible, enabling men to part with all they hold most dear and sacred, whether, Corn Laws or Stuart dynasties, or heathen idols, so I doubt not that the effete and corrupt orthography will follow in their train. Nations have before now changed their numerical figures, their letters, chronology, their weights and measures." "One argument," Professor Mueller continues, "which might be supposed to weigh with the student of language, namely, the obscuration of the etymological structure of words, I cannot consider very formidable. The pronunciation of languages changes according to fixed laws, the spelling is changed in the most

arbitrary manner; so that if our spelling followed the pronunciation of words, it would in reality be a greater help to the critical student of language than the present uncertain and unscientific mode of writing."

After such testimony, we may, I think, conclude that there is very little force in the objection based upon derivational grounds.

(2.) A second objection which seems equally devoid of weight, is that, after the introduction of the new system, old writings would become, as it were, "scaled books." The reply to this is that productions of a former age worth preserving would be reprinted according to the new method, while worthless old books would be forgotten: a consummation, in many cases, most devoutly to be desired, as very frequently.

"Authors, like cows, grow dear as they grow old.
It is the rust we value, not the gold."

Moreover, for a long while after the introduction of the phonetic system, every one would be able to read the ordinary (or, as it would then be called, "the old style,") as well as the new.

(3.) A third argument urged against the introduction of phonetic writing is, that as the object of the change would be to enable every one to spell as the words sounded in his ear, therefore there would be no fixed or correct standard of orthography. For example, a Scotchman would employ different signs from those employed by an American, as the pronunciation of the former is different from that of the latter. Without doubt, there is a certain force in this objection; but upon consideration, it will be found that among educated English-speaking men, the variations in pronunciation are comparatively slight, being confined to two or three sounds (e. g., *a* and *r*), and are generally too fine to be marked by spelling. Still, it is to be supposed that there would be a definite standard of spelling for words, the sounds of which are liable to variation in the mouths of speakers of diverse nationalities.

(4.) A further objection is that many words with the same sound, but different meanings, are distinguished now by their spelling: e. g., *gait* and *gate*, *would* and *wood*. Under a phonetic system, these distinctions would, of course, be lost. But, on the other hand, as at present written, many words have distinct meanings and pronunciations but the same spelling; e. g., *use* and *use*, *bow* and *bow*, *row* and *row*, *read* and *read*.

In these, and many other words, there is a confusion of meaning on account of a similarity in spelling. Spelt phonetically, this confusion would be removed. But even if there were any force in this objection the context is almost always sufficient to preclude any ambiguity in the meaning. Where there is no difficulty in distinguishing between words in spoken language, surely there ought to be no difficulty in written language.

These, then, are the objections usually

raised against phonetic spelling; and it will be confessed, I imagine, that they are not very formidable. There is, however, one other difficulty in the way of the introduction of the ordinary system of phonography, which must have suggested itself to all who have cultivated that art. This difficulty is the great liability to confusion, arising from the very form and construction of the signs employed.

It would seem that this obstacle is almost insurmountable; and that any system of phonetics which has for its object rapidity of movement, must be liable to this charge.

In fact, in the most rapid system of reporting—shorthand, one combination may stand for several words: the context alone determining which of these is to be taken.

The question may then very pertinently be asked: is it probable that any of the ordinary forms of phonography, in which the simplest characters, such as dots, dashes, curved and straight lines, are employed: is it likely that any such system will supersede our present cumbersome method of "visible speech"? The answer must be that such a probability is extremely remote. It may be laid down further, with a good deal of confidence, that the sweeping modifications, additions, and diminutions advocated by spelling reformers who oppose the introduction of an entirely new alphabet, will never be adopted. The difficulty in the way of changing the time-honored system is so great, the conservative principle is so strong in our hearts, that it has been found impossible to introduce into Britain the easily manipulated decimal system of money in place of the complex £. s. d. system, although such a change would save, it is calculated, one half the time and labor of accountants in the United Kingdom.

Unfortunately, also, children, who are the greatest sufferers from the present system of spelling, have no voice in the matter; and grown persons feel too often no very great interest in the correction of a system the difficulties of which they have overcome. Indeed, very frequently there is a selfish idea that, because they, in their younger days, were obliged to toil at the spelling lesson, therefore their children should be put through the same course.

If it is difficult, then, to change the £. s. d. system of Great Britain into the decimal system, how much more difficult to revolutionize our whole method of visible speech!

Slight changes are, however, slowly but surely going on, changes by which our spelling is becoming less complex: e. g., *or* for *our* in *honor*, *labor*, etc.; the dropping of the unnecessary double consonant in such words as *jeweller*, *traveller*, etc.; the use of *er* for *re* in such words as *theatre*; the omission of the final *k* in *music*, etc.

No one now regrets these changes, although each innovation was originally regarded as nothing short of sacrilege.

Certain American journals have gone further, and spell *programme* as *program*, *have* as *hav*, *dialogue* as *dialog*, etc. There is little doubt that gradually other inconsistencies will be removed, deficiencies supplied, and redundancies suppressed. Still it is to be feared, that for all time, our language will feel the incubus of its irrational and difficult system of orthography.

The study of shorthand will in the meantime become more and more general; and very possibly a few years will see it figuring as a regular subject in school work. The benefits derivable from its study are many and varied. Leaving out of consideration the training the memory receives from the exercise of learning and writing shorthand, the utility of the art is at once apparent from the fact that phonography may be written as rapidly as words are uttered, i. e., at least six or seven times as fast as ordinary longhand.

As an English Review puts it:—"Who that is much in the habit of writing, has not often wished for some means of expressing by two or three dashes of the pen, that which—as things are now—requires such an expenditure of time and labor to commit to paper? Our present mode of communication must be felt to be cumbersome in the last degree, unworthy of these days of invention. We require some means of bringing the operations of the mind and of the hand into closer correspondence."

Why, then, to resume, cannot all notes, memoranda and the hundred and one items that each of us requires to set down for future use, be written in stenography, those writings which demand great care and insurance against ambiguity being relegated to longhand? That many great men have derived important benefits from such a use of shorthand is proved by the acknowledgments of Dickens, Edmund Burke and some Superior Court judges now on the Canadian Bench.

One good result would at any rate ensue from the wider diffusion of a knowledge of this art, an improvement in the handwriting of the public, a thing very much to be desired. There is no doubt that, in point of legibility, the handwriting of the present is far behind that of the past. This deterioration has resulted very largely from the cultivation of a rapid hand for the purpose of taking down notes, memoranda, synopses, and so on, for which purposes phonography is pre-eminently fitted. In one sense, then, although not in the fullest sense, the aspirations of the pioneers of phonetic writing will be fulfilled, and "the winged art" will rank no longer with the occult mysteries of the editor's sanctum, but rather with the ordinary requirements of every-day life.

J. H. Long

TORONTO:

THURSDAY, MARCH 5, 1885.

RESPONSIBILITY.

We have spoken before of the increased responsibilities entailed upon the teaching profession by the change that has come over the estimation in which it is held and over the value which is attached to the labors of its members. It will be very material to our best and noblest purposes if we now take a wider view of this responsibility.

In a profession, the duties of which are so complex and so various, it is well nigh impossible to postulate what is or should be the chief spur to the proper fulfilment of these duties—what is the highest earthly incitement to a consistent and conscientious attempt to achieve the highest cognizable end in the education of youth. It is no unimportant question, but perhaps entails psychological and ethical considerations hardly germane to our present purpose.

Nevertheless we shall make no great mistake in asserting that one of the most fruitful elements in the attainment of success as a teacher is the recognition of the grave responsibilities which rest upon his shoulders. When we consider, on the one hand, the nature of his duties and the scope of his influence, and, on the other, the present character and future possibilities of those with whom he has to deal, it becomes at once a consideration of supreme moment that he who undertakes the post of an educator of youth should be deeply impressed with the serious nature of the responsibilities which he incurs. He is accountable to himself, to his fellow-teachers, to his pupils, to their parents, and to the community; and he who, at the outset of his career, fails to properly appreciate the trust which is placed in him, has failed to fulfil the first and perhaps the most vital of the functions of a teacher.

Responsibility is a relative term. It varies directly as the position and talents with which the person responsible is endowed, and with the accomplishments and influence he has acquired. It is greatest where these are greatest. The more we add to our knowledge and the further we extend the sphere of our influence, the stronger are the necessities for the right use of that knowledge and the right exercise of that influence.

Granting this, it is no difficult task to show that the stress which we have laid upon the responsibilities of the teacher is none too great.

On the one hand he has sought truth in order to communicate it to others: he has observed and studied the best methods of enlightening the mind; he has cultivated the faculties with which he is endowed in order the better to impart to those under his care the knowledge he has attained. He has thus voluntarily placed himself in an accountable position.

On the other hand those whom he has undertaken thus to direct and instruct are, of all the individuals of the community, the most important; they are most modifiable; most open to good or bad influences; most flexible; and upon them, we may safely say, rests the future history of the State.

These are truths, and truths which, properly meditated upon, are enough to convince the most unthinking of the seriousness of teaching. Next to the parent, the teacher is, in all mundane matters, gravely responsible for the mould in which the minds and characters of the whole youthful population of a country is cast. Are we not, then, right in asserting that he who at the outset of a teaching career, fails to properly appreciate the trust which is placed in him, has failed to fulfil the first, and perhaps the most vital, of the functions of a teacher?

LANGUAGE.

Our columns have lately contained many allusions, direct or otherwise, to the growth and formation of the English language. That language is probably undergoing, at the present moment, more rapid transformations than have been witnessed since the conquest.

The causes tending to these changes lie beneath our eyes: New races of English-speaking peoples have sprung up; the wonderful increase of books, magazines, and journals, and their astonishing cheapness, have introduced factors (powerful in influencing the development of language) unknown before; the spread, throughout all classes of the community, of literary and scientific terms; the unparalleled general diffusion of knowledge;—these, amongst others, are some of the sources of the progress we witness.

The growth of language is a vital process, not a mechanical one, an organic, not an inorganic one. We are accustomed to speak of speech as an instrument, a tool; as if it were fashioned by man exactly to suit his wants. But this it is not—not altogether. A language develops just as the eye or the ear develops. We can add to it, change it, excise parts of it, modify it, just as we can operate upon the eye or ear; but we cannot create it.

If we grant this, we must also grant that suddenly to introduce wholesale changes is out of the question. And yet there are not wanting those who would attempt it—who would hew down the whole tree of language, and from its branches try to form a new and supposedly better growth, losing sight of the fact that even a grafting requires time and care before it will bear fruit.

To determine what limit shall be put to pruning and grafting who shall say? and what can decide? The purist will so limit the natural growth, and so lop off all—to his eye—unsightly shoots, that the plant, even if it gains in vigor, takes on a highly artificial appearance. The rash innovator will think nothing of grafting on it the rarest exotic or the crudest weed—or even, and not seldom, a parasite.

This tree of language, to carry on the simile, is a sturdy plant, but its twigs are tender. Rough and hasty handling they cannot bear, and all desirable changes should be made only after the greatest possible caution. Its care and cultivation is a sacred trust which we hold for posterity. It contains within itself an unwritten history, the teachings of which are indisputable. Bopp, Sir William Jones, Grimm, Max Mueller have shown us a little of what may be learned from this source, and we must remember that this process of history-growth is still going on. Language can teach us lessons that no historian can teach us. To the philologist it is an open book for which he will take no substitute. To attempt, then, to tamper with it in any way that will hinder its normal growth is an offence for which posterity will blame us. As says De Quincey:

"If there is one thing in this world which, next after the flag of his country and its spotless honor, should be holy in the eyes of a young poet—it is the language of his country."

BOOK REVIEW.

The Boys and Girls' Atlas of the World, by James Monteith. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

AS with so many text-books issued now-a-days, so with this one; the whole value depends upon the teacher. The teacher who understands it and believes in it can make it extremely useful. No other can. There are numerous maps abounding in information, not too excessive to be indistinct. Among other things the localities of the production of the more common articles of commerce are indicated upon the maps. Sectional drawings are given showing heights above the sea-level. In addition there is a deal of what is usually matter of reference, but are put into easily understood tables, and intended to be worked up into statements by the pupil. Topography is taught, or rather learned, by map-drawing, and by written exercises about countries, cities, mountains, rivers, and so on, and by descriptions of imaginary travels.

There is but little direct information in the text, or categorical statement. The pupil is supposed to study the maps, charts, tables, etc., and from the knowledge he gains in this way, and from his teacher's instructions, and from his own general knowledge, he is to make out oral and written statements concerning places, routes, distances, sizes, and so on; of course afterwards to be corrected by the teacher, or by the criticism of other pupils. There is in this respect much suggestiveness and help for the good teacher; the poor teacher needs a different sort of book.

The typography of the *Atlas* is from that beautiful type so well known as peculiar to the Barnes' books. We are surprised, however, to see what appears to be a large, full page advertisement on the third page of the book; and the map of Asia opposite the text of South America, and the map of South America opposite the text of Asia.

Table Talk.

IVANHOE was the subject illustrated by the Carnival procession in New Orleans, on Tuesday, Feb. 17.

"IT is doubtful," says the *Graphic*, "if there are fifty men in the United States who speak and write the English tongue correctly."

THE first edition—100,000 copies—of the March number of *The Century* is already exhausted, and a new edition is being printed, which will bring the total up to 225,000.

IT is certainly indicative of the prevalence of a true American spirit among those who control the policies of the colleges of the land that twenty-three of the members of the Senate are college graduates—*The Current*.

A SERIES of capital papers for girls is begun in *The Chautauquan* for March. Miss Francis E. Willard is the writer, and "How to Win" is her subject. Certainly no woman of the day is better able to speak from experience on this timely topic.

INVESTIGATION among the school-children of London has shown a sad deterioration in eyesight and it is proposed to increase the size of type in text-books. It would be interesting to know if any difference in the aver-

age visual range, as between the dwellers in a large city and those in the country, exists because of the constant presence of obstructing walls before the eyes of the former.—*The Current*.

THE *Life of George Eliot*, it is said, has already brought the English publishers a profit of \$30,000. Doubtless the book is still reading, says *The Pall Mall*, for the greater circulating libraries have added already to their first supply. It sells in England at \$12 a set.

GINN, HEATH & CO. have in press Pestalozzi's *Leonard and Gertrude*, translated and abridged by Eva Channing, and with an introduction by Prof. G. Stanley Hall. In the same educational series a volume of *Extracts from Rousseau's Emile* has already appeared.

PARTICULARLY attractive features of *The Chautauquan* for March are the hints on "The Dining Room" which Susan Hayes Ward gives; Bishop Hurst's article on "The Mohammedan University of Cairo"; and a lively sketch of the "New Orleans World's Exposition."

GEORGE A. AITKEN, of the London Post-Office, has been for some time preparing a collected edition of the works of Richard Steele. The plan adopted by the editor will be to set Steele's writings in a narrative which will aim at giving a full account of all that is known about their author.

WE propose a new word—*literarian*, a person devoted to literary pursuits. *Littérateur* is foreign; *literary man* is awkward, besides being restricted in gender; *literarian*, following the analogy of "parliamentarian," is natural; it is also sensible, euphonious, and convenient. What does the public say?—*Literary World*.

AT Harvard, says Dr. McCosh, a young man has 200 courses from which he may choose, and many of these courses I am compelled to call dilettante. I should prefer a young man who had been trained in an old-fashioned college in rhetoric, philosophy, Latin, Greek and mathematics to one who had frittered away four years in studying the French drama of the 18th century, a little music and similar branches.

THE establishment of a great National University at Washington, scholarships in which should be annually awarded to the highest genius and most assiduous industry in the lower schools of the country, is urged by *The Tribune*, of Salt Lake. It believes that the founding of such an institution would mark the beginning of an aristocracy of brains—a kind of aristocracy which, it holds, is needed in the United States.

DODD, MEAD & CO. announce a cheap illustrated edition of Mr. E. P. Roe's *Without a Home*, uniform with "Barriers Burned Away" and *The Opening of a Chestnut Burr*, which together reached a sale of 150,000 copies. The first mentioned of these works contains, as our readers may remember, an admirable and graphic description of the history of a girl trying to earn her own livelihood. This question is at the present day attracting no little attention. It deserves the calm reflection of all thinking people.

EDWARD C. BRUCE, reviewing the New Orleans Exposition in *Lippincott's*, for March, says the free schools of the Southern States speak more in statistics than in more concrete forms of display, and the figures are highly satisfactory. School-buildings, year by year, are steadily increasing in number,

and graded and normal schools are multiplying rapidly. The colored schools are supplying themselves with colored teachers, which, Mr. Bruce thinks, speaks better for the progress of the race than any other discoverable sign.

MR EDWARD DOWDEN, in the *Academy*, thus speaks of Mr. Cross's life of George Eliot: "Mr. Cross has already his reward, for he must be conscious that he has done his work in the way which George Eliot would have approved. . . . There is no false idealization in these volumes. We are shown George Eliot not as an Olympian, but human 'to the red-ripe of the heart,' an eager, sensitive, frail, dependent woman. There is no false idealization, but what is of most importance in the characterization is not crowded out of sight by what is of least importance. Nothing is here to attract or to fasten the stare of a hard curiosity. The rights of the living and the dead are recognized and respected. There is much to gratify the best kind of literary curiosity, but more to make the heart stronger and wiser, and to quicken and refine the sense of spiritual sight."

AS we read these letters and diaries, [Froude's Carlyle] these tales of Carlyle and of his wife, on which art has thrown a light so dazzling, and a magnifying power so peculiar, we feel as if we were caught up again into the bewildering realm of Brobdingnag. Husband and wife rail at each other like giants and giantesses in a fairy tale; when they have a tiff, it stuns us like the Tower of Babel. The giant's head is the size of a house, with warts like a camel's hump, and a hide like an elephant's. Bugs as big as hedge-hogs crawl over his bed. Cocks and hens as large as ostriches crow and scream with the power of a steam-whistle. The giant clears his throat with the sound of an express train; and if his stomach aches, his groaning is as loud as the roaring of a cow that has lost her calf. We know, if the world does not, that all this is an optical and acoustic effect of the oxy-hydrogen or electric magnifier, of the combination of literary telephone, microphone, and phonograph.—*Frederic Harrison, in the North American Review*.

THROUGH the medium of translation and criticism a body of young French authors are attempting to render the works and aims of modern English poets better known in France. Notably among these laborers may be named M. M. Emile Hennequin, Gabriel Sarrazin, and Paul Bourget, and in the newly started *Revue Contemporaine* much of their work may be looked for. Mrs. Browning, Keats, Poe, Rossetti, and Swinburne have each received notice, but at present Shelley would appear to have their chief attention. The amount of study this poet is receiving in France is certainly worthy of notice in England. Only recently Madame Dorian published a translation of the *Cenci*; last November the *Revue des Chefs d'Œuvre* gave a rendering of *Prometheus Unbound*; while the November and December numbers of *La Jeune France* contain a translation of *Alastor*, by M. Gabriel Sarrazin, to whose forthcoming work on the *Poètes Modernes de l'Angleterre* allusion was recently made in *The Athenæum*. M. Sarrazin's French translation of *Alastor* deserves the attention of Shelley students as a perspicuous, close, and yet poetic rendering of one of its authors' most difficult works.—*J. H. I., in The Athenæum*.

Music.

SEASONS tickets for the German opera in Boston have sold up to the point of \$12,000.

THE American *Art Journal* contains, on its first page, an excellent picture of the late Dr. Leopold Damrosch.

L. SKOUGAARD SEVERINI who died Feb. 14, in New York, was among the best known teachers of vocal music in that city.

A. FILLIPPI is translating into German the libretto of Catalani's *Dejanice*, with a view to that opera being performed in Germany.

P. S. GILMORE's military band is giving a series of afternoon and evening concerts at the Manhattan Rink, assisted by Levy, cornet solo player.

Mlle. ROMELDT, a native of Chicago, who has been singing prima donna rôles upon the Italian stage for the past four years, arrived in New York.

A MUSIC printing house now advertise that they will print for any composer a song, with title page, and deliver 100 copies for \$4.50, and extra copies at \$1.00 per hundred.

THE Waterloo Musical Society have issued a circular to the various musical societies and bands in the Dominion, suggesting a grand band tournament and musical festival to come off some time in August, in Waterloo.

A CABLEGRAM from Frankfort-on-the-Main announces the intelligence that the residence of the celebrated pianiste, and widow of the great composer, Clara Schumann, has been robbed and her jewels and valuables made away with.

By the death of Dr. Leopold Damrosch a vacancy occurs in the list of judges for the \$1,000 prize composition for solo singers, male chorus and orchestra offered by the Milwaukee Song Festival, July, 1866. His associates were Dr. F. L. Ritter and Dr. Louis Maas.

WALTER DAMROSCH, son of the late Dr. Damrosch, will conduct the German Opera Co's tour, according to the last expressed wishes of his father. The company will leave for Chicago and open with Tannhauser on Monday. After Chicago, they will give a season in Boston and Philadelphia. The contract between Dr. Damrosch and the Metropolitan Opera House Co. for next season was only signed two days before the leader's untimely death.

CHARLOTTE H. SAINTON-DOLBY, for whom Mendelssohn wrote the contralto part in *Eljah*, died in London, Feb. 18th, in her 64th year. She held the position of first oratorio contralto in England for upwards of thirty years, prior to her retirement to open a vocal school in 1872. Mme. Dolby was alto a composer of considerable merit, and won undeniable success in her cantatas, songs and ballads. Her cantata, the *Story of the Faithful Soul*, was specially commended by critics on its production in London some nine or ten years since. She was born in London, 1821, studied under Civelli at the Royal Academy from 1832 to 1837, and made her *début* in 1831. In the season of 1846-47 she won a triumph in Leipzig, for which introduction she was indebted to Mendelssohn.—*American Art Journal*.

Drama.

OF dramatic news, as far as Canada is concerned, we may safely say there is absolutely none. In fact, to judge from the remarks of the press, the drama is at present at a low ebb in America.

IN the *Fortnightly* Mr. Irving has an article on American audiences, dissecting their qualities. Mr. Irving keenly says:—"The dominant characteristics of an American audience is impartiality. They do not sit in judgment, resenting as positive offences lack of power to convey meanings or a divergence in the interpretation of a particular character or scene. When they do not like a performance they simply go away. And here is a kindly feeling toward the actor. As an individual part of that recognition of individuality, so strikingly characteristic in American life and customs, is their thorough enjoyment. Another point, they are not only quick to understand and appreciate, but they take a genuine pleasure in the expression of approval. They are not surpassed in quickness and completeness of comprehension by any audience I have yet seen."

THE *Saturday Review*, protesting against "the fuss which the stage is making about its moral character at present," says:—"No one either accuses or defends the private morality of soldiers or sailors, or candlestick-makers, or painters, or newspaper men. Can they fight, can they write, can they paint, can they make candlesticks?—these are the only important matters." True enough; but it must be remembered that the actors were long socially ostracized and subject to the Church's accusation that they were the special ministrants of the Devil. This is one reason why the absurd question of the morality of actors is perennially broached. The old prejudice dies hard. Another reason is to be found in the fact that, to the injury of hard-working, earnest and worthy artists, persons who have no claim for consideration, except that based upon some unsavory episode in private life, are continually foisting themselves upon the stage in the room of their betters.—*The Current*.

THE following passage from Lessing is very true, and might, at the present time, be uttered as warning or advice to ninety-nine per cent of our actors and actresses:—

"We know very little of the Chironomia of the ancients, that is to say, the nature of the rules prescribed by the ancients in the use of the hands. We know this, that they carried gestures to a perfection of which we can scarcely form an idea from what our orators can compass in this respect. Of this whole language we seem to have retained nothing but an inarticulate cry, nothing but the power to make movements without knowing how to give these movements an accurately determined meaning and how to connect these together so that they may be capable of conveying not only one idea, but one connected meaning. I am quite aware that among the ancients the pantomimist must not be confounded with the actor. The hands of the actor were by no means as talkative as those of the pantomimist. In the one case they supplied the place of speech, while in the other they were only to lend emphasis, and as natural signs of things to lend life and truth to the preconcerted signs of the voice."

Art.

STEEL engraving is nearly extinct and photographic processes are rapidly taking the place of both wood and steel engraving.

PAINTED dresses with embroidery in gold and silk thread have been introduced in America by Fanny Davenport from French models. The effect of these dresses before the foot lights is very striking.

FROM a report of a lecture on art given in Preston, Lancashire, by Mr. William Morris, towards the close of last year we take the following:

"What should be the relation between art and labor?" the lecturer asks. First of all, he would take the surroundings under which the workman lived, because he did not believe his work could ever be set right until the surroundings of his life were set right, and that of course would include the surroundings of the lives of all of them. First, the workman must live in a pleasant house in a pleasant place. That was a claim for labor which he knew they would be inclined to agree with until they considered how impossible it was to satisfy it under their present profit-grinding system, for let them think what time, money and trouble it would take to turn, say Preston, into a thoroughly pleasant place. They must also remember that a pleasant house must also be a costly one; there was no doubt about that. Then the workman must be well educated. Here again he was sure they would all agree with his words till they knew what they meant. This was that all children should be educated not according to the money their parents happened to possess, but according to their capacity. Less than that meant class education, which was a monstrous oppression of the poor by the rich. Next, the workman must have due leisure, and again they would all agree with him till they knew what his words meant. Overwork for profit must be prevented at any cost. The necessary maximum of a day's work must be found out and made legal and compulsory. It followed as a corollary to this that all people must work, the result of which would be in point of fact a change of the whole basis of society. So much for the necessary surroundings of life under which art for the whole people would be possible. They would, he thought, see that what these three things really meant was, refinement of life, or, as they call it now, the life of a gentleman. He would tell them plainly that if the workers had no hope of becoming refined, they would in the long run become brutes, and they of the well-to-do class would be no better off than the workers would be. Let them think of that and what it meant—the lives of some of them might see its terrible meaning explained unless they grew wise in time. Now, as to the manner of work, if they were to have art once more amongst them. In the first place, there must be no useless work done. That, indeed, followed as a matter of course on the limitation of the daily hours of work. But he knew they would not agree at all in this, as they mostly lived—they of the well-to-do classes—on useless labor. Secondly, whatever necessarily irksome work must be done should be done by machines, which should be used to save labor, and not as now, to grind out profit. They were not, as they were now called, labor-saving machines, but, on the contrary, multiplied labor.

The High School.

WHY WE SPEAK ENGLISH.

BY RICHARD GRANT WHITE.

(Continued from last issue.)

THESE Celts who went first were followed by the people who, in close connection with them as to time and affiliation of blood, became the Latin races (old Romans, Italians, Spaniards, French), and the Greeks. It was natural that the first stream of Aryan emigration into Europe should take its course through the countries of these peoples, because they lie at the south, or the borders of the Mediterranean Sea. Men never go northward to find homes amid snows and ice one half the year, if they can find land of more genial climate unoccupied or occupiable. The leading bodies of the Celts having reached the ocean in the southern part of Europe, and being pushed on by the steady flow from behind, moved northward, and as we have already seen, at last left the continent, and rested in Britain and Ireland. Here, from their insular position, they were able to maintain their footing firmly, if not undisturbed, for many centuries. They were not displaced in Britain until about thirteen centuries ago; and then they were not driven onward, as before they had been driven; for there was no place whither to drive them. They were, in the words of an old adage, perhaps as old as this very time, "between the devil and the deep sea;" and most of them were slain to make room for their fellow Aryans, their far-away kindred, whom they knew not, and had no reason to know, and whom they hated with good reason.

The Goths, of whose race we are, and from whom we directly come, moved northward from the western shores of the Black Sea, where they are first heard of. Their language, in its original form, is lost like the great original Aryan tongue; but as in the case of that tongue, a very early offshoot of it has been happily preserved. This is the *Mæso-Gothic*, into which Ulphilas, a bishop of the *Mæso-Goths*, who had become Christians, translated the New Testament and part of the Old about one thousand five hundred years ago. Of the former a very considerable part remains. It is written in large silver letters, on parchment of a beautiful purple tint. This work shows us all of the structure and much of the substance of the *Mæso-Gothic* language; and in the former even more than in the latter affords, like the Greek, evidence of an origin identical with that of Sanskrit.

The Gothic people pushed, and were pushed, northward, and began, in their turn, to divide and to disperse, and soon to be unable to understand each other's speech, and to regard each other as foreigners and enemies. For it must be remembered that these migrations were slow, extending through centuries; that they consisted of alternate movement and settlement; settlement for many generations in one place; so that the mountains and streams and forests still retain evidences of this residence, in the names given to them by these tribes or sub-tribes of the Aryan people. It must be remembered, too, that in these remote times, at that early stage of civilization, when there were no books, except a few manuscripts on parchment, no strongly built towns, no stability of government, and when inter-communication was slow, difficult and danger-

ous, an interval of a hundred years was quite as long as one of five hundred of the years last passed, in its effect of separation and isolation of peoples, in its dividing families into tribes, and tribes into strange and hostile little nations.

From the Goths there was now a new offshoot, one destined to power and pre-eminence in the future of the human race. While the greater number of them remained in the country which for some eighteen centuries has been loosely called Germany, a large number of them moved northward and took possession of the countries now known as Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, with the neighboring islands. These people are known ethnologically as the Scandinavians; and it is from them, and from some very near neighbors of theirs, also of Gothic race, who settled in the country in and about the lower part of Jutland (the old name of Denmark), that the English people, of whom we are a part, are descended.* It so happened that in the continuance of the westward movement of the Aryan people there was a union on the island of Great Britain, of emigrants from Denmark and the neighboring country on the continent, and from the western part of the great northern Scandinavian peninsula (Norway); and the result of that union, which was some eight centuries in forming, was the English people, by whom chiefly this country was settled only some two hundred and fifty years ago, and by whom its laws, its religion, its manners and customs and its language were determined and established. It is with the last of these language, that we are here concerned. What that language is, and how it became what it is, will be the subject of our next paper. — *The Chautauquan*.

* The Scandinavians, and all the peoples who are loosely called German tribes, High-German, Low-German, and what-not, are generally regarded as branches of a great Aryan stem, which is called the Teutonic race; and some of my philological readers, should any such honor these unpretending papers with their attention, may be surprised, and even offended, at my omission of any mention of the great Teutonic family. As to this, my only defence, or rather my only excuse, is that I have been unable to convince myself of the existence of any such branch as the Teutonic antecedent to the Gothic, of which the *Mæso-Goths* were an early offshoot. I cannot see that the Teutonic of the Roman historians represent an elder, younger, or present branch of the Aryan race of which the Goths were a younger and minor. As to the word German, and its use in "German tribes," "German dialects," every scholar knows that it is not an indigenous name, but that it was imposed from without, by strangers, upon the people who bear it, who call themselves Dutch; and that this name was in effect territorial, meaning all the people, of whatever race, who lived within or beyond certain boundaries. As to the identity of origin, *Dravidic* and *Teutonic*, that seems to me to be by no means clearly made out. For Teutonic race I would substitute Gothic. The question from the present point of view is happily not of serious or intrinsic importance.

USE OF PICTURES IN THE READING LESSON.

BY MRS. A. H. DE VOIR.

(From the Ohio Educational Monthly.)

How can we use pictures so as to make the reading lesson more pleasant and profitable? In these days when our books are supplied with such fresh, beautiful, and suggestive pictures as are found in Appleton's, Sheldon's or McGuffey's new readers, or even the less beautiful, but still useful ones which adorn the pages of the old edition of McGuffey's time-honored series, teachers need not be at a loss to know how almost all of the lessons may be made really interesting and useful. Take the pictures of animals. Besides the domestic animals,—each one of which possesses interest enough to furnish

material for a good object lesson, there are cuts of lions, tigers, bears, etc., many of which the children have never seen, and of which they know nothing excepting the ideas which they have gained from looking at the pictures.

If you take the pains to question them concerning their thought about a picture, you will find their ideas very crude, and often quite erroneous. I remember hearing in school once a smothered laugh, and looking around saw a little fellow shaking with laughter which he was vainly trying to suppress. I said, "Johnny, what have you found that is so funny?" The little brown finger pointed quickly to a picture in an old book which he had been examining, and said, "Teacher, look at this bird with the long nose on top of its head." The bird was a peacock, and when I explained to him that the "long nose" was not a nose at all, but a tuft of brilliant feathers, each one of which had a beautiful spot called an eye, and that the long tail which swept the ground changed in the sunlight to purple, and gold, and green, the little boy was all wonder and attention. Johnny was only one of thousands of little folks, who need pictures explained to make them intelligible to them. Let the teacher gather up the most interesting facts about the animal connected with the lesson, draw out by skilful questioning all the child knows, then be ready to supplement his small store with something fresh and interesting, as to its habits, place of abode, etc. Then give a correct idea of its size, if it be one they have never seen, by comparison with some one with which they are familiar; lead them to see the wonderful adaptation of the parts, to its wants and habits, and thus plant a seed-thought of the wisdom and goodness of the Creator. You can thus teach a lesson on the humane treatment of animals more effectively, perhaps, than in any other way.

Even small children can be easily taught the different families of birds and animals. And how pleased and surprised will the little ones be to find that the splendid, but furious tiger, for example, that some of them may have seen pacing his cage at the animal show, is full cousin to the "dear puss" that purrs at the hearthstone. Then there is the curious beaver, the hardy little reindeer that "gallops over the snow," the patient camel, with his queer cushioned foot and knee, and the strange little yak, living amid perpetual snows, each of which may be made to give such interest to a lesson as to set the children to asking questions, some of which, perhaps, we shall not be able to answer, but which indicate that thought has been awakened, and that desire to know more will lead to search on the part of the children.

Teachers sometimes complain that pupils come to the reading class without having looked at the lesson, when the same is true of themselves. And yet no lesson which we give to children requires more preparation than the reading lesson. Come to the preparatory lesson thoroughly interested yourself, even though it be a first reader lesson, prepared to give the young minds food for thought, perhaps gathered from many sources, but gathered nevertheless, and aside from the gratitude of your pupils, and the reflex action upon yourself, when you come to the recitation proper, you may say of them as was said of those who read the law of God to the Jews, "They read in the book distinctly, and gave the sense, and caused them to understand the reading."

The Public School.

SIMPLE STUDIES OF NATURE.

I.

PEBBLES AND SAND.

THE cold covering of glistening snow, the upheaved piles of rough ice, and the bitter piercing wind are too apt to drive us away from the lake shore and shut us up to the more cheery companionship of a crackling fire and an agreeable book. But if we have sufficient curiosity and the proverbial Canadian hardihood we will muffle ourselves and venture out to study a few simple but interesting phenomena of nature. We make our way to the shore, and in imagination picture to ourselves the summer scene. We stand upon a high rough cliff, a steep rocky bluff, at whose base the waves dash upon huge blocks of stone lying loosely scattered around. Towards the east the cliff slants away to a beach of pebbles, of all shapes and sizes, but smooth and polished. Farther on lies the clean golden sand, fine and shiny. Over all this landscape the cloak of winter has been spread, and nature beneath us seems slumbering, while around and above the winds are blowing, and the spray and sleet are defiantly dashing into our faces.

Nature's force, even her strongest, are often hidden from our sight; so to a certain extent is it the rock beneath us. The cliff is composed of stratified rock, layer resting above layer, as though built and fitted in by the hands of a skilful mason. Nature was the mason. At one time it was a solid rock extending along the surface, or just below the surface of the earth it may be for miles, without a flaw or fracture; but the restless earth began to roll and rumble internally, the ceaseless fires of the interior sent feverish throbbings and tremors through the crust, the whole surface was upheaved and shaken, and the huge layer of stone was twisted and bent in the hands of nature as easily as a bamboo cane in the hands of a boy. Bend the bamboo too far and it will crack and split; so with the rock the movements of the earth's crust, the unequal expansion under the influence of the heat from within and the heat from without, and the weight of the accumulated earth above, have all united to split the rock into long thin parallel layers. A visit to a limestone quarry will prove the existence of this stratification, and will show how the quarryman takes advantage of the structure in getting out regular blocks of building stone.

The disturbance in the earth's crust continuing, the cracks will widen so as to allow the rain to trickle in from the surface. Gradually, day after day, through the summer months the water will percolate the rock and at last find its way to the very base. The water trickling through dissolves and carries off small quantities of the rock, thus enlarging its courses, but performing no great shattering results. When, however, the cold blasts blow down from the north and the spray and sleet are rattled against the rock, and the water-courses through the whole structure are filled and choked, how different! Every drop of water becomes a miniature shell of dynamite, the water must freeze and expand, room must be made, the courses must be enlarged, and the heavy rock, shoved and shaken in all directions, is shattered from centre to surface. Water when it freezes increases in size; if a bottle capable of hold-

ing ten ounces be filled with nine ounces of water and then exposed to the cold, the resulting ice will exactly fill the bottle; if it be filled with water the expanding water will burst the bottle. The particles of water as they freeze seem to become restless, and elbow and thrust in all directions; making room for themselves against all obstacles.

Whatever advantage the water thus gains it keeps, and after the next thaw there is a larger volume to freeze and expand. Thus, gradually the cracks and crevices are enlarged and the blocks of stone more widely separated. A second winter's freezing will shove loose a row of broken jagged blocks from the outer edge. In this manner the invisible fingers of the "frost spirit" pull apart the whole structure, and push over the side row after row of stones which fall in pieces at the base with ringing echo. At times, during quick successions of thaw and frost, the stones will fairly rain down the side of the cliff, some large and massive, others small and much broken, but all sharp-cornered and rough-edged like the rough building stone drawn for foundations.

The rough stones fall into the water or at its edge, and now commence a new era in their history. The ceaseless waves begin to fashion them with tools of finer form than mallet and chisel. They are rolled about, rubbed together, jostled against one another, till at last the rough corners and sharp edges are knocked off and smoothed down to a polished surface. Thus are formed the smooth pebbles. The shape of the pebble will resemble somewhat the original shape of the rough stone, and, since the blocks broken out are of all conceivable shapes and sizes, we will find it almost impossible to find two pebbles exactly alike.

By tossing a piece of red brick into a mass of pebbles at the water's edge the smoothing and rounding process may be observed from day to day. Pieces of wood, bones, or wreckage washed ashore will bear marks of the same rough but impartial treatment.

But the rounded pebble is not the end of the sport (for thus it would seem the waters find some sport); the rolling and rubbing and grinding continue and the pebble decreases in size; the mass of pebbles becomes fine gravel, then coarse sand, and finally a bed of clear sparkling sand of finest quality. Some of it is ground so small that the light breezes from over the waters pick it up from the shore, scatter it across the fields, whisk it through our windows and lay it down gently and secretly upon our tables. Dust or dirt you may call it, but the poorest of microscopes will show it, not dirt, but a mass of bright shiny pebbles from the beach.

The length of time required to polish the stones increases with the hardness of the rock, and beauty of polish results only from regular and rigorous treatment. A soft rock will speedily crumble into dust, while one of hard firm texture will dash back defiantly for years the saucy splashings of the water.

Were we to read a "sermon from stones" or draw a moral from the pebbles upon the beach that we kick aside or send skipping from wave to wave, it might be thus: "Men like pebbles are rubbed and jostled by one another, and their nature, beauty and very existence are developed out of the 'stuff' of which they are composed."

COMPOSITION WRITING.

WE accede with much pleasure to Mr. Olcott's request to place the following article before Canadian readers through the medium of the EDUCATIONAL WEEKLY. It is from the pen of Mr. Olcott himself, and first appeared in the Indianapolis *Educational Weekly*, of which magazine he is the editor.

THE power to think clearly and the power to make others see those thoughts are the two necessary factors of every successful composition. The strongest speaker is the man who adds to depth of thought the ability to reproduce in the imagination of his hearers the exact picture of his own mind at the moment of speaking. The first factor requires a strong intellect, trained to habits of close observation and systematic thought. The second demands a thorough knowledge of language, a full vocabulary, familiarity with the styles of the best writers, and a complete understanding of the main laws of composition. It demands also the adaptation of the writer to the character of his readers or hearers. In exact proportion as the writer possesses both these powers, his writings accomplish their purpose or fail. Thus Emerson in a company of laboring men is a complete failure, though a grand success with the learned. For the same reason Longfellow is popular everywhere. Yet these two powers which, when united, form the successful composition, are as separate and distinct, as hydrogen or oxygen, which unite to form water, are separate and distinct gases. The best writer will keep them separate until prepared to unite them.

The average school-boy when told to write a composition, first clears off the table, gets several sheets of nice white paper, finds a new pen, opens the ink bottle, dips the pen in the ink and then—*What shall I write about?* or, *What shall I say first?* If fewer newspaper contributions, magazine articles, public speeches and even books were written in this same style, the literature of the day would be of a much higher quality. Thought naturally precedes diction. The thought must be complete itself or nearly so, the writer must grasp the subject in hand in all its details, thoroughly comprehending it himself before he attempts to present his thoughts to others. If this plan is not used, and the "school-boy" plan adopted instead, the writer is as one who describes the contents of a dark room before he has lighted the lamp. The plan of thinking a little, then writing a little, then thinking or reading again, is scarcely less disadvantageous.

The whole production, as far as possible, should be mapped out in the mind of the writer before a single sentence is written. The advantages of the plan are many. The thought is better and the diction is better. The mind in thinking of the subject is not distracted by thoughts of phraseology. The thought is never weakened for the purpose of using fine language—a common tendency among inexperienced writers. The thought is always logically arranged. Finally, when the composition has all been "thought out" beforehand, the mind is left free to clothe the thought in the best possible diction.

When, therefore, we set out to write a composition we should

1. Recall any knowledge of the subject which we have previously learned.
2. Study the necessary books of reference, documents, newspapers, etc.

Olcott

3. Select from the knowledge thus gained all facts necessary to our purpose, and

4. Make deductions from these facts.

When this has been done, we are ready to present the thought to others by unting it with diction. Analysis by diagram is an excellent agent through which to make this union. We arranged the facts, just learned, together with the deductions made, in their logical order, dividing the subject into divisions and subdivisions, and arranging each point under its proper head. This diagram, if carefully made, will give to the completed essay the same graceful proportions, harmony of parts and consequent beauty that a well formed human skeleton gives to the human body.

Having the analysis now completed we are ready to write. As we do so, following our diagram step by step, five simple rules must be obeyed.

1. We must observe the laws of unity. We must finish the discussion of each branch of our subject before taking up the next. We must avoid lumber, explain everything that is necessary and not waste time explaining unnecessary things. We are to make no digressions for the sake of bringing in a fine quotation or a beautiful figure. We must use pointed figures and illustrations but leave out all others, however pleasing.

2. We must use simple words and sentences. The reader can understand long and uncommon words, but prefers simple ones. He wants to *perceive the thought*, not translate the language. For the same reason he prefers short sentences to long complicated ones, and simple metaphors, similes and illustrations to complex, high sounding figures. Sentences should not be too brief, nor all of the same length. To alternate the short with the long is well. By all means we must avoid monotony.

3. We must study skilful presentation of arguments. The reader can reason as well as the writer. It is presumed that he is intelligent. Therefore, we take for granted that he knows certain fundamental points. It is often safe to presume that he knows as much as the writer did before the latter began his special researches. Then, assuming this, let us lay before him the discoveries made by us in our investigations, being careful not to encumber them with what are merely our own opinions. The reader can then form a conclusion for himself, and if we have been skilful in laying out our premises, and have been logical and fair throughout, we have likely impressed the reader with views identical with our own. When, therefore, we are ready to present our own conclusions, the reader is the more ready to accept them. Never attempt to "pound" an argument into a reader's head by bold and repeated assertions of its correctness, for the very boldness creates a doubt and defeats its own purpose.

4. We must make careful choice of words. We must study synonyms. Especially is this necessary in public orations, when an exact meaning must be expressed with convincing force. Scarcely less is it necessary in a composition intended for close study. It gives conciseness and force. The weight of an argument is frequently lost in a lame effort to express it. When one simple word will express the exact thought, never employ a circumlocution. This is the secret of true eloquence. It is the key to Webster's success. With it Longfellow touched the hearts

of the people and Emerson builded his reputation as the most concise philosophical writer of the century.

5. We should have regard for rhythm, that is, secure a melodious flow of words,—arrange sentences, and the words in a sentence, so that they will read smoothly. Many a fine oration has been spoiled by unharmonious expressions and sentences that go by jerks. There is a certain poetry in prose. Thousands of ministers, forgetting this fact, make their sermons, though abounding in wisdom, simply unbearable. The "prosiest kind of prose" is the way we characterize an uninteresting book. Hyperion, though a prose work, is one of the grandest poems ever written. The thought is highly poetical and is clothed in words that flow along as melodiously as the waters of a brooklet rippling over the pebbles. Few prose writers can command the poetical style seen in Hyperion. But all can regard the laws of rhythm and make their sentences harmonious, thus filling with life and beauty what might otherwise be stiff and full of discord.

We will now suppose our composition completed. If we have observed the five rules laid down, it is pointed, intelligible, weighty in argument and hence convincing, concise and forcible, and finally interesting and pleasant to read. If we have made our analysis correctly and followed it closely, the production is logical and easily understood. If our subject is one of importance, if our researches and investigations have been careful and thorough and our inferences correct, the essay is not only readable, but valuable as well.

We have attempted to outline in brief some of the requirements of a successful composition. It is at best only an outline. The best success can only come from long and careful study and varied experience.

PAPER FOLDING.

(Reported by I. W. Fitch, from a lesson given at the Cook County Normal School, Ill.)

GRADE of pupils, first primary: Ages, from six to eight years; number of pupils, twenty; time of lesson, twenty minutes. The teacher passes to each pupil in one row of seats a piece of pink paper three inches square, and to each pupil in the other row of seats a piece of blue paper also three inches square. The teacher says, "All hold up what you have in your right hands. I see two different colors. Who can tell me what color the papers are in this row?" Hands go up, and certain ones are called upon to tell the color. The same is done with the other row. The teacher holds one of the papers up in her left hand and touches the edges, surfaces, and corners in succession, with the index finger of her right hand, calling upon the children to tell her how many edges, surfaces, and corners she has touched. This done, the class is requested to place the papers on the desks with one corner of each paper pointing to the front of each desk.

Teacher.—What can you tell me about your papers?

One Pupil.—My triangle has three edges.

T.—How do you know this is a triangle?

Ans.—Because it has three edges and three corners. (This pupil has come from the Kindergarten).

Another P.—My paper has two straight corners and one square corner.

Pupil is requested to point to what he means, and points to the oblique corner as the square one, and to the others as the straight corners. (The terms oblique and acute are not given to the pupils, as it is preferred that they use their own language for the time)

T.—Put your papers on your desks, with the long straight edge lying along the front edge of your desk. Take the left hand corners of your papers and fold over so that it will lie exactly on the top of the right hand corner; open your paper, and let it lie as at first. Now place your finger on the spot where the lines cross, and the corner next to you, so that it will rest on the spot where your finger was. Carry the back corner to the centre; the left corner to the centre; the right corner to the centre. How many can tell me something? (Hands go up.)

One P. My paper has four little squares.

T. I do not see four squares on my paper. Show me. (Pupil shows them, but on the reverse side of the paper.)

T. Yes; you see four little squares; but are they on the side of your paper like the side which the other pupils have on top? (The boy sees his mistake, turns his paper over and finds something very different from squares.)

T. Jennie, what do you see?

Jennie. I see four triangles.

Willie finds four edges; Lillie sees eight very small triangles.

T. Turn over your paper again, and bend back a corner at the centre to the outer corner just in front of you. Who will tell me what to do next? Several hands are raised, and one says, "Carry a corner at the centre to the opposite outside corner;" another, "a corner at the centre to the right outer corner;" a third, "a corner at the centre to the left outer corner."

Teacher. Our time is up. Leave what you have made on your desks, and I will come around after awhile and gather them up. How many of you would like to have me make something pretty to hang up in the school-room, out of what you have made? (All hands go up.) The class is quietly dismissed, in order, the girls first, to the dressing-room.

In answer to the question, "What will you make for the pupils," the teacher said I'll fasten the blue and pink squares on pieces of white paper, and hang in order around the room.

NOTE.—Readers can perceive that *number, form, and color*, were all taught *unconsciously* in the lesson, and that more or less prominence can be given to one or the other, according to the special needs of the pupils. The interest of the class was sustained throughout.—*From the New York School Journal.*

THE CURRENT will begin the publication, in its issue of February 28, of five papers of national importance and interest from the pen of Francis King Carey, A.B., LL.B., of Baltimore, on "The Destruction of American Forests."

PROF. T. W. HUNT, in *Shakespeareana* for February suggests, as one reason why Shakespeare is popular in Germany, that the Germans and English are alike Teutonic. Goethe and Shakespeare, he remarks, are not only respectively German and English poets, but are akin to each other as Teutons.

The University.

ELECTIVES AND SELF-GOVERNMENT IN COLLEGES.

THERE was held in a private house in New York last week, one of the most unique discussions that perhaps has ever been listened to. At a meeting of the Nineteenth Century Club, held in the drawing room of Mr. and Mrs. Courtland Palmer, President Eliot, of Harvard, and Dr. McCosh, of Princeton, debated before the guests the question of the elective system of studies, and of self-government among the students. From President Eliot's speech we take the following remarks:—

A university of liberal arts and sciences must give its students three things: Freedom in choice of studies, opportunity to win academic distinction in single subjects or special lines of study, and a discipline which distinctly imposes on each individual the responsibility of forming his own habits and guiding his own conduct. . . . Every youth of eighteen is an infinitely complex and a solitary organization. His inherited traits, his environment, his passions, emotions, hopes and desires are all different from those of every other young man. His whole force is aroused, stimulated and exhausted in ways peculiarly his own. To discern and take due account of these diversities no human insight or wisdom is sufficient. It is for the happiness of the individual and for the benefit of society alike that these mental diversities should be cultivated, not oppressed. The presumption is, therefore, against uniformity in education, and in favor of diversity at the earliest possible moment. . . . To this choice certain natural guides and safeguards help a youth. He must take up a study he has already pursued about where he left off, and every new subject at the beginning. Many subjects taught at a university involve preliminary subjects which must be studied first. Then there is a prevailing tendency on the part of every competent student to carry far any congenial subject once entered upon. To repress this most fortunate tendency is to make real scholarship impossible. So effective are these natural safeguards against fickleness and inconsecutiveness that artificial regulation is superfluous. I have had large opportunities of observing the working of this elective system, and of comparing it with a prescribed curriculum, both in this country and in Europe. I have never known a student of any capacity to select for himself a set of studies covering four years which did not apparently possess more theoretical and practical merit for his case than the required curriculum of my college days. Forced studies are necessarily elementary from beginning to end, and very heterogeneous. No teacher, however learned or enthusiastic, can possibly have any advanced pupils, and no scholar, however competent and eager, can make serious attainment in any single subject. Under the elective system the great majority pursue some subjects with a reasonable degree of thoroughness. Those who have already decided upon their profession wisely pursue relative subjects. . . . A university must permit its students, in the main, to govern themselves. It should be placed in or near a city of considerable population, so that its officers and students can always enjoy the refined pleasures and restraints of a highly cultivated society. It must have a large body of students, and these two conditions make it practically impossible to deal with them on any basis of village school discipline. A student's protection must be within him. It is a distinct advantage of the genuine university method that it does not pretend to maintain any parental or monastic governments. Its moral purpose should be to train young men to self-control and self-reliance through liberty. Such a university is the safest place in the world for young men who have anything in them. They live in a bracing atmos-

phere; good companionships invite them; books engage them; helpful friends surround them; pure ideals are held up before them; ambitions spur them, and honors await them.

Amongst Dr. McCosh's remarks were the following:—

I believe that men should have freedom in choosing their studies. But the freedom has limits. Men are free to choose their colleges, and the departments which they will follow in these colleges, whether law or medicine or theology. But there liberty should cease, and it should be understood that certain branches must be studied. To hold the contrary leads at once to a *reductio ad absurdum*. What if a medical student should neglect physiology and anatomy and materia medica, for music and the drama and painting? It is evident, therefore, that there must be some restrictions. . . . Now a college curriculum should have two elements or characteristics. First, there should be required studies for all who pursue a full course for a degree; and secondly, the attendance at lectures and recitations should be compulsory. The required studies should be disciplinary affording true mental training. Such studies are English, Greek, Latin, German, French, history, mathematics and physical science. Later in the college courses should come biology, geology, political economy and the mental sciences. All these studies should be so spread over the years passed by a boy at school and at college, that each step naturally leads to another. In other words, they should be logically arranged. . . . Elective studies should be of two kinds. First, branches which would not be good for all, but may prove profitable to a few. Such studies are Hebrew, Sanskrit and, among the sciences, palaeontology. Secondly, there should be elective courses in the higher departments of those studies whose elements are obligatory to all. Thus all young men should study mathematics, but only those with a special mathematical taste can master quaternions, functions or quantities. . . . In a college we should have specialists, but not mere specialists, for such are bigoted and intolerant. The truest and best specialist is the one who is well acquainted with collateral branches. From a too great choice of studies arise certain grave evils. Young men on entering college do not know their own minds nor what is to be their future calling, and if left to themselves make wrong selections which impair their future usefulness.

THE hope of additional work from the pen of Harriet Beecher Stowe is in vain. Her health continues to decline, and the most that can be expected is the completion of her autobiography, now having her attention at her home in Mandarin, Florida.

ONE man there is, whom above all others I would fain have seen in Parliament during the last ten years, and beheld established in influence there at this juncture—Mr. Goldwin Smith. I do not say that he was not too embittered against the Church; in my opinion he was. But with singular lucidity and penetration he saw what great reforms were needed in other directions, and the order of relative importance in which reforms stood. Such were his character, style and faculties, that alone, perhaps, among men of his insight, he was capable of getting his ideas weighed and entertained by men in power; while amid all favor and under all temptations, he was certain to have still remained true to his insight, "unshaken, unseduced, unterrified." I think of him as a real power for good in Parliament at this time, had he by now become, as he might have become, one of the leaders here. His absence from the scene, his retirement in Canada is a loss to his friends, but a still greater loss to his country.—*Matthew Arnold in the Nineteenth Century.*

Educational Intelligence.

LEEDS TEACHERS' CONVENTION.

THE annual meeting of the Leeds Teachers' Association was held in Farmersville on the 19th and 20th of February.

The meeting was opened by an address from the president, Dr. Kinney, in which he fully expained the existing regulations in regard to the management of teachers' associations.

After the appointment of committees, Miss Ross, teacher in the model school, taught a lesson in reading to a class of 2nd class pupils.

Miss Kincaid followed Miss Ross with a lesson in vocal music, based on the kindergarten system.

The afternoon session was begun by a lesson from Mr. Porter, headmaster, model school Farmersville, on fourth class literature. Mr. Porter taught a class for half an hour.

The next subject discussed was composition by Mr. J. J. Tilley, model school inspector. Before entering into his subject, Mr. Tilley made a few explanatory remarks. Mr. Tilley said that the subject, composition, has been and is still neglected. The cause assigned by him is that many teachers do not know how to teach the subject. The speaker contended that the subject is all-important—no subject on the programme of more importance—and therefore should receive more attention. In regard to teaching the subject, the exercises should be graded, subject for thought should be furnished the pupils, and they should then be required to express those thoughts in language which should always be criticised by the teacher, and the corrections made by the pupils. If more attention were paid to composition and less to grammar the change would be beneficial. Pupils should be required and assisted to express themselves correctly whether orally or in writing. The teacher should talk with the pupils rather than to them.

Mr. Fairclough, B.A., classical master Brockville high school, next read a paper on English literature.

At the close of Mr. Fairclough's work, Mr. Eyre addressed the convention on the subject of geometry.

At the evening session there was a lecture on "The relation of education to the state," by Mr. J. J. Tilley, and a paper on Shakespeare by Mr. Johnston.

On the relation of the teacher to his work Mr. Tilley expressed himself by saying that the trustees always want a good teacher. Get the best teacher and you will have a good school. A poor teacher is always dear, a good teacher is always cheap. Parents should not take sides with the pupils against the teacher, it injures the pupil; scenes of boyhood's years are not forgotten.

On Friday morning work was resumed, Dr. Kinney in the chair.

After the roll-call, Mr. Tilley taught a first lesson in fractions.

The work of the convention was brought to a close by a lecture from Mr. Tilley on the relation of the teacher to his work. The following are a few of the salient thoughts presented in his lecture:—The influence of the teacher must go beyond the school room. The teacher should be a gentleman; he stands in the place of the parent and should enlist the sympathy of the parent. If the pupil

respects the parent he will respect the teacher. The teacher should visit the parents without waiting for an invitation; by doing so he will obtain much information from the parent regarding habits and temperament of the pupil. Trustees should know the working of the school. Teaching should be more practical and less technical. The pupil should be taught to know and use himself. The teacher should give moral training; he has the best opportunities for doing so; the teacher must love his work in order to succeed.

WATERLOO COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE annual meeting of the above named association was held in the public school building, New Hamburg, February 26th and 27th. The President, Mr. J. W. Connor, M.A., in the chair. The forenoon of the first day was occupied in the disposing of general business.

In the afternoon, Mr. G. D. Lewis, of Ayr, gave a short address on "The new programme for teachers' certificates," in which he maintained that the maximum marks to be allowed for reading, penmanship, dictation and book-keeping are comparatively too low, and that the questions set should be easier, and the minimum marks raised.

Mr. Alexander, head master of the Galt model school, followed with an exhaustive and carefully prepared essay on "Ventilation in the school-room."

Dr. J. A. McLellan was then introduced to the Association, and gave his method of "Introducing fractions," in an exceedingly interesting and practical manner.

In the evening the Doctor addressed a very large and highly appreciative audience in the William Tell Hall: subject—"Education in Ontario." Throughout the entire lecture, which extended over two hours, the best of order prevailed. And from the interest manifested by all, his lecture did more for the benefit of education among all classes in the German village of New Hamburg than any influence that has yet been brought to bear upon that section of the country. At the close of the lecture a hearty vote of thanks was tendered the Doctor for his excellent address.

On Friday morning the committee on educational periodicals presented their report.

Dr. McLellan then took up the "Art of Questioning," and in order to more fully show his method of procedure formed the members into a class. In the afternoon the Doctor resumed his address, and concluded with a few remarks on "Psychology."

Mr. Suddaby, head master of the Berlin model school, followed with an excellent exposition of his method of teaching geography to junior classes.

Before adjourning the following resolutions were unanimously carried:—

1. "That this Association is pleased to know that the Honorable the Minister of Education has adopted the principle of one set of readers for the Province."

2. "That this Association heartily approves of the action of the Minister of Education in the creation of the office of 'conductor of teachers' institutes,' and that in our opinion it is a matter for congratulation that a gentleman so capable of discharging the duties of

the office as Dr. McLellan has been appointed to the position."

3. "That this Association highly approve of the Minister's contemplated plan for a literary and professional course of reading for the teachers of this Province."

A committee was appointed to consider the new Education Bill, and to send to the Minister such amendments as they may deem advisable.

The officers appointed for the following year are as follows:—President, Geo. D. Lewis; Vice-President, C. B. Linton; Sec.-Treas., Moses Dippel; Managing Comm., H. H. Burgess, D. Bergey, G. H. McGorman, D. Bean, and W. F. Chapman.

THE NEW DEPARTURE AT HARVARD.

By an almost unanimous vote the faculty of Harvard University have adopted a new scheme of entrance examinations, which will make it possible for a student to receive his diploma without ever having studied Greek. The scheme, which will go into effect in 1887, embraces two classes of studies—elementary and advanced; and a candidate for admission to the freshman class may, if he chooses, present himself for examination on all of the elementary studies with the exception of either Greek or Latin, and on at least four advanced studies with the same privilege as to Greek and Latin. There are other interesting features in the new scheme, but the option in regard to Greek will attract the most notice. And a sturdy fight will undoubtedly be made by the friends of the classics to recover the ground apparently lost by this action of the Harvard faculty.

THERE are 25,000 more children of school age in Philadelphia than the schools have room for.

W. J. ROLFE, the renowned Shakespearian scholar, who is finishing the editorship of the fortieth and last play of his series, has begun a course of lessons at the New England Conservatory.

A MOVEMENT is on foot to found a Christian University in the Northwest under the patronage of the Young Men's Christian Associations of Chicago, Milwaukee, Dubuque and St. Paul.

WE have received the information that the Brantford Collegiate Institute opened this year with an attendance of 230 pupils upon its roll, and that last year's attendance was the largest for a number of years.

THE American students at German universities now outnumber those from any non-German nation of Europe. The symptoms of overwork among German boys are short-sightedness and other diseases of the eye; this is so general that most travellers note it as a national characteristic. Not only do the majority of men who have studied wear glasses, but it is safe to say that one third of the school-boys wear them. It is said to be due to the intricacies of the German type; but poor ventilation, close application, and bad lighting cannot fail also to weaken the eyes, and the American boy escapes none of the primitiveness of German home and school life. — *Popular Science Monthly*.

Personals.

GENERAL.

Mrs. STOWE has requested her publishers, Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., to restore to her novel *Nina Gordon* its original title—*Dred*.

FRED BURNABY, says Mr. Edmund Yates, looked more like an Italian baritone than an English Guardsman. He had a pale, beardless face, a slight black mustache, a sweet smile and pleasant manners. He was always extraordinarily ill-dressed, frequently in black with a huge muffer round his throat.

A BOSTON lady recently invited Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes to one of her small receptions, and then half apologized to him, fearing he might think the invitation was inspired by a double motive. "Oh," said he, in his usual kindly manner, "use me just as you please. If I can be of any service to you, I shall be very glad."

J. W. Cross, the husband of George Eliot, passed the ten years of his life between 1862 and 1872 in New York, in the banking house of his uncle, William Wood, of the Board of Education. His relatives here and in England were strongly opposed to his marriage, and used all their influence to prevent it.

MR. JOSEPH WILSON SWAN, the electric light inventor, is described as a tall, handsome North of England man, of more than middle age, with a Jove-like cast of head, waving with long gray locks, and a pair of penetrating eyes gleaming from beneath bushy gray brows. His house, Lauriston, at Bromley, England, is probably more completely equipped with electric devices than any other in the world.

AMONG the messages of sympathy received by Mr. Edmund Yates, upon his imprisonment in Holloway jail, was one from "Our James"—meaning, of course, Mr. J. McN. Whistler. "You shall not take this occasion to forget us altogether," he wrote; "so I, for one, knowing from tradition, that others, distinguished under the same conditions of isolation, made for themselves pet companions, in their retirement, of plants and inferior animals—notably in the case of Picciola, where even a spider was his chosen—send you a butterfly that you shall cherish as an emblem of hope and joy. Drive it not from you, my dear Edmund, for it brings my best wishes and loyalty."

THE Glasgow *Mail* relates the following anecdote of General Gordon:—"In the last fortnight of his stay in England, before his departure for Khartoum, he met a beggar in the lanes of Hampshire, near Southampton; and that beggar, *more suo*, pitched to him a wondrous pitiful tale. Gordon had but one coin in his pocket, and that coin was a sovereign, which he readily subscribed for the benefit of the beggar. An hour later he discovered from a police constable that the beggar was a hoary impostor. Gordon immediately proceeded to select the thickest ash cudgel his house could supply. He walked fifteen miles, and succeeded in laying hands upon the delinquent, whom he trounced within a few inches of his life. Unfortunately he forgot to ask for the sovereign back again; and three days later he went to Khartoum."

Official Regulations.

REGULATIONS RESPECTING TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES FOR 1885

I. GENERAL.

1. THE certificates granted by the Education Department to those qualified to teach a Public School, shall be graduated as follows:—

- (a) Third-class, one grade, valid for three years.
(b) Second-class, two grades—A and B—valid during good behaviour.
(c) First-class, three grades—A, B, and C—also valid during good behaviour.

2. Every candidate for a certificate must (a) be at least eighteen years of age if a male, or at least seventeen years of age if a female; (b) furnish satisfactory proof of good moral character; (c) be a natural born or naturalized British subject; (d) pass the examination prescribed by the Education Department.

3. There shall be one examination in each year, under the direction of the Education Department, for determining the literary attainments of candidates for certificates, to be known as the non-professional examination.

II. THIRD CLASS CERTIFICATES.

4. The subjects for the third class non-professional examination and the marks assigned shall be as follows:—

	Value.	Minimum required.
1. Reading, oral	50	25
Reading, principles of	50	20
2. Writing	75	20
3. English Grammar	150	45
4. English Literature	150	45
5. Composition and Practical English	100	35
6. Dictation	50	20
7. Arithmetic and Mensuration	150	45
8. Mental Arithmetic	75	20
9. Algebra	100	25
10. Euclid	100	25
11. History, English and Canadian	100	25
12. Geography	100	25
13. Drawing	75	20
14. Book-keeping	75	20
15. Physics	75	20

5. Candidates taking Music will be allowed a bonus not exceeding seventy-five marks, which will be added to the aggregate of marks obtained in the obligatory subjects; such candidates will also be allowed to take, as an additional bonus subject, one—but not more than one—of the following:—Botany, 75 marks; or Latin, or French, or German, each 150 marks.

6. On taking the minimum number of marks in each subject and fifty per cent of the aggregate, a candidate shall be entitled to a third-class non-professional Certificate.

7. The standard above fixed may be varied by the Education department to suit the local wants of any County, on representation from the Board of Examiners for the County.

8. In addition to passing the examination as above, candidates for third-class professional certificates must attend a County Model School for at least one term, and pass the examination required in the regulations for County Model Schools.

9. Third class certificates may be renewed on re-examination, and the County Inspector may award marks (for efficiency and aptitude in teaching), not to exceed 200, to be added as a bonus to the aggregate number of marks obtained in non-professional subjects.

10. In case of an emergency, such as a scarcity of teachers, or for any other special cause, third-class certificates may be extended by the Education Department, on the joint request of any Board of Trustees and the County Inspector.

11. The requirements for the third-class non-professional examination will be limited to the following:—

Reading, Oral.—To read with proper expression, emphasis, inflection and force.

Reading, Principles of.—A general knowledge of the principles of elocution, with special reference to pronunciation. Candidates will do well to consult Ayres' *Orthoepist*.

Writing and Book-keeping.—In *Writing*, to be able to write neatly and legibly—a round hand preferred; in *Book-keeping*, single and double entry, commercial forms, general business transactions.

Spelling.—To be able to write correctly a passage dictated from any English author, and to spell all non-technical English words.

Grammar.—To be thoroughly acquainted with the definitions and grammatical forms and rules of syntax, and to be able to analyze and parse, with application of said rules, any sentence in prose or verse.

Composition and Practical English.—The framing of sentences. Familiar and business letters. Rendering of poetry into prose. Themes, synonyms and correction of errors. Consult Ayres' *Verbalist*.

History.—To have a good knowledge of the leading events of Canadian and English History.

Geography. To have a fair knowledge of political, physical and mathematical Geography. Map Geography generally; Canada and the British Empire more particularly.

English Literature.—The critical reading of such works as may be prescribed from time to time by the Education Department.

Arithmetic and Mensuration.—To be thoroughly familiar with Arithmetic in theory and practice. Areas of rectilinear figures, and volumes of right parallelepipeds and prisms. The circles, sphere, cylinder and cone. Mental Arithmetic (consult *Mental Arithmetic* by McLennan, Part II).

Algebra.—Elementary rules; factoring; greatest common measure; least common multiple; fractions; simple equations of one, two and three unknown quantities; simple problems.

Euclid.—Book I., with easy problems.

Physics. To be acquainted with the elements of Physics as treated in Huxley's *Introductory Science Primer* and Balfour Stewart's *Physics Primer*.

Drawing.—Freehand, Practical Geometry, Perspective and Industrial Designs.

Music.—Normal Music Course, Part II.

Botany.—The elements of Structural Botany with special reference to Canadian plants.

III.—SECOND CLASS CERTIFICATES.

12. The subjects for the second-class non-professional examination and the marks assigned shall be as follows:—

	Value.	Minimum required.
1. Reading, oral	50	25
Reading, principles of	50	20
2. Writing	75	20
3. English Grammar	200	75
4. English Literature	200	75
5. Composition and Practical English	150	55
6. Dictation	50	20
7. Mental Arithmetic	75	20
8. Arithmetic and Mensuration	200	75
9. Algebra	150	45
10. Euclid	150	45
11. History, English and Canadian	100	25
12. Geography	100	25
13. Drawing	75	20
14. Book-keeping	75	20
15. Physics	150	40
16. Chemistry	75	20

13. (a) Candidates taking Music will be allowed a bonus not exceeding 75 marks, which will be added to the aggregate of marks obtained in obligatory subjects; such candidates will also be allowed to take, as an additional bonus subject, one—but not more than one—of the following:—Botany, 75 marks; or Latin, or French, or German, each 150 marks.

(b) The following option will be allowed at the examination in 1885 only, viz.:—Candidates for

Second-Class Certificates may take Latin, or French, or German *instead of* Chemistry, Statics and Hydrostatics. These languages, if taken as *options*, cannot, of course, be reckoned as *bonus* subjects. In all languages, papers in grammar and composition will be set.

The minimum percentage will be exacted on each of the two papers in the several languages.

14. Candidates obtaining the minimum number of marks in each subject and fifty per cent of the aggregate shall be awarded grade B of the Second Class; those obtaining the minimum and sixty per cent of the aggregate shall be awarded grade A of the Second Class.

15. In addition to passing the non-professional examination above prescribed, candidates for a Second Class Certificate must (a) have taught a Public School successfully for at least one year, (b) attend for one session a Provincial Normal School, and (c) pass such professional examination thereat as may have been prescribed by the Education Department.

16. Candidates writing for Second Class Certificates will take the following course, as well as that required for Third Class:—

Composition and Practical English.—Candidates may consult Hodgson's *Errors in the Use of English*.

Algebra.—Elementary rules; factoring; elementary notions on symmetry, with easy applications; greatest common measure; least common multiple; square root; fractions; surds; simple equations of one, two and three unknown quantities; easy quadratics; problems.

Euclid.—Books I. and II., with easy problems.

Chemistry.—Combustion. The structure and properties of flame. Nature and composition of ordinary fuel.—The atmosphere. Its constitution. Effects of animal and vegetable life on its composition.—Water. Chemical peculiarities of natural waters, such as rain-water, river-water, spring-water, sea-water.—Hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, carbon, chlorine, sulphur, phosphorus, and their more important compounds.—Combining proportions by weight and by volume. Symbols and nomenclature.

Physics.—The same as for Third Class, with the addition of Statics and Hydrostatics.

Optional Subjects for Second Class.

Music.—Normal Music Course, Part II.

Botany.—The elements of Structural Botany with special reference to Canadian plants.

Latin.—The accidence and the principal rules of syntax and prosody; exercises; retranslation into Latin of easy passages; portions of works in prose and verse as prescribed from time to time.

French.—The accidence and the principal rules of syntax; exercises; French authors as prescribed from time to time; rudiments of conversation.

German.—The accidence and the principal rules of syntax; exercises; portions of German authors, as prescribed from time to time; retranslation of easy passages into German; rudiments of conversation.

IV. FIRST CLASS CERTIFICATES.

17. In order to be qualified to receive a First Class Certificate, the Candidate must have obtained a Second Class Certificate, and must have passed such professional and non-professional examination for First Class Certificates as may be prescribed.

(To be continued.)

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Haultain, Theodore Arnold, M.A. *A Letter to Archbishop Lynch, Embodying a Critique of Cardinal Newman's Exposition of the Illation Sense.* Toronto: Williamson & Co. Price 25 cents.

Wide Awake; the Christmas, January, February and March numbers. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.; Charles Stuart Pratt and Ella Farman Pratt, editors.

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