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No. 22.

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## OFFICIAL CALENDAR

—OF THE—

Educational  
Department

ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS, 1894.

## Notices.

April 1. Application for Specialists' Certificates of all grades to Department due.

Last day for receiving applications for examination of candidates not in attendance at the Ontario School of Pedagogy.

Return by Clerks of counties, cities, etc., of population to Department, due. [P. S. Act, sec. 129].

Applications for examinations for Specialists' certificates of all grades to Department, due.

April 2. High Schools open (third term). [H. S. Act, sec. 42].

Public and Separate Schools in cities, towns and incorporated villages open after Easter holidays. [P. S. Act, sec. 173 (2); S. S. Act, sec. 79 (2)].

April 15. Reports on Night Schools due (session 1893-4).

April 23. Art School Examinations begin.

April 26. Toronto University Examinations in Law begin.

May 1. Applications from candidates for the High School Entrance, Commercial and Public School Leaving Examinations to Inspectors due.

May 3. Inspectors to report to Department number of candidates for same.

May 24. Applications for the High School Primary, Junior and Senior Leaving Examinations and University Pass and Honor Matriculation Examinations to Inspectors due.

May 25. Inspectors to report to Department number of candidates for same.

## Examinations.

May 1. Examinations for Specialists' Certificates (except Commercial) at Toronto University begin.

June 27. High School Primary Examination in Oral Reading Drawing, Bookkeeping and Commercial course begin.

June 28. High School Entrance Examinations begin.

Public School Leaving Examinations begin.

Kindergarten Examinations at Toronto, Ottawa and Hamilton begin.

July 3. The High School Primary, Junior Leaving and University Pass Matriculation and Scholarship Examinations begin.

The Commercial Specialists' Examinations at Toronto begin.

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TORONTO, APRIL 2, 1894.

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## Editorial Notes.

IN Ontario the average salary of a male teacher in 1892 was \$421, that of a female, \$297.

The number of teachers employed in the Public Schools of Ontario has increased in the last twenty-five years from 4,890 to 8,480, yet the number of male teachers is only about the same as in 1867. The figures now are, males 2770, females 5,710.

THE school population of Ontario for 1893 was 595,238, a decrease of 5,974 as compared with that of 1887, notwithstanding the fact that there were 545 more children under the age of five years enrolled in the former than in the latter year.

ONTARIO, notwithstanding our pride in our school system, has but one teacher to every 250 of her population. This means an average of 57 pupils to each teacher. The teaching force of the Province, in proportion to the number of pupils, is relatively weaker than that of any State in the American Union, or of any other Province, save British Columbia.

WE have on hand several interesting and useful papers on practical subjects, including answers to correspondents, for the English Department, for which we have been unable to find room in this number. We shall give as many of them as possible in next number. Some of them are notes on literature lessons, which have

been prepared in answer to requests from subscribers.

FROM the Report of the Minister of Education for 1893 it appears that nearly 50 per cent. of all the school-houses in Ontario are now constructed of either brick or stone. The log school-house has almost entirely disappeared. In some cases, says the Minister, "many of them, I fear, quite inexcusable the school grounds are still inadequate, and, notwithstanding the enthusiasm of teachers in tree-planting, many schools have not yet complied with the regulations respecting Arbor Day." In many cases, too, the sanitary arrangements are quite inferior. This is unpardonable. One would suppose that parents, whatever they might suffer to be neglected, would see to it that the health of their children was duly protected in the schools in which they spend so large a part of their lives during their school years.

WE are indebted to Miss Nellie Spence, of Parkdale Collegiate Institute, for a valuable article on the Hungarian patriot, Kossuth, which appears in this number. The article is, Miss Spence informs us, an expansion of a sketch which she wrote for the *Globe* and which appeared in that journal a few weeks since. The fine portrait which accompanies the sketch is reproduced on a smaller scale from that which appeared in the *Globe* in connection with the article referred to. The article will, we are sure, be appreciated. It will throw light on the intense feeling which has been caused in Hungary by Kossuth's death, and which has caused violent outbreaks by students and other young Hungarians against those in the cities who attempted to carry on business during the days which intervened between his death and burial, instead of closing their places of business as a tribute to his memory.

GOOD progress is being made in the examination of the competing time-tables. The examiners—Principal McCabe, of Ottawa Normal School; Principal Kirkland, of Toronto Normal School; and J. J. Tilley, Esq., Inspector of County Model Schools—are examining and comparing them carefully and thoroughly. The task is a somewhat formidable one, requiring a good deal of time and labor, but they hope

to finish it in time to enable us to announce the names of the successful competitors in our next number—that for April 15th. The names of the Examiners, who have so kindly consented to act, will be accepted, we are sure, as the best guarantee that the award will be just and satisfactory, and, if the result is, as we may hope, to give to the teachers of the Province a better scheme for the arrangement of their classes and the carrying on of their work than now exists, both the Donor of the prizes and the Committee of Award will have earned the gratitude of every Public School teacher in the Province.

The "Professor's Gossip," in the Saturday numbers of the *Globe* often contain valuable educational hints. We must protest, however, against the following statement in one of his recent articles, as, to say the least, altogether too sweeping.

"One great mistake made in all our schools, from our universities down, is that we reverse the terms, 'education' and 'instruction.' Instead of expending his energies in drawing out the latent powers of the child, the teacher struggles to load his memory with facts and statements."

There are, no doubt, still too many teachers in our schools of all grades of whom this statement is, in a large measure, true. But we doubt whether there is any country in which a larger proportion of the teachers of all grades have clear conceptions of the true work of the educator, or are trying more faithfully to realize a high ideal of that work as a process of mind development. We are not prepared to say that this high aim is not pursued in many cases under difficulties, arising in part from the rigidity of the examination system, and in part, it may be, from the example and influence of our chief university, which still adheres pretty closely, we believe, to the European lecture system, under which the work of the class-room is necessarily a work of instruction rather than of education. On the other hand we are glad to know of many teachers in both Public and High Schools whose daily work in the class-room exemplifies the inductive and development methods in their best form. When we read the "Professor's" stricture we could not resist the conviction that he was describing the Canadian Schools of twenty-five or thirty years ago, not those of 1894.

## English.

All articles and communications intended for this department should be addressed to the ENGLISH EDITOR, EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL, Room 20, 11¼ Richmond Street West, Toronto.

## ENGLISH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE National Education Association of the United States, at their meeting on July 9th, 1892, appropriated \$2,500 to defray the expenses of a committee on Secondary School Studies. Nine sub-committees were appointed by the Chief Committee of Ten, one sub-committee being devoted to each subject of the secondary school course. The acceptance of the chairmanship of the Chief Committee by President Eliot, of Harvard, having in co-operation the U. S. Commissioner of Education, W. T. Harris, and prominent educationists such as Angell, Tetlow, Taylor, and on the General Committee the assistance of ninety of the most prominent specialists of the United States, made the report of their conferences, which has recently been issued by the United States Bureau of Education, the most valuable document on Secondary Education ever issued on this continent.

On the sub-committee for English were Professor Allen, of Missouri University; Barbour, of Michigan State Normal School; Professor Blackburn, University of Chicago; Professor Bradley, University of California; Professor Gummere, Haverford College; Professor Hale, University of Iowa; Professor Kittredge, Harvard; Loos, of Dayton High School; Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools, Brooklyn; Thurber, of Boston High School. The English conference met at Vassar Coll., Poughkeepsie, on the 28th to the 30th of December, 1892. The report of their conclusions, as drawn up May 13th, 1893, is appended. In the present revision of the English curriculum in our Secondary Schools no more interesting and valuable paper could be brought forward in criticism.

## ENGLISH.

To the Committee of Ten:

The Conference on the Study of English has the honor to submit the following report:

The Conference was called to order on Wednesday, December 28th, 1892, at quarter of eleven a.m., by Professor Allen. Principal Thurber was elected Chairman and Professor Kittredge, Secretary. The Conference remained in session till half past three o'clock Friday, December 30th, when it adjourned *sine die*. Every member was present at the deliberations and took part in debate. The results embodied in the present report were arrived at after much discussion, and represent in all but a few points of minor importance the unanimous opinion of the Conference. The subjects which the Conference thought were included in its commission are those usually taught in schools under the names of English Language, English Grammar, Composition, Rhetoric, and English Literature. Elocution appeared to lie outside of the subjects which the meeting was convened to discuss.

The main direct objects of the teaching of English in schools seem to be two: (1) to enable the pupil to understand the expressed thoughts of others and to give expression to thoughts of his own; and (2) to cultivate a taste for reading, to give the pupil some acquaintance with good literature, and to furnish him with the means of extending that acquaintance. Incidentally, no doubt, a variety of other ends may be subserved by English study, but such subsidiary interests should never be allowed to encroach on the two main purposes just indicated. Further, though it may be

necessary to consider these main purposes separately in the report or even to separate them formally in the statement of a programme, yet in practice they should never be dissociated in the mind of the teacher, and their mutual dependence should be kept constantly present to the mind of the pupils. The recommendations of the Conference should all be interpreted in accordance with these general principles, which were never lost sight of in its debates.

The recommendations of the Conference fall naturally into two divisions: (1) English in schools below the high school grade, and (2) English in the high school.

## I.—THE STUDY OF ENGLISH IN SCHOOLS BELOW THE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE.

If the pupil is to secure control of the language as an instrument for the expression of his thoughts, it is necessary (1) that during the period of life when imitation is the chief motive principal in education, he should be kept so far as possible away from the influence of bad models and under the influence of good models, and (2) that every thought which he expresses, whether orally or on paper, should be regarded as a proper subject for criticism as to language. Thus every lesson in geography, or physics, or mathematics, may and should become a part of the pupil's training in English. There can be no more appropriate moment for a brief lesson in expression than the moment when the pupil has something which he is trying to express. If this principle is not regarded, a recitation in history or in botany, for example, may easily undo all that a set exercise in English has accomplished. In order that both teacher and pupil may attach due importance to this incidental instruction in English, the pupil's standing in any subject should depend in part on his use of clear and correct English.

In addition to this incidental training, appropriate special instruction in English should form a part of the curriculum from the beginning. For convenience this special instruction may be considered under three heads: (a) "language" and composition, (b) formal or systematic grammar, (c) reading, or lessons in literature.

A. "Language" and Composition. — During the first two years at school, children may acquire some fluency of expression by reproducing orally in their own words stories told them by their teachers and by inventing stories about objects and pictures.

Not later than the first term of the third school-year children should begin to compose in writing. To assist them in overcoming mechanical difficulties (as of punctuation, the use of capitals, etc.) they should be required to copy and to write from dictation and from memory short and easy passages of prose and verse.

From the beginning of the third to the end of the sixth school-year, "language-work" should be of three kinds:

1. Oral and written exercises in the correct employment of the forms of the so-called "irregular" verbs, of pronominal forms, and of words and phrases frequently misused.

2. Oral and written exercises in the most elementary form of composition, that is, in the construction of sentences of various kinds. The matter out of which the sentences are to be constructed may, if necessary, be supplied by the teacher; but the pupil should, from his earliest years, be encouraged to furnish his own material, expressing his own thoughts in a natural way. The greatest care should be taken to make these exercises practical rather than technical and to avoid the errors of the old-fashioned routine method of instruction in grammar.

3. The writing of narratives and descriptions. — These exercises should begin with the third school-year and should be continued throughout the course. The subjects assigned should gradually increase in difficulty: in the seventh and eighth school-years, if not earlier, they may often be suggested by the pupil's observation or personal experience. The paraphrasing of poetry

is not to be commended as an exercise in prose composition: it is often of value to require the pupil to tell or write, in his own words, the story of some narrative poem; but the reducing of lyric poetry to prose is hardly to be defended. Pains should be taken, from the outset, to enlarge and improve the child's vocabulary by suggesting to him, for the expression of his thoughts, better words than those he may himself have chosen. He should be trained to perceive the larger divisions of thought which are conventionally indicated by paragraphs. The teacher should bear in mind that the necessity of correctness in the formation of sentences and paragraphs is like the necessity of accurate addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division in mathematical work, and that composition proper,—the grouping of sentences and paragraphs,—as well as development of a central idea, should never be taught until this basis of correct sentences is attained.

Spelling should be learned incidentally, in connection with every subject studied, and not from a spelling-book.

Compositions and all other written exercises should receive careful and appropriate criticism, and the staff of instructors should be large enough to protect every teacher from an excess of this peculiarly exacting and fatiguing work.

B. Formal and systematic Grammar. — Not earlier than the thirteenth year of the pupil's age the study of formal grammar, with drill in fundamental analysis, may be taken up. It should not be pursued as a separate study longer than is necessary to familiarize the pupil with the main principles. Probably a single year (not more than three hours a week) will be sufficient. Subsequently, although grammatical analysis (as an instrument of interpretation and of criticism) may properly accompany reading and the study of composition, it should not be regarded as a separate subject in the curriculum.

The teaching of formal grammar should aim principally to enable the pupil (1) to recognize the parts of speech, and (2) to analyze sentences both as to structure and as to syntax. Routine parsing should be avoided, and exercises in the correction of false syntax should be sparingly resorted to.

The study of word-analysis (etymology),—including the subjects of root-words, prefixes, and terminations—should not form a separate subject in the grammar-school course. All instructions in these matters should be incidental.

With regard to the study of formal grammar the Conference wishes to lay stress on three points: (1) a student may be taught to speak and write good English without receiving any special instruction in formal grammar; (2) the study of formal grammar is valuable as training in thought, but has only an indirect bearing on the art of writing and speaking; and (3) the teaching of formal grammar should be as far as possible incidental and should be brought into close connection with the pupil's work in reading and composition. These principles explain the considerable reduction recommended by the Conference in the amount of time allowed to this study.

C. Reading, or Lessons in Literature. — Reading-books should be of a literary character and should not attempt to teach physical science or natural history. They should make very sparing use of sentimental poetry.

From the beginning of the third year at school, the pupil should be required to supplement his regular reading-book with other reading matter of a distinctly literary kind. At the beginning of the seventh school-year the reading-book may be discarded, and the pupil should henceforth read literature,—prose and narrative poetry in about equal parts. Complete works should usually be studied. When extracts must be resorted to, these should be long enough to possess a unity of their own and to serve as a fair specimen of an author's style and method. Children should be taught to read distinctly and with expression, but without exaggeration or mannerisms. They should be taught to comprehend the subject-matter as a whole and to



grasp the significance of parts, as well as to discover and appreciate beauties of thought and expression. Due attention should be paid to what are sometimes thoughtlessly regarded as points of pedantic detail, such as the elucidation of involved sentences, the expansion of metaphors into similes and the compression of similes into metaphors, the tracing of historical and other references, and a study of the denotation and connotation of single words. Such details are necessary if the pupil is to be brought to anything but the vaguest understanding of what he reads, and there is no danger that an intelligent teacher will allow himself to be dominated by them. It should not be forgotten that in these early years of his training the pupil is forming habits of reading and of thought which will either aid him for the rest of his life, or of which he will by-and-by have to cure himself with painful effort.

In the opinion of the Conference it is expedient that the English work during the last two years of the grammar-school course (including formal grammar, reading, and composition) should be in the hands of a special teacher or teachers. But the appointment of such teacher or teachers should not be held to excuse the instructors in other subjects from the oversight of the English of their pupils. It is only by cordial co-operation in all departments that satisfactory results in this direction can be obtained. To the lack of such joint effort the present unsatisfactory condition of English study in the schools and colleges may be in great part ascribed.

(Concluded in next Number.)

MONOTONOUS READING.

M. A. WATT.

At the beginning of the New Year, many teachers find themselves wondering what they can do to improve the reading of their new class. How are we to encourage the children to read with expression and not make them feel timid because of fear of criticism? The improvement must be from within the child, not from without by drill and example (though these must not be entirely set aside), and the child must be left free to improve according to his own natural bent. These thoughts tend to make the teacher timid. She dreads lowering the child's self-opinion by criticising him. Such a case having occurred not long since, let us make a concrete example of it for the benefit perhaps of other teachers who may be facing this trouble this term. A teacher taking charge of a docile class, for the first time, asked a little girl in the front seat to read. The lesson was the "Inchcape Rock," selected, as the words were easy, for a first lesson. The girl rose, and, in perfect position, book in left hand, right hand by side, she read the first stanza, in a straightforward, get-through-it manner, and sat down. Before the teacher could speak, the next girl rose and despatched the second stanza in like manner, followed by the third girl who threw the third stanza behind her and sat down, the fourth taking up the strain and so on, the class evidently doing as they were used to doing. There was no expression, but a marked repetition of an emphasized syllable in each line, and a monotonous rising and falling of the voice very soothing in its effect. Though dismayed at the prospect before her, the peculiarity and regularity of the performance gave the teacher a certain odd sensation of pleasure, and she allowed them to read through and begin again without remark. While they were disposing of the poem for the second time, the evident intention being that each child should read his or her stint in the given lesson time, the teacher set her mind to work upon a plan for changing the style of reading, and her first decision was that there must be no more four-line stanzas for some time. She looked over the Reader to find a lesson that would be new to her class, not too difficult either in words or thought, and of stirring incident. "The French at Ratisbon" seeming to be suit-

able, she decided to try that as a basis for an attempt at reading with a view to bring out the author's meaning, rather than to string words together and get through a certain amount so that each pupil could "read" in a lesson-time. What could she do first so that the pupils could see through the outer barrier of word-husks to the thought? She saw them looking at the words to see if they knew them, that evidently being their ultimatum. She diverted their attention to the picture, told them a few facts about Napoleon, told them that a General did not usually fight, but stood off at a distance and directed operations, encouraged a few who asked pertinent questions, and then, without looking at her book, she recited the first stanza, as though she were the narrator of the story. So far all was well, but the second stanza seemed to be words and words only to the class, the first four lines being absolutely without meaning to them. The teacher gathered together all her powers of simplifying and made the lines over into many different forms, using common words for *mused*, *soar*, *waver*, *army-leader*, and by dint of word and gesture, she had the satisfaction of seeing her class had grasped the idea of Napoleon standing, thinking aloud, expressing his fear of defeat, and that he was interrupted before he had completed his sentence by the appearance of a rider. This rider, by the aid of a little mystery and wondering, and asking the class who could it be and how and wherefore he galloped out, became the centre of their thoughts, and the words became secondary. The work seemed now to become easy, and the teacher, after finishing the story, called on certain children to read. But alas! "Rome was not built in a day!" The heavy drone of words arose upon the air and the teacher's high hopes fell below zero! She had the sense to conceal her feeling, and after hearing three pupils read she closed her book and told the children that next day she would have the same lesson. She would like them to read the story over at home to themselves and she intended to give five extra marks to anyone who would read it very nicely next day, but the chief thing about the reading was to be the expression, for no one who did not make the meaning clear was to receive the five extra marks.

Next day the class were full of interest but shy, and when the teacher called for those who were ready to read and earn the promised reward, it was a little while before a hand was shown. Seeing this, the teacher, who had intended to be very difficult to suit, determined to be lenient and so gave the ambitious youth five marks for his earnest but rather deficient effort. This gave encouragement to several others, who endeavored to express the story in spite of the words. But on the whole the result was disappointing, and the teacher thought of changing the lesson and giving up the fight against "mused," "soar," "a boy you hardly could suspect;" "Perched him! the chief's eye flashed," "a film the mother-eagle's eye," "you're wounded," "Nay his soldier's pride," and other combinations of like evident significance which the children persisted in grouping together. But, just as she had the words on her lips to announce a new lesson, the thought came, "There must be a beginning, and it will be a bad habit to give them to be leaving their work in such poor shape as this, and starting new work, and this is just as good a lesson as any, so I'll just stick to this for a while." So she rose to the occasion, and selecting the most evidently senseless combination as given above, she dissected it, caused the class to see the meaning, and drilled them by repetition until tongues expressed the meaning. "Mother-eagle's eye" gave them a great deal of trouble, and it required a good deal of patience and drill to get their vocal organs around the first four lines of the last stanza. The class, strange to say, kept up an interest, and the expression of the readers became livelier as it became more difficult to get the five extra marks. If the teacher read the poem the marks became much harder to get, because she said she read it "just

as well as she could, and of course that gave the next readers an advantage over all former competitors." By the fourth lesson day she had given all an opportunity to show what they could do, and had chosen "Bingen on the Rhine" for a new lesson, saying that she would come back to "The French at Ratisbon" some time when they thought she had forgotten it, and she would see who could read it well then. She is going to get the children to read little stories, simple enough as to words for the junior classes, but of interest to themselves, so that the thought will be greater than the words, and when they write stories for composition she will encourage them to read them aloud. But one thing she is bound to do and that is "stick to it." May she be successful.

Question Drawer.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL:

On page 823, (March 1) No. 29, a correspondent asks, "What is the best way of finding the number of feet, board measure, in 8 boards, 19 feet long, 16 inches wide, and 2 1/2 inches thick?"

This is my way. One foot board measure = 1 ft. x 1 ft. x 1 in. : 16 in. wide and 1 in. thick would be 1 1/3 ft. for 1 ft. length. 16 in. wide and 2 1/2 thick would be 1 1/3 x 2 1/2 for each foot length. Each board would be 1 1/3 x 2 1/2 x 19 ft., and 8 boards would contain 1 1/3 x 2 1/2 x 19 x 8 = 506 2/3 ft.

In the same way to find lumber required for a picket fence, with pickets 3 ft. x 3 in. x 1 in. placed 2 in. apart; 2 scantling 4 x 2 in. and baseboard 14 in. wide. Find how much lumber in one foot of fence.

Every 5 ft. of fence will contain

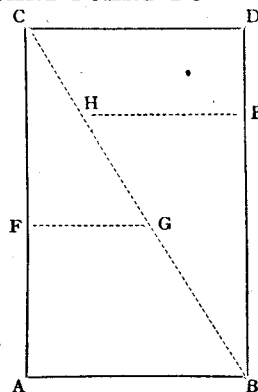
12 pickets of 8 x 1/2 x 1	=	9
2 x 5 x 1/2 x 2 of scantling	=	6 2/3
5 x 1/2 of baseboard	=	5 1/2
		21 1/3

1 ft. will contain 21 1/3 ÷ 5 = 4 1/3  
Multiply by number of feet in fence.

J. H. KNIGHT,  
P. S. Inspector.

Lindsay, March 10th, 1894.

CARD-BOARD PUZZLE.



This puzzle is easily explained. The segments when united do not make a square. Lines FG and HE each measures 3.077" nearly.

The Δ ABC and FCG being similar, ∴ (AC)<sup>2</sup> 169 : (FC)<sup>2</sup> 64 ∴ area of Δ ABC (82.5) : area of Δ FCG, i e. 12.8077.

12.8077 ÷ 4 (the half of side FC) = 3.077" nearly. To form a square with the segments these lines should measure each 3" exactly.

LULU WALLACE,  
Teacher, Chippawa P S.

Do NOT worry when the working spirit appears to have left the school-room and the demon of unrest and mischief has taken possession. Stop. Inquire the cause. See if the physical conditions of the school-room are all right. Remember that physical comfort has more to do with a child's ability to give attention than we generally acknowledge. When "memory gems" songs and good advice, do not make angels of the children, try what fresh air and school-room exercise will do. A good, sensible, sympathetic, human teacher will do wonders towards restoring the working spirit to a school-room.—The Educational Review.

# The Educational Journal

PUBLISHED SEMI-MONTHLY.

A JOURNAL DEVOTED TO LITERATURE, SCIENCE, ART,  
AND THE ADVANCEMENT OF THE TEACHING  
PROFESSION IN CANADA.

J. E. WELLS, M.A., EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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## Editorials.

TORONTO, APRIL 1, 1894

### WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS.

OUR thoughtful readers will no doubt have read with interest Mr. Millar's exhaustive discussion of the vexed question of written examinations, whether they are able to agree in all respects with his conclusions or not. To many of the opinions and arguments advanced most teachers will readily assent. We have published from time to time so much on both sides, or rather on all sides, of the subject, that it would be superfluous to enter further into it at any length at present. We may, however, venture, not at all in a controversial spirit, a few observations on one or two special points.

It would almost suffice for our purpose to emphasize at the outset Mr. Millar's statement, so clearly made or implied, that almost everything depends upon the kind of questions set by the Examiners, and as we should like to add, upon their methods of estimating the values of answers. When we at one time had a good deal to do with observing the methods and results of the examinations conducted in connection with the University of Toronto, we were forced to the conclusion that the work of examining for such an institution should be made a profession of itself. Certainly the results of appointing young honor graduates, clever specialists though they might be in their own departments, were often far from satisfactory from the educational point of view. We have known certain students to take easily first-class standings

in a given year, while other students from the same institution, who were both cleverer and better prepared, might barely succeed in obtaining second-class honors in the same subject in the following year. The difference was, of course, not in the students but in the examiners. The value of such examinations as qualifying tests may be readily estimated.

"If the questions are of the proper kind, the teacher who prepares his pupils to pass such examinations will render service of a higher educational value than the one who ignores them from a vain impression that he has acquired superior talents for inspiring a love of learning for its own sake." But is this necessarily a *vain* impression? Would not the true teacher, whose heart is in his work, and who knows his students individually, be able to inspire them with a love of learning for its own sake more effectually when free to follow his own judgment, than when constantly working under the shadow of an examination, the character and scope of which he can but dimly guess. It would be interesting to have the testimony of teachers of large experience and known ability on the point. Perhaps we might apply a good practical test by asking how many High School Masters of that class are there among our readers who do not believe that they could do much better educational work if they were free to follow their own courses and methods than they can now do under the necessity of keeping the University and Departmental Examinations constantly in view. We should really like to hear the verdict of experience on the question.

Whatever differences of opinion may exist with regard to the influence and value of written examinations by others than the teacher, as tests of qualification, or of fitness for promotion, there is one point upon which we are sure all good teachers will be unanimous. It is that written examinations by the teacher himself, or herself, as one of the constant methods of class-room training, are simply indispensable. The pen is an educational instrument which can hardly be too frequently in use. It compels clearness of thought and expression on the part of the pupil such as cannot be attained otherwise. What is more common than to hear students and others, when asked to define or explain a given principle or process, say, after, perhaps, two or three confused and ineffectual attempts, "I understand it, but I cannot explain it." We deceive ourselves in such cases. If we understand a thing clearly and have any ordinary knowledge of language, we can surely put our conceptions into words. At any rate we make bold to say that the teacher can never be sure that the pupil really understands any matter that is a little difficult or complicated, until he has tested him by asking him to put his thought into clear language on paper. In our opinion written exercises should have about as large a place in every school room as oral recitation. Compelling precision in expression, they promote clearness of thought, and the power and habit of clear thinking are the beginning, the middle, and the end of true education.

### THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO.

THE following extract from the Educational Report of 1893 is interesting, as showing the development and tendencies of the High School system of Ontario:

"For fifteen years the number of High Schools in the Province was all but stationary. Starting with 103 in 1867, the number still stood at 104 in 1882. Since that time there has been a steady increase, until in 1892 the number was 128. During the last decade Collegiate Institutes increased from 16 in 1882 to 33 in 1892.

The increased attendance of pupils is equally satisfactory. For fifteen years, beginning with 1867, the number of pupils increased from 5,696 to 12,348, or an increase of 6,652. From 1882 to 1892, a period of ten years, the increase was 10,489. The whole number in attendance in 1892 was four times the attendance in 1867, or to put it in another form, in 1867, about 1 per cent. of the school population of the Province between the ages of five and twenty-one years attended a High School. In 1892, about 4 per cent. of the school population was enrolled in a High School. The number of pupils enrolled in our High Schools alone represented a trifle over 1 per cent. of the entire population of the Province; in the United States the enrolment of the same class of pupils was only .58 per cent.; the enrolment in the schools of Prussia was slightly in excess of Ontario, viz., 1.2 per cent. In the matter of expenditure for teachers' salaries and for the improvement of school sites and buildings, the liberality of the ratepayers has been extraordinary. From an average of \$600 paid per teacher in 1867, salaries have increased until in 1892 they amounted to \$904 per teacher. During the last ten years alone, forty-five High Schools of unsurpassed architectural beauty and convenience, and equipped with all modern appliances, have been erected, twenty-five have had additions made to them and many old buildings substantially repaired. The tendency to cast a certain portion of the burdens of their education on the pupils and proportionately to relieve the ratepayers, appears to be growing from year to year. In 1882, the amount collected from fees amounted to 11 per cent. of the teachers' salaries. In 1892, the pupils' fees amounted to 21 per cent. of the teachers' salaries. The amount of fees collected now is almost equivalent to the appropriation made by the legislature for High School purposes. In 1867, the fees represented only 28 per cent. of the Government appropriation.

The High School teachers are to be congratulated on the very encouraging improvement in the important matter of salaries. An average of \$904 is certainly not too high a figure in view of the qualifications demanded, but the discrepancy between the above average and that of the salaries of the Public School teachers given in another column is startling. The difference is accounted for mainly, no doubt, by the two considerations of qualification and permanence. No thoughtful person can

believe that there ought to be so great a difference in point of educational qualification as is indicated by these figures. Thorough culture is, to our thinking, as essential to proper teaching of reading or English grammar as of Latin or algebra. The question of high qualification is closely connected with that of permanence. Most High School teachers enter the profession to remain in it. The moral easily deduced is that it is in the interest of Public School teachers, even from the most selfish point of view, if they mean to continue in the work, to aid every effort to raise higher and still higher the standard of qualification.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL LAW OF READING AND WRITING.

UNDER the above heading Mr. Horace E. Scudder contributed an excellent article to the February number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Following is an extract:

"The first speech of children is imitative; we recognize the fact in all our attempts to teach them to talk. Whether we say sentences over to them, or they overhear the speech about them, it is all one; they form their own words and sentences upon the model that is presented. When the child comes to school, we continue the process; we set it examples to copy, we form its oral and written expression upon our own, but we know perfectly well that the child's expression is also formed upon the models which are or are not deliberately placed before it. Every teacher knows that in correcting faulty sentences, mispronunciations, inelegances of words and phrases she is contending with all the defective speech of the neighborhood. It is a commonplace of education that nothing more quickly discloses the child's home than its form of speech, and it is the despair of teachers that they are called upon, in the formal, brief lessons of the schoolroom, to overcome the influences which are in the very air the child breathes all the rest of the day.

Accepting then, this great fact of imitation as the basis upon which to build our educational law of writing, see to what it leads us instantly. It is clear that we are to give the child, from the beginning to the close of its school course, the best and purest models. In our own speech we are to be clear, accurate, and, if we can, beautiful; but what a mighty reinforcement we bring when, day after day, week after week, month after month, year after year, we permit the boy and girl freely to listen to the masters of English speech! They are too uncritical as yet to distinguish in rhetorical terms between imperfect and correct English, but they are not insensible to the difference between the liquid English of Hawthorne, Longfellow, and Whittier and the uncouth speech of their fellows. Little by little they will perceive, though they may not put it into language, the difference between the unsullied English of great writers and the ungainly, uncultivated English of the ordinary newspaper. This sensitiveness to the charm of style is indeed most evident when one listens to pure English

from the lips of one whose nature is refined to expression, and whose voice is a tuneful instrument; but under less favorable conditions, when for instance one is reading a work of fine prose poorly printed upon coarse paper, the charm of style will hold one. But the capacity thus to be affected by great literature is largely a cultivated one, and therefore I say that the pupil who for ten years, say from six to sixteen, has read steadily in the writings of those who use the English tongue with grace and strength has had an immense advantage in acquiring not only a taste for good literature, but a power also of expressing himself in honest English. I set the highest value on this aid in writing and speech, because—and I think teachers of experience will agree with me—it seems almost impossible, in our school years, to do more in the formal exercise of writing than to teach the avoidance of glaring error, and the acquisition of an expression which is negatively good. For the rest the fine choice of words, the forcible structure of sentences, the regard for all the delicate shades of expression,—that is out of the question. It is all out of the question so far as formal training is concerned, and we may as well not attempt it; but these graces come to one here and one there who is gifted with a penetrating ear, a sense of harmony, and they will be immensely stimulated by constant converse with the flutists, the violinists, the organists, of our great English speech. Not only so, but I am convinced that the great rank and file of our schoolchildren would gain in the power of language which comes from the unconscious imitation of well-bred masters of language."

#### THE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE annual meeting of the Ontario Educational Association is being held as we are making ready for the press. As our space is necessarily filled, and time would be wanting even had we the space, we cannot of course give our report in this number. It will keep for the next. Most of the subjects discussed do not grow old. They are perennially fresh to teachers. The meeting is pronounced by some prominent members of the Association the best which has yet been held. The number of delegates in attendance has been estimated by the press at about five hundred. The papers read and addresses delivered have been of a high order, while the work done and conclusions reached in the different sections can scarcely fail to be beneficial to the various departments of educational work represented. The Association and the teachers of the Province whom it represents, are to be congratulated on its growing strength and importance. Already the influence of the Association, in moulding educational opinion and bringing it to bear in shaping educational legislation is considerable. This is as it should be. There is no other body so well fitted to speak with wisdom and authority upon all matters pertaining to either the theory or the practice of public education in the Province, and there is no sufficient reason why the Association should

not become, if it is not already, the most potent agency in shaping the policy and legislation of the elementary and secondary schools, and to a considerable extent of its colleges and universities as well.

We hope to be enabled to publish in early numbers of the JOURNAL such of the papers and addresses as are likely to be of interest to all or the great majority of our subscribers.

#### CONVEYING CHILDREN TO SCHOOL.

THE following is one of the clauses of the Massachusetts' School Law:

"Any town in this commonwealth may raise, by taxation or otherwise, and appropriate money to be expended by the School Committee, in their discretion, for the conveyance of pupils to and from the Public Schools."

Would not such a provision be a good thing for the schools in many country districts in Ontario? The practical working of the law is thus described:

"At the beginning of the school year the Trustees enter into a contract with some suitable person to run a covered van from the most remote portion of the section, according to a time schedule, along the leading roads to the school-house. In this van the children are protected from inclement weather, and are amenable to such discipline as may be prescribed. In this way children are brought to school promptly and without fatigue. Similarly, at the close of the school, they are returned to their homes."

The advantages of such a method in securing regularity and promptness in attendance, in the comfortable condition of the children in stormy weather, and in the lessening of strain and betterment of work growing out of these two things, need not be pointed out. Such a method would, too, solve the problem, often a hard one, arising from the temptations to loitering, misbehaviour, and truancy on the way to and from school.

From an article in the *Educational Review* it appears that the new plan is exceedingly popular, and about half the towns of the state hire conveyances to pick up the children in the neighborhood, take them to school, and return them after the session. One result is said to be that the feeble district schools are rapidly disappearing, and large and well organized schools taking their places. Thus much better education is secured for the people of the country at a much less expense than under the old system. This change is effected, of course, by the reduction in the number of small schools which is made possible by the longer distances from which children can be brought by the conveyances. Thus the cost of the conveyances will be very much more than offset by the saving effected in the number of schools.

It is a question worth considering whether this plan, or some modification of it, might not be adopted with good effect in at least some of the more sparsely settled districts of Ontario. In Manitoba and the Northwest it might in many localities solve the problem of a winter school.



## Current History.

LOUIS KOSSUTH.

BY MISS NELLIE SPENCE, PARKDALE COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

I have written the following article for the JOURNAL because it seems to me that we teachers of History do not pay sufficient attention to current history, except, at any rate, in so far as it affects our own people. Now, while I believe most emphatically that one of our aims should be the inculcation of a pure and ardent patriotism, still I think there is great danger that we mistake the real nature of patriotism, and train our boys and girls up in a narrow, selfish and intolerant jingoism instead. We should be, at any rate, sufficiently cosmopolitan to admire and teach them to admire whatever is noble, heroic and inspiring in history, whether the example be taken from the annals of our own or another nation. For this reason I wish to call the attention of teachers to the pathetic story of Louis Kossuth's life—the life which has just had such a melancholy close. A little talk on the subject by the teacher to his class could not, I think, fail to be interesting.

[Note the pronunciation of Kossuth (Ko'sh-oot)].

THE YEAR 1848 was one during which an epidemic of revolutions spread with speedy and alarming contagion throughout Europe. Even in that isle which a "silver streak" has saved from so many dangers and continental calamities, the disease appeared in the milder form of chartism. Disease, do we call it? Rather it was the coming to the surface of the political body of Europe of those vile humors and poisons which, kept in so long by the quack medicine of that most contemptible would-be healer of the nations, the Holy Alliance, had been corrupting the system and vitiating the life-blood of the whole continent.

To abandon a too suggestive metaphor: The year 1848 was of course only the natural sequel to 1789. The glorious dream of liberty, equality, and fraternity, was rudely broken by the coalition formed against France, and by England's becoming the soul and pay-mistress of that coalition. But for England's interference, justifiable though perhaps it was, France might have found her way through the anarchy which the terrible amount of necessarily destructive work and the awful complications of the situation made inevitable, to the establishment of a stable and orderly government. But instead of the assistance which the early Revolutionists expected from a country whose principles they claimed to be adopting, came first a cold neutrality, and out of that neutrality grew hostility, and so resulted Waterloo, the return of the Bourbons to France, and the formation of that profanely-called Holy Alliance of the terrified European despots, designed to crush the first puny beginning of rebellion anywhere. A generation passed away, monarchs were beginning to breathe more freely, and the need for organization was no longer so apparent. But the day of reckoning was at hand.

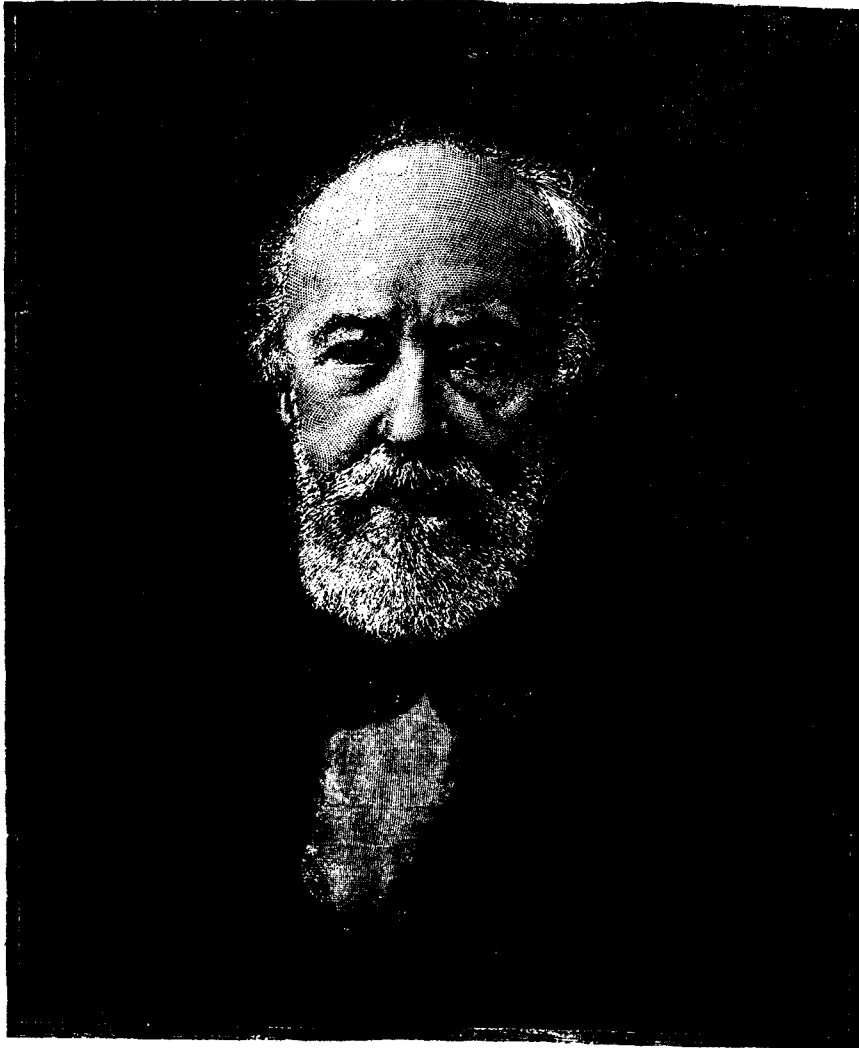
The revolutionary struggle in Hungary is one of peculiarly strong interest to the student of history. The Magyar race were lovers of freedom, and the principles on which their constitution was based were similar to those of Anglo-Saxon polity. It is a rather curious thing that within seven years of the Magna Charta of England, the Bulla Aurea secured to the Hungarians similar privileges. It is even more curious to note that in both of these extraordinary pieces of legislation, subjects were given the legal right to rebel against any attempt to deprive them of their privileges. It was not till the sixteenth century that Hungary became part of the Austrian Empire, and then it was not by conquest, but because through intermarriages it happened that Ferdinand of Austria had the best claim to the Hungarian throne. At the time of this union certain safeguards

were inserted in the Hungarian constitution, to the effect that no Emperor of Austria could become King of Hungary until he should take an oath of fidelity to her constitution, and that in case of a minority the Hungarians should choose their own regent. The dynasty of Hapsburg proved false to the pledges on which the union was conditional. There was scarcely a sovereign of that line that did not do something to undermine or subvert the dangerous principles of freedom to which the Hungarians clung. Yet, on occasions when Austria was in peril, the Hungarians acted with the most generous and disinterested loyalty. Scorning to take advantage of an Emperor's weakness to wrest from him privileges denied in time of strength, they buttressed up his tottering throne, and were paid for their devotion in the base coin of ingratitude. To mention only two examples: When Maria Theresa, surrounded by greedy and bullying foes, knew not which way to turn for assistance, who but the generous Hungarians, forgetful of past wrongs, rallied about her with cries of "We will die for Maria Theresa!"?

ratified by the formal assent of the Emperor—another of the meaningless pledges given by the Hapsburg family to the Magyars.

It was during these years of political excitement that the name of Louis Kossuth became a household word throughout Austria. He was born in 1802 in the village of Monok. He was of an old and noble, but now poor family. He began his public work as a journalist. For his criticisms of the government he was seized and imprisoned. When, a few years later, Kossuth was entertained by the press of the city of New York, (at a banquet at which William Cullen Bryant presided), he gave a graphic description of the difficulties of a journalist in a despotic country, working with fettered hands and a censor by his side. Kossuth's imprisonment, however, was turned to good account. It was then he learned English, and he learned it in the best way—from the pages of Shakespeare. When afterwards he addressed English and American audiences, a great deal of the charm of his oratory lay in the fact that the English he spoke was more dignified and stately

than that spoken by orators who had learned the language colloquially. It seemed as if one of the Elizabethans had risen from the grave of the past, and was speaking the language of that heroic and splendid time. It was while a prisoner, too, that the romance of Kossuth's life occurred. Among those who came to cheer him up and bring him reading matter was Teresa Nievleyi, a young woman of noble birth and rare accomplishments. Immediately after his release Kossuth made her his wife. Though condemned for the sake of the press, one of the first acts of the freed prisoner was to establish *The Pesti Hirlap*, the first liberal newspaper in eastern Europe. In the elections for the Diet of 1847, Kossuth, in spite of the strenuous efforts of the Court party, was triumphantly returned. He became at once the leader of the patriotic party. An unrivalled debater, an orator with the power of a Chatham over the House, he carried the Diet with him in his demands from Austria of the restoration of the rights of the Hungarian people. His sway over the Presburg Diet has been compared with that of Mirabeau over the Constitutional Assembly. For the time Austria bowed, or pretended to bow, to the inevitable. The imperial assent confirmed the reforms of the Diet, but Ferdinand proved a worthy representative of the Hapsburg race. He began a system of duplicity almost without parallel even in the annals of tyranny. Austrian hirelings were sent into the Hungarian provinces to provoke rebellion. The Croats and Slavonians, always jealous of Hungary, were soon



LOUIS KOSSUTH.

She afterwards repaid them with treachery. When Napoleon, after the day of Wagram, called upon the Hungarians to shake off the Austrian tyranny and choose a King from among themselves, they once more disdained to take advantage of a sovereign's weakness. Their magnanimity cost them dear. If virtue is its own reward, it is no less true that it is often its only reward.

Having found one parallel between Hungarian and English History, it is interesting to note another. In 1832, that year of parliamentary agitation in England, and of passage of the great Reform Bill, which converted the oligarchy into a democracy, the Hungarian diet was also intent on the task of reform and in a similar direction. The Hungarian constitution was strongly aristocratic, though its aristocracy was comparatively poor, and was more in touch with popular feeling than the aristocracy of any other country except, perhaps, in a less degree, that of England. From 1832 to 1848 the work of constitutional reform was pushed rapidly forward, and the proceedings finally

in arms. The infamous Jellachich advanced at the head of an army into Hungary, pillaging and murdering without mercy. Ferdinand at first pretended that he considered Jellachich a traitor, though all the time the latter was acting under his orders. The Hungarians were wholly unprepared. But the spirit of the old Magyar race was equal to the occasion. The words of Kossuth himself may best explain the situation: "It became my share, being then a member of the ministry, with undisguisable truth to lay before the parliament of Hungary the immense danger of our bleeding fatherland. Having made the sketch, which, however dreadful, could be but a feeble shadow of the horrible reality, I proceeded to explain the terrible alternative which our fearful destiny left to us, after the failure of all our attempts to evade the evil—to present the neck of the nation to the deadly stroke aimed at its very life, or to bear up against the horrors of fate, and manfully to fight the battle of legitimate defence. Scarcely had I spoken the word, scarcely had I added that the defence would require 200,000 men and

80,000,000 florins, when the spirit of freedom moved through the hall, and nearly four hundred representatives rose as one man, and lifting their right arm toward God, solemnly swore, "We grant it. Freedom or death!" . . . . Pardon my emotion, gentlemen; the shadows of our martyrs, whose names I see here, pass before my eyes and I hear the millions of my nation once more shout, "Freedom or death!"

An army was speedily raised; even young boys and old men were eager to enlist. The whole nation was filled with the spirit of their leader. The eloquence of his fiery harangues roused all the latent heroism—and how much latent heroism there is in human nature we never suspect until some great soul's magnetism draws it forth—in the Magyar race. "To arms! let every man to arms!" he said, in one of his harangues, "and let the women dig a deep grave between Veszprem and Fehervar, in which to bury the name, fame, and nationality of Hungary, or our enemy. And either on this grave will rise a banner, on which shall be inscribed in record of our shame, 'Thus God chastiseth cowardice!' or we will plant thereon the tree of liberty, everlastingly green, and from out whose foliage shall be heard the voice of the Most High, saying as from the fiery bush to Moses, 'The spot on which thou standest is holy ground.'" No wonder that the rallying cry of the Hungarians, that which nerved them, even in the midst of defeat, to make one more effort, was "Eljen Kossuth! Eljen Kossuth!" (Long live Kossuth! Long live Kossuth!)

The general course of the Hungarian struggle is too well known to call for comment. At first victorious under the watchful statesmanship of Kossuth the Governor, and the military skill of his generals, Hungary, which in April, 1849, published her Declaration of Independence, was finally ruined and betrayed by Russian intervention and Gorgey's treachery. Kossuth had been driven to resign his dictatorship in favor of Gorgey, thinking that the crisis demanded the possession of supreme power by the head of the military. Scarcely was this done before Gorgey addressed a letter to the commander of the Russian forces, offering to surrender. The thing was done. Kossuth and some of his followers just managed to escape by flight to Turkey; the great majority of the Hungarian rebels were at the mercy of Austria. The stories of her barbarous and brutal treatment of them are too horrible to relate. Kossuth's children were delivered up by the treachery of one of his own secretaries to Haynau. Madame Kossuth, after months of wandering in disguise, poor, ill, followed by Austrian spies, a price set upon her head, escaped, by a series of adventures more marvellous than the most extravagant creations of fiction, into Turkey, and joined her husband. The Sultan, encouraged by the support of the American and English governments, refused to deliver Kossuth and the other fugitives up to Austrian vengeance, though he consented to retain them as prisoners. Kossuth was soon transferred to Asia Minor. It is one of the curious coincidences of history that Kossuth, the exile, stayed for a time at Broussa, where two thousand years before, the exile Hannibal hid himself for a time from Roman spies. From his place of captivity Kossuth sent an address to the American people, setting forth the causes of the Hungarian struggle and entreating their assistance and sympathy. The address was a masterly one, and one that could not but touch the hearts of Americans who could not fail to be moved by anything that suggested their own love of freedom. "Free citizens of America!" begins one of the most stirring passages in the address, "from your history, as from the star of hope in midnight gloom, we drew our confidence and resolution in the doubtful days of severe trial. Accept, in the name of my country, this declaration as a tribute of gratitude. And you, excellent people, who are worthy to be chosen by the Almighty as an example to show the world how to deserve freedom, how to win it, how to use it, you will allow that the Hungarians, though weaker and less fortunate than you, through the decaying influences of the old European society, are not unworthy to be your imitators, and that you would be pleased to see the stars of your glorious flag emblazon the double cross of the Hungarian coat-of-arms. When despotism hurled defiance at us, and began the bloody war, your inspiring example upheaved the nation as one man, and legions, with all the means of war, appeared to rise from nothing, as the tender grass shoots up after spring showers." The eloquence rises to its highest pitch in

speaking of the answer of the National Assembly of Hungary to Francis Joseph, who in his manifesto of March 4th, 1849, had uttered the curse that "Hungary should exist no longer." "Francis Joseph! thou beardless young hero! thou darest to say Hungary shall exist no more! We, the people, answer, WE do and will exist; but you and your ever treacherous house shall stand no longer! You shall no more be the kings of Hungary! Be forever banished, ye perfidious traitors to the nation!"

At last, through the intervention of England and the United States, Kossuth was released. All along there had been the greatest sympathy manifested in both these countries for the cause of the brave patriots, and the President of the United States, in his message to Congress, announced that the American government would have been the first to recognize the independence of Hungary. The commander of the American naval force in the Mediterranean was ordered to proceed to the Bosphorus, and bring the exile to the new world as the guest of the Republic of the West. On the way he visited England. He had intended to go through France, but on reaching Marseilles was refused permission to land. He proceeded to Gibraltar, embarked in the British steamer Madrid, and reached Southampton the 23rd of October. He addressed several audiences while in England, and was the hero of the hour. In fact, the enthusiasm of the English was so great that Austria became seriously alarmed. It was said that Palmerston intended to receive a visit from Kossuth, and if he did so, the Austrian ambassador would immediately leave England. Palmerston, though he regarded Austria's fears with contempt, was persuaded by his cabinet to avoid a personal interview with Kossuth. But the English nation cared little whether Austria took offence or not. They looked upon the exile as the champion of the sacred cause of liberty, and they were carried away by the fervid, almost oriental oratory of the man. Kossuth's appearance was itself striking and prepossessing. About five feet eight inches in height, with a slight frame, large melancholy blue eyes set beneath a full brow, brown hair and beard, a pale complexion, an expression of earnestness and gentleness, with flashes of fire occasionally—such was the general appearance of the man. As a speaker he was at once the personification of dignity and of force. He stood quite erect and quiet, making few gestures but those extremely graceful, and when he waxed most passionate and eloquent, the feeling was shown rather by intensity than by loudness or raised pitch of voice. His command of English was remarkable, and as has been already said, it was stately and classic, not colloquial English that he spoke. He spoke as if extemporaneously, and possessed to an extraordinary degree that peculiar, inexplicable power over his audience which we commonly call magnetism. He was essentially dramatic, and when he stretched out his right hand and declared that "the time was when I held the destinies of the House of Hapsburg in the hollow of that hand!" or spoke of the "demi-gods" who had fallen in the heroic struggle, his listeners felt as if under a spell. But, as Palmerston had foreseen, the enthusiasm meant little. That it could result in practical assistance was impossible.

From England Kossuth went to the United States, where his reception was, if possible, even more demonstrative than in England. He was waited on by numerous deputations, presenting addresses of respect. Public receptions and banquets in his honor were the order of the day. He was paid the highest compliment that Americans can bestow by being styled the Washington of Hungary. He delivered numerous speeches, all of them examples of magnificent oratory. It is impossible to quote at length, but one brief extract may be pardoned. He is reflecting on the European situation:—

"Europe can no more secure to Europe fair play. Albion alone remains, but even Albion casts a sorrowful glance over the waves. Still, we will stand firmly, sink or swim, live or die. You know the word, it is your own. We will follow it. It will be a bloody path to tread. Despots have conspired against the world. Terror spreads over Europe, and, anticipating persecution, rules from Paris to Pesh. There is a gloomy silence like the silence of nature before the terrors of a hurricane. . . . ."

But all the oratory of Kossuth proved vain. For forty years he was destined to live on, hoping against hope that an opportunity would occur for another attempt to deliver Hungary.

Several opportunities seemed to come, but in each case the result was disappointment. Kossuth remained an exile. Since 1862 his home has been Turin. The last years have been years of loneliness and poverty. His wife and daughter died some years ago. He was recently obliged to part with his magnificent library for a paltry sum. But his nature was made of stubborn stuff and never once gave way. Though Hungary received a constitution in 1867, and though the exile might have returned to his native land in safety, he always refused. Replying to an invitation, a year or two ago, to allow his sons to represent him at the unveiling of a memorial in the church in which he was christened, he wrote:—"I am resolved never to set my foot in Hungary as long as the country recognizes the Emperor of Austria as its King. I am a living protest against Hungary's faithlessness, and my creed must therefore be to refuse myself the pleasure of again seeing my home. I was expelled from the country with my sons, and it would be ridiculous to let them appear in Hungary for mere vanity's sake. It is terrible for me to think that with all the blows of my purposeless and joyless life I should have to bear the burden of living beyond my ninetieth birthday."

But the life of Kossuth has surely not been purposeless. If, as it would almost seem, it is a common law that the penalty of the highest greatness is failure, it is true only in a limited sense. The individual may fail, but the work never. If Kossuth was a failure, how many illustrious names bear him company? The terrible Hannibal, the noble Gracchi, the great Julius, the meteoric Napoleon, were in a sense all failures, yet through them, nay, through their very failures, great things were achieved. It is a case of

"Ye build, ye build, but ye enter not in,  
Like the the tribes whom the desert devoured in  
their sin;  
From the land of promise ye fade and die,  
Ere its verdure gleames forth on your wearied  
eye."

And yet though this is so, it is not the less sad for the individual. And saddest perhaps of all the examples of this century, has been the case of that noble Magyar leader who has had to bear what is far worse than the toil of battle or the sting of defeat—the anguish of forty long years of weary waiting—and waiting, not in the hope of ultimate victory, but only for the close of the tedious farce of life, and the ringing down of the curtain by death.

#### AROUSE THOUGHT.

A STUDENT graduated from the New Jersey normal school and went away to teach; he soon wrote to Dr. Hasbrouck that he had had such difficulty with unreasonable parents that he thought of going elsewhere. Being asked to write what the difficulty was he said that the pupils would have water passed around four times each day, and that the parents upheld them in this. Principal Hasbrouck replied that he must *arouse the pupils to think* about the interruption coming from this operation; that if he could get them to see it as he saw it, there would be no more passing of water. In a month, the teacher wrote again and said the school was perfection; that the children had asked to have passing of water suspended, and the parents agreed with them. He let the matter go on without interrupting, but appointed a time to have a general discussion as to how long a pupil could do without water before suffering, and whether, if a pupil drank before the beginning of the study period, he would really need any before the close. He spoke of people sitting at churches and at theaters for two hours or more, and not thinking of having water passed around. He did that wise thing to lead the pupils to set up a standard of action, without regard to the mere authority of the teacher; to become an authority for himself. He was led to think as to the proper cause of action for himself under the circumstances. Arbitrary rules may obtain order, but they do not develop the pupil's mind. —*The School Journal.*

Special Papers.

AN OLD THING UNDER A NEW NAME.

BY HENRY A. FORD, A.M.

In recent years we have heard a great deal of Apperception. The term itself is an old one, though new in prominent use in education, and certainly new compared with what it describes. It goes back at least to Leibnitz, who used it for "that act of the mind by which it becomes conscious of its ideas as its own; perception with the added consciousness that it is 'I' who perceive." In this sense it appears also in the works of Sir William Hamilton. Later than Leibnitz, by Kant and most of the English philosophers, apperception is appropriated for acts of voluntary consciousness accompanied with self-consciousness, and so placed at the very base of psychology. Even in the usage of Herbart the term is more than a half-century old. He considers it "the coalescence of the remainder of a new isolated idea with an older one, by a modification of one or the other," and in a related sense as apprehension or recognition. It is in these significations of Herbart that the term is to be understood generally in pedagogic discussions.

The Herbartian psychology has been much discredited by writers of our day. It has been called, often unjustly it must be said, "exploded psychology," its presentations "glib Herbartian jargon," and its methods "hideously fabulous performances." It is not a little singular that while his general system has thus been falling into disrepute, there should be a revival or survival of his tenet of apperception. I suspect, however, that this is true rather among educators than among specialists in psychology. The great work of Professor Ladd, of Yale University, "Psychology, Descriptive and Explanatory," a book of the last month, barely mentions apperception, and honors it with no discussion.

The fact is, as a little inspection and reflection shows, this is a new term—rather an old term in new uses—for a venerable and well-known thing. Very early in the discernment of principles of pedagogy it must have been observed that anything well learned must be learned in its relations. I was giving this as a rule of prime importance in the teachers' institutes long before I heard of Herbart's term for a treatment of the principle. And by whatever name it goes, the fact or principle must be deemed of prime importance in school and private practice. We know a thing only as we place it in relations; we enlarge and enrich our culture as we multiply relations, and establish new ones for facts perhaps long held in memory. The child learning a word associates it with a sound or synthesis of sounds, then with written or printed characters, then or earlier with the thing signified, may be through other words addressed to ear or eye, but better if possible by presentation of the thing itself or its visible representation, and so on.

Human beings, as creatures of education, are differentiated largely by their limitations in this respect. Wordsworth, the laureate, scholar and genius, unconsciously points a contrast with the ignorant peasant in the lines:

"A cowslip by the river's brim,  
A yellow cowslip was to him;  
A yellow cowslip—nothing more."

The rude observer associates the familiar object with form, color, etc., perchance some simple uses in domestic economy; but the poet—how his thoughts and knowledge may range away from it. He says elsewhere:

"The humblest flower that grows to me can give  
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears."

Cowper was given for a poem so unpromising a thing as a sofa; but by his wonderful power of multiplying relations he attached one idea or fact after another to this commonplace article until he developed one of the finest pastoral poems in the language, that known from its origin as "The Task."

Apperception, indeed, simply put, is but perception plus understanding. The teacher need not adopt the name, but the methods of instruction it implies must not be neglected. Well worked, they must issue in a body of education for each pupil which, whether small or large, is thoroughly connected, consistent, intelligible, and usable.

Detroit, Michigan, U.S.A.

Mathematics.

All communications intended for this department should be written on one side of the sheet only and should be addressed to the Editor, C. Clarkson, B.A., Seaforth, Ont.

SENIOR LEAVING ALGEBRA.

SOLUTIONS. (Concluded from page 322).

5. (a) The shortest proof that can be given runs as follows:—

Suppose we have  $n$  factors each  $= x+y$ , the product is  $(x+y)(x+y)(x+y) \dots$ . If we take a letter from each factor and multiply them together we get a term of the product. Do this in all possible ways and we get the whole product. We can take  $x$  from every factor and get  $x^n$ , one term of the product. We can take  $y$  once and  $x$  the remaining  $(n-1)$  times, and get  $n \cdot x^{n-1}y$ . Again we can take  $y$  twice and  $x$  the remaining  $(n-2)$  times and get  $n \cdot c_2 x^{n-2}y^2$ , and so on. And in general  $y$  can be taken  $r$  times,  $r$  being positive, integral and less than  $n$ ; and  $x$  can be taken the remaining  $(n-r)$  times, so that in general the product so formed may be expressed  $n \cdot c_r x^{n-r}y^r$ . Thus on the whole  $(x+y)^n = x^n + n \cdot c_1 x^{n-1}y + n \cdot c_2 x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + n \cdot c_{n-1} x y^{n-1} + y^n$ . The last term will be  $n \cdot c_n x^{n-n}y^n$  i. e.,  $y^n$ .

$$2nd \text{ part. } \left(x - \frac{1}{2x}\right)^{2n} = x^{2n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2x^2}\right)^{2n}$$

Let  $k$  = the exponent of  $-\frac{1}{2x^2}$  in the expansion  $\left(1 - \frac{1}{2x^2}\right)^{2n}$ . Then  $2n - 2k = 2m$ ;  $\therefore k = n - m$ ;  $\therefore$  No. of the term  $= n - m + 1$ .

The coefficient of the  $(r+1)$ th term from the beginning of a binomial expansion is  $\frac{|2n|}{|r|} \frac{|n-r|}{|n-r|}$ ; hence in this case the coefficient must be

$$\frac{|2n|}{|n-m|} \frac{|n+m|}{|n-m|} \left(-\frac{1}{2x^2}\right)^{n-m} \cdot x^{2n}$$

which may be reduced and simplified, etc.

$$(b) \ s = nc_1 + (n-1)c_2 + (n-2)c_3 + \dots + 2c_{n-1} + c_n$$

$$s = c_n + 2c_{n-1} + 3c_{n-2} + 4c_{n-3} + \dots + nc_1$$

$$2s = c_n + (n+2)c_1 + (n+2)c_2 + \dots$$

$$+ (n+2)c_1 + c_n$$

Since  $c_1 = c_{n-1}$ ,  $c^2 = c_{n-2}$ , etc.; and  $c_n = 1$ .

$$\therefore 2s = 2 + (n+2)(c_1 + c_2 + c_3 + \dots + c_{n-1})$$

$$= 2 + (n+2)(2^n - 2)$$

$$s = 1 + (n+2)(2^{n-1} - 1) = (n+2)2^{n-1} - (n+1)$$

N.B.—The result given in the question is not correct as may easily be shown by putting  $n = 3, 4, 5$ , etc.

2nd part.—

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ -x \\ -x^2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{l} 1+x+0+0+0+0+0+\text{etc.} \\ -x+0+x^3-x^4+0+x^6-x^7 \\ -x^2-x^2+0+x^4-x^5+0+x^7 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\hline 1+0-x^2+x^3+0-x^5+x^6+0+\text{etc.}$$

The coefficients of the  $x^1, x^4, x^7$  are each  $= 0$ ; and generally the coefficient  $= 0$  when the exponent  $= 3m+1$ .

N.B.—This question was badly stated. "Three by one" properly means three divided by one, which was not intended.

$$6. (a) \ S(1.025)^{10} = \$100 + .05; \therefore S = \text{etc.}$$

(b) The half-yearly interest is \$200. Hence to provide for the interest we must deposit at the beginning of each year the P. W. of \$200 due in 6 mos. + the P. W. of \$200 due in 12 mos., that is,

$$\frac{200}{1.03} + \frac{200}{1.03^2} = (206 \times 200) \div 1.03^2 = \text{etc.} = k \text{ say.}$$

To provide for the principal at the end of 15 years, we must deposit a sum,  $s$ , such that

$$s + s(1.06) + s(1.06)^2 + \dots = 10,000.$$

$$\therefore s \cdot \frac{1.06^{15} - 1}{.06} = 10,000; \text{ whence } s = \text{etc.}$$

$$\therefore \text{Total sinking fund} = k + s = \text{etc.}$$

7. (a) If the sides are  $a-d, a, a+d$ , and the angles, A, B, C opposite these sides respectively, we have  $(a-d)^2 + a^2 = (a+d)^2$ ;  $\therefore a = 4d$ .

$$\text{Also sine } A = (a-d) \div (a+d) = 3d \div 5d = \frac{3}{5}.$$

(b) The series is 3, 45, 175, 441, 891, etc.

$$42, 130, 266, 450,$$

$$88, 136, 184,$$

$$48, 48,$$

$$0.$$

$$\therefore \text{Sum} = 3n + \frac{42n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{88n(n-1)(n-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}$$

$$+ \frac{48n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} = \frac{n}{3}(6n^3 + 8n^2 - 3n - 2)$$

as may easily be tested by giving  $n$  any value, 3, 4, etc.

$$8. (a) \ x = a(y+z); \ y = b(z+x);$$

$$z = c(x+y)$$

$$\therefore a = x \div (y+z); \ b = anl; \ c = anl \dots A$$

$$\text{Also } x^2 = a^2(y+z)^2; \ y^2 = anl; \ z^2 = anl.$$

$$\text{i. e. } x^2 = (y+z)^4 \div x^2 \text{ from } A; \ y^2 = anl;$$

$$z^2 = anl.$$

$$\therefore \frac{x^4}{y} = \frac{(y+z)^4}{(z+x)^4}; \text{ whence } x = y = z \text{ by symmetry to } z.$$

Thus from 1st line  $a = x \div 2x = \frac{1}{2} = b = c$ . Substitute in the given proportion and we have  $1:1:1 = 1:1:1$ . Q. E. D.

(b)  $bx+ay = ab$ ; square this and subtract  $4abk^2$ , and  $bx-ay = m$ , where  $m$  represents  $\sqrt{(a^2b^2 - 4abk^2)}$ .

$$\therefore x = (ab+m) \div 2b. \text{ Similarly from 2nd relation}$$

$$x = (n+p) \div 2d, \text{ where } n = \sqrt{(c^2d^2 + 2cdk^2)},$$

$$\text{and } p = \sqrt{(c^2d^2 - 2cdk^2)}.$$

$$\therefore \frac{ab+m}{2b} = \frac{n+p}{2d} \text{ i. e., } abd + dm - bn - bp = 0.$$

BANK DISCOUNT.

In reply to "A friend of the JOURNAL," we quote from a standard commercial work the following statements and examples:

Bank Discount is computed upon the amount due upon the obligation at its maturity; that is upon its face only if it does not bear interest, but upon its amount if it bears interest. Banks and business houses in different cities and even in the same city have no uniform usage in finding the term of discount. Some count the term of credit in exact days; some in exact days if less than 60; some in months and days for any time exceeding a month; some in months and days if more than 60 days; some as the note is written—i. e., by exact days if written in days, but in months and days if written in months; some on the basis of 360 days to the year; some, more accurately, on the basis of 365 days. For the sake of uniformity and as it seems to be nearest to equity (barring accurate interest), between the parties interested, the author recommends this

RULE.—Find the date of maturity by counting forward from date of the note, the exact number of days (grace added), if the time is expressed in days; but by counting forward the months (grace added), if the time is expressed in months. Find the difference in months and days from the date of discounting to the date of maturity; compute the simple interest on the principal for this time.

Example 1. Find the bank discount of a note of \$256.74 dated Oct. 28, 1893, payable in 150 days and discounted Nov. 10, 1893 at 8%.

Oct. 28, 1893 + 153 days = March 30, 1894.  
Nov. 10, 1893 to March 30, 1894 = 4 mos., 20 days.

B. Discount = Int. on \$256.74 for 4 mos., 20 days at 8% = \$7.99 nearly.

Example 2. Find the B. D. of a note of

\$279.90, dated Aug. 25, 1893, payable in 5 mos. and discounted Sep. 30, 1893, at  $4\frac{1}{2}\%$

Aug. 25, 1893 + 5 mos. 3 days = Jan. 28, 1894.

Sep. 30, 1893 to Jan. 28, 1894 = 3 mos. 29 days.

B. D. = int. on \$279.90 for 3 mos., 29 days at  $4\frac{1}{2}\%$  = \$4.17 nearly. (The preceding part of the rule applies to notes that do not bear interest.—*Ed.*)

To find the Bank Discount on interest-bearing notes:

Find the date of maturity as above. Find the difference between the date of the note and maturity. Compute the simple interest on the face of the note for this time at the rate mentioned in the note, and add this interest to the face of the note, the sum is the amount due at maturity. Find the difference in time from date of discounting to date of maturity; compute the interest on the amount for this time at the given rate of discount, and the result is the B. Discount.

*Example 3.* Find the net proceeds of a note of \$975.59, dated April 8, 1893, bearing interest at 5%, payable in 5 mos., and discounted May 16, 1893, at  $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ .

April 8, 1893 + 5 mos. 3 days = Sep. 11, 1893;  
April 8, 1893 to Sep. 11, 1893 = 5 mos. 3 days;  
May 16, 1893 to Sep. 11, 1893 = 3 mos. 26 days.

Int. on \$975.59 for 5 mos. 3 days at 5% = \$20.73 nearly.

Amt. of \$975.59 for 5 mos. 3 days at 5% = \$996.32 nearly.

Int. on \$996.32 for 3 mos. 26 days at  $4\frac{1}{2}\%$  = \$14.45.

Net proceeds = \$996.32 - \$14.45 = \$981.87.—  
Condensed from Seavy's *Practical Business Book-keeping*, Heath & Co., 1893.

## SOLUTIONS OF PROBLEMS.

Agincourt, Mar. 10th, 1894.

MR. EDITOR:

I here give my solutions for the questions found in the JOURNAL of March 1st.

No. 23.—The bill of \$2520 due 1 year hence is worth now  $\frac{100}{105}$  of \$2520 = \$2400.

$4\frac{1}{2}\%$  per annum is equal to  $1\frac{1}{2}\%$  for  $\frac{1}{4}$  yr. Then the sum necessary to take up the bill, or \$2400 put out at compound interest for 1 yr., int. payable quarterly, would amount to

$$\$2400 \times \left(\frac{101\frac{1}{4}}{100}\right)^4 = \$2400 \times (1.01\frac{1}{4})^4 = \$2509.836 +$$

You will see that it will be better to take up the bill, the difference being \$2520 - 2509.836 + = \$10.163 +

No. 24.—If the goods have a discount of 10% at the end of 6 mos., \$100 worth of goods would sell for \$90.

Now if they are paid for 3 mos. before, we should find the worth of \$90 3 months before it is due, int. being 5%, which is

$$\frac{100}{101\frac{1}{4}} \text{ of } \$90 = \$88\frac{2}{3}.$$

This would be a discount of  $(100 - 88\frac{2}{3}) = 11\frac{1}{3}$ , i.e., on \$100, or  $11\frac{1}{3}\%$ .

Now in the same way find the value of \$90 3 mos. after it is due, money at 5%, which would amount to \$91 $\frac{1}{3}$ , this would be a discount of  $(100 - 91\frac{1}{3}) = 8\frac{2}{3}$ , or  $8\frac{2}{3}\%$

No. 25.—The three lots are: 72' x 144'; 99' x 128'; 126' x 96'. Now to find the length of the longest lot which will be contained in the length of each of these lots we would find the H. C. F. of 72', 99', and 126', which is 9'. Likewise to find the width of the lot, find the H. C. F. of 144', 128', and 96', which is 16'.

Then the lot is 9' x 16'.

N. B.—I see the answer in the book is 3' x 16', which is a mistake.

26.—Two numbers are prime to each other when they have no common factor.

The factors of 16 are 2, 2, 2, 2. Then any number less than 16, which has not 2 as a factor is prime to 16. These numbers are: 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15.

27.—From No. 26 we found the integers less than 16 and prime to it to be: 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15. In all 9 Nos. In the same way we find the integers less than 3 and prime to be, 1, 2. In all 2 Nos.

Thus the integers less than 48 and prime to it are 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 25, 29, 31, 35, 37, 41, 43, 47. In all 18 Nos.  $9 \times 2 = 18$ , which is the answer.

No. 28.—Since we have addition, division, H. C. F., L. C. M., etc., in fractions, as in integers, I see no reason for not having different units of measurements, weight, etc., in fractions as well as in integers. We have in integers units of mi., ft., oz. tons, etc., so in fractions we have different units. As in 3 oz. the unit is one oz., and in 4 in. the unit is 1 in., so in  $\frac{1}{4}$  oz. the unit is ( $\frac{1}{4}$ ) one quarter oz., and in  $\frac{4}{5}$  four-fifths in. the unit is ( $\frac{1}{5}$ ) one-fifth in. we have here been dealing with concrete numbers. Let us look at abstract numbers. Thus in 8 the unit is one, and in  $\frac{8}{8}$  the unit is  $\frac{1}{8}$ .

29.—Pupils who are working with lumbering know that a foot of lumber measures 12" x 12" x 1" or contains 144 cub. in. Now I think that as they have been dealing with cub. contents, the easiest way is to find the No. of cub. in. in the boards or whatever it may be and reduce it then to feet of lumber.

Thus 8 boards  $19' \times 16' \times 2\frac{1}{2}"$  contains  
 $8 \times 19 \times 12 \times 16 \times \frac{5}{8} = 72960$  cu. in.  
then 144 cu. in. = 1 ft. lumber.  
 $\frac{72960}{144} = 506\frac{2}{3}$  ft. lumber

Then when they thoroughly understand this method you might find the No. of sq. ft. on the surface and multiply by the thickness in inches as No. of square ft. on upper surface of 8 boards  
 $19' \times 16' \times 2\frac{1}{2}" = 8 \times 19 \times 16 = 202\frac{2}{3}$ .

Multiply this by  $2\frac{1}{2} = 202\frac{2}{3} \times 2\frac{1}{2} = 506\frac{2}{3}$  ft. of lumber.

No. 30.—If a note has 10% discount, the Present Worth is  $(100 - 10) = 90\%$ .

Then \$90 P. W. has \$10 Int.

$$\begin{array}{l} \$1 \text{ " " } \$\frac{1}{9} \text{ " "} \\ \$100 \text{ " " } \$100 = 11\frac{1}{9}\% \end{array}$$

The time is immaterial as the per cent. is reckoned on 100 for 1 year.

Hoping perhaps this may be of benefit to some fellow teacher, I remain,

Yours truly,

THOMAS KENNEDY.

No. 31.—H. School Arith., No. 49, p. 180. "The difference between the interest at 10% per annum added yearly, and that added half-yearly for two years is \$55.06 $\frac{1}{4}$ . Find the principal."

SOLUTION BY THE EDITOR. For 5% write  $x$ , for 10% write  $2x$ , then

$$\begin{array}{l} (1+x)^4 = 1+4x+6x^2+4x^3+x^4 \\ (1+2x)^2 = 1+4x+4x^2 \end{array}$$

Difference for \$1 =  $2x^2+4x^3+x^4 = x^2(2+4x+x^2) = .0025(2+.2+.0025) = .0025 \times 2.2025 = .00550625$

Hence the sum =  $\$56.06\frac{1}{4} \div .005506\frac{1}{4} = \$10,000$ .

NOTE.—Solutions have not been received to all the arithmetic questions of Jan. 1st and we therefore defer that paper for a short time to give all our correspondents the opportunity of contributing. These solutions will appear May 1st, along with several trial papers suitable for the July examinations. Several communications are left over; we ask our friends to be patient; our space is limited.

## Correspondence.

### A QUESTION OF DISCIPLINE.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL:

In your issue of 15th ult. you have an article in the "Question Drawer" rather approving of a teacher's action in removing a pupil from Senior to Junior Fourth Class. In my opinion the teacher acted injudiciously and was the sole cause of the trouble. Before she said anything about the boy's taking a lower class she should have talked the matter over with him, teaching him to see that Senior Fourth work was too difficult for him, and that he could make more rapid advancement in a lower class.

She should have promised to restore him to his original position as soon as he had made sufficient improvement. I have had several similar cases to deal with and failed not to secure the pupil's consent. Should the pupil fear the derision of the other pupils, I would promise to explain to the class that on account of long absence or too rapid promotion it was for his benefit to make the change, and thus lead the class to see that it was the best thing for him to do. I have had no complaints from the pupils so treated that the others were giving them any annoyance on account of their taking a lower class. As a rule pupils will have the sympathy of the parents in a struggle of that nature. I might say that unless the pupil was very deficient I would not ask him to take a lower class, and in no case would I do so if I were the teacher who had promoted him. It is generally better in any case to allow the pupil to remain in the class till the juniors are promoted and his classmates have taken a higher standing.

Yours truly,

PEDAGOGUE.

### PHYSIOLOGY AND PHRENOLOGY.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL:

SIR: In the new Public School Physiology and Temperance, on page 109, I find the following sentences: "In view of these facts the value of phrenology, as practised by bump-feelers, may be duly estimated. To define a person's character and mental ability by the outward appearance of the skull is impossible."

"As practised by bump-feelers," shows that the author is unacquainted with the claims of phrenologists. "Bump-feelers" are the quacks of phrenology. The facts mentioned are difficulties which are acknowledged by phrenologists to exist, but are no more insurmountable than the difficulties met with in the study of therapeutics. Would the author say that, in view of certain facts, the value of therapeutics, as practised by quacks, may be duly estimated?

The second sentence is likewise misleading. Phrenologists do not read character by the outward appearance of the skull alone, but they take into consideration the many characteristics of the individual, which, it has been found, aid in determining his mental ability. The usefulness of phrenology has been shown in a practical manner thousands of times, by which its value may be more truly estimated than by simply considering the obstacles to be met with.

L. E. HUNTSMAN.

### FIFTH FORM VS. ENTRANCE.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL:

SIR,—At the last meeting of the Waterloo County Teachers' Association, the following resolution was passed:

Moved by Mr. A. Weidenhammer, and seconded by Mr. Wm. Linton, "That in the opinion of this, the Waterloo County Teachers' Association, the continuance of Fifth Form work in our Public Schools under the present regulations, considering the number of teachers employed, is inadvisable.

"That there be two grades of Entrance to High Schools, grade B to correspond to the present Entrance, and grade A on the same subjects as grade B, but in order to pass which not less than 40% be required on each subject and 70% of the aggregate.

"That a copy of this resolution be sent to the Minister of Education and to the EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.—Carried.

### QUERIES.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL:

SIR,—(1) In arranging the days for work and play for the youth of Ontario, and hence, likewise for the teaching fraternity of our province, why does the Educational Department draw a discriminating line between those of town and of country? (2) Why have the teachers and pupils of cities, towns and incorporated villages a minority of working days and a majority of holidays? (3) Is it because the representatives of graded schools sustain a greater mental strain than the rural educationists, and thus demand longer relaxations; or shall we presume that the favored ones are from finer clay, and consequently obtain this advantage as a guarantee of their superior civil and social attainments?

EQUAL RIGHTS.



## Primary Department.

## SPRING NOTES.

RHODA LEE.

SPRING songs are now in the air. Even into the chirping and twittering of the sparrows comes a note almost musical.

"And all these joyous mornings  
My heart pours forth the strain,  
God bless the dear old Robins  
That have come back again."

They are coming back one by one to the old quarters, and there is a world of gladness in their song that adds much to the joyousness of the season and helps to produce the spirit of gladness that seems to be in the air.

But what is the spirit in the school-room? Is there a dull, lifeless indifference that seems to baffle our every effort, and an indescribable unrest and discontent with the thought of being indoors? If so, that is just what every teacher is experiencing at this time. For that reason we need to exercise more than the ordinary amount of patience and make more than the usual effort to interest the children in their work. We must make the recreation or rest period a trifle longer, and above all bring spring into the class-room instead of trying to banish it from the minds of the children.

What a good spring resolution it would be to determine that as the sun without seemingly increased, so the sunshine in the schoolroom should strengthen. It is undoubtedly *the* secret of the happy schoolroom. A determination to keep the sunshine of the heart ever strong and powerful would be one of the surest guarantees of success we could have. Cheerfulness is one of the priceless virtues, and in no part of the universe is it needed more than in the schoolroom.

But we are departing from the subject in hand—Spring. Have you a corner of black-board to spare? Keep it for a Spring record. This will tell you when the first robin was seen; the first crow; the first may-flower; when the chestnut buds were first visible; when the bud opened; first dandelion, etc., etc. As the wild flowers come first, make room on the "record" for a sketch of the flower and leaf, and when they become plentiful take them as the subject for an observation lesson when every child will make his own drawing.

Children are always interested in the growth of seeds. This we can let them observe in several ways. Over a glass tie a piece of course netting and on it place the seeds. Fill up the glass with water until it touches the netting. The roots will find their way down through the canvas and thus the whole growth of the plant can be seen. Flax seed placed in a wet sponge is an interesting thing to watch, and makes a pretty ornament in the room. We might also have a large box made and ask the children to bring seeds, such as sweet-pea, nasturtium, morning-glory, etc. This will in time make a pretty window-box.

And now to return to the subject of Spring songs. There are so many beautiful ones that we may teach our children. Set no limit to the number. Teach as many

as you can find time for. And let me urge the real teaching of the songs. Be sure that the children see the true meaning and beauty of the words as well as the music that they may "sing with understanding." Time is not wasted that is spent in teaching the children to love and revere nature, in opening their eyes to see something of the beauty in the every-day world around them.

"Robins in the tree-top, blossoms in the grass;  
Green things a-growing everywhere you pass;  
Sudden little breezes; showers of silver dew;  
Black bough and bent twig budding out anew.  
Pine tree and willow tree, fringed elm and larch,  
Don't you think that May-time's pleasanter than  
March?"

## BUSY WORK IN READING.

RHODA LEE.

1. Making words containing certain sounds.

- (a) Write ten words containing "sh."  
(b) Write ten words with "ar," etc.

2. Finding words in the reading book containing a specified sound.

3. Making as many words as possible with five or more letters, such as *p, t, s, m* and *a*.

Making words by prefixing letters to syllables, such as *it, at, ot, ing*.

*p-it*  
*m-it*  
*f-it*  
*gr-it*

5. Affixing letters, as *mi-t, mi-ll, mi-ss, mi-nt, mi-x*, etc.

6. Making internal changes as follows, the word *pat* being given.

<i>pat</i>	<i>pet</i>
<i>pit</i>	<i>pelt</i>
<i>pot</i>	<i>plot</i>
<i>past</i>	<i>plant</i>
<i>pant</i>	

7. Making short words from long ones, such as

*misrepresentation,*  
*mediterranean,*  
*intercolonial.*

8. Making sentences with words containing a particular sound.

<i>ship</i>	<i>sash</i>	<i>sheep</i>
<i>shop</i>	<i>shut</i>	<i>shore</i>

## STORIES FOR SIGHT READING.

(To be cut out and mounted on cardboard).

In the Easter holidays Tom went to the country to visit his grandma. He had good fun hunting for eggs and helping his grandpa out in the barn.

I saw a crow when I was coming to school to-day. It was in a tall tree, and just as I passed it flapped its wings and flew away.

"I wish it would stop raining," said Fred; "It seems to rain all the time these days." Did it rain yesterday? said mamma, or the day before? "No," said Fred, as he remembered the good time he had in his holidays, and he felt a little ashamed of himself for grumbling so.

"Rain, rain, go away,  
Come again some other day."

This was what Harry said as he stood

drumming on the window. It was Saturday and papa was going to take him for a drive. Mamma said, "Wait a little, I think it is just an 'April shower, last half an hour.'" And so it was, for very soon the clouds began to break, the sun came out and the day was as bright as ever.

A little crocus peeped out of the ground one day and said, "Dear me, I have been sleeping a long time, I must get up. How nice it is to see the sun again and the pretty blue sky." She held her head very straight for a few days and felt rather lonely. One day she looked around and saw ever so many others just like herself, except that some were yellow and others white. Then she felt quite happy.

"Come along down to the pond," said mother duck, "you have not had a swim yet." Off she waddled to the water, the little ducklings all following her. When they saw their mother splash into the pond they were a little afraid, but in they went and were swimming about as though they had been doing it for years.

## MY KITTY.

TUNE—*My Bonnie*.

My kitty has gone from her basket,  
My kitty has gone up the tree,  
Oh, who will go up 'midst the branches  
And bring back my kitty to me?

CHORUS—Bring back, bring back,  
Oh, bring back my kitty to me, to me,  
Bring back, bring back,  
Oh, bring back my kitty to me.

The dog that lives down by the river,  
That dog with the very loud bark,  
Has frightened poor kitty so dreadfully  
Up there she is mewling. Just hark!

CHORUS—Bring back, bring back, etc.

They say that when some folks are frightened,  
Their hair will turn perfectly white,  
And if kitty stays up there all morning  
She won't have a black hair by night.

CHORUS—Bring back, bring back, etc.

## THAT'S THE WAY.

Just a little every day,  
That's the way  
Seeds in darkness swell and grow,  
Tiny blades push through the snow,  
Never any flower of May  
Leaps to blossom in a burst.  
Slowly—slowly—at the first.  
That's the way!  
Just a little every day.

Just a little every day,  
That's the way!  
Children learn to read and write,  
Bit by bit, and mite by mite.  
Never any one, I say,  
Leaps to knowledge and its power.  
Slowly—slowly—hour by hour.  
That's the way!  
Just a little every day.

—*Ella Wheeler Wilcox, in St. Nicholas.*

An effective way to excite interest, and that of the right kind, in school, is not to remove difficulties, but to teach the pupils how to surmount them. A text-book so contrived as to make study mere play, and to dispense with thought and effort, is the worst text-book that can be made, and the surest to be, in the end, a dull one. Secure, therefore, severe study. Let the pupil see that you are aiming to secure it, and that the pleasure that you expect they will receive is that of firmly and patiently encountering and overcoming difficulty; that it is your province to lead them forward, and not to carry them. They will soon understand this and like it.—*Jacob Abbott.*

## Hints and Helps.

## TEMPERAMENT IN TEACHING.

"We have never graduated so promising a class," said a normal school principal to the president of the board, at the close of commencement exercises. "Did you notice particularly what a wonderful production the valedictorian gave us to-day? She became the leader of her class before the year was half out. She is a young lady of great promise, daughter of Dr. Russell of O—. She has inherited fine ability to begin with, has splendid health, and a perseverance that takes her over every obstacle. It is easy to prophecy a brilliant career for her."

"Will she teach?"

"O, yes. She is an enthusiast on the subject of teaching. She has had no experience outside of her teaching in the model room this year, but she will succeed, no matter where she is placed. No such word as fail for her. She is already engaged for next year in the city schools in R—; the best in the state, you know."

"What kind of work will she have? In the high school?"

"No, she is to be a primary teacher. She has always had a preference for primary work."

"But is her manner gentle enough to deal with little children? Her eyes are pretty black, you know, and her voice has a something jarring in it that took away much of the pleasure of hearing her to-day. Has she got along well with the little children this year?"

"Y-e-s," said the principal, "she has always had good results. O, yes, she is a very bright girl; very bright."

## SIX MONTHS LATER.

"I must take my little girl from her school," said an intelligent, patient-looking mother, to the Principal of the largest school in the city of R—. "She grows more nervous and irritable every day. I hardly know the child, as the little girl that entered Miss Russell's room, three months ago. I have just spent an hour in that room myself, and I understand it all now. My head is in a whirl and all my nerves are on edge."

"Ah! What was the matter?" asked the Principal, calmly.

"Why, the whole atmosphere of that room is a drive—a whirl. Every child is keyed up, as if something might happen any minute. Miss Russell flies from one thing to another, snapping the black-board with her pointer, and talking continually in that dreadful voice;—Mr. James, it would drive me wild to hear that voice one week."

"I am very sorry, madam, that you take your little girl from the room. Miss Russell came to us with the highest recommendations, and her children are making excellent progress."

"Progress!" but at what a fearful cost to the children. I care far more for the health and disposition of my child than for her intellect. Time enough for that in the future. I am very sorry to find fault. I am an old teacher myself and my sympathies are always with the teachers, but Miss Russell is out of place. She should never have dreamed of a primary room. Can you not tell her so, and prevent any more harm being done?"

The Principal sat alone in his office that night greatly perplexed. He had felt the truth of all this for weeks. But what could he do. To remove a successful (?) teacher for an unfortunate temperament would be without precedent. The world wasn't up to that point yet. It would be at the cost of his position to stir up the whole community by changing a teacher who led her class at the "normal," who graduated with honors and percents that looked skyward, who could unravel the whole system of pedagogical philosophy no matter who kinked it, who was a favorite in society, played the church organ, and whose father had influential "friends on the board." What could he say, even if his courage should rise to the point of saying anything?

"Gentlemen, this young lady ought never to be a teacher in any school-room, but especially in the primary grades. She has not the right temperament for a teacher."

He said that to himself to see how it would sound as the shadows crept slowly into the room after everybody had departed. Then he shivered and smiled hopelessly as he foresaw the result of such a remark to the honorable gentlemen at the next monthly meeting. As well ask for a path to the moon.

"No, no; I can never do that. It would be utterly useless, and I should be accused of every purpose but the true one. And yet that lady was right though I didn't tell her so. I am glad to escape myself from that room every time I go into it. And it will be no use to talk to Miss Russell, either, I fear. She is in the "know it all" stage to begin with, and then how can she conquer her inheritance of that temperament and that voice?"

Mr. James put on his hat and went home. His conscience was a good deal pacified because he had gone so far as to analyze the matter and decide as to the right of it. He didn't see that he could do anything more.

Now is not Miss Russell, who is the immediate cause of the trouble, the least to blame of any concerned? She is inexperienced, and over-blest with energy, yet with the conceit of youth and success is doing the best she can from her point of view. The normal principal who let her go forth with his recommendation as a teacher, and far worse as a primary teacher, knew perfectly well that she was unfitted by temperament for such an occupation;—why did he not have the conscience and courage to tell her so?

So long as normal and training schools have neither the power nor the courage to weed out their classes, retaining only those who are temperamentally fitted to be teachers—other things being equal—this evil will go on. The accumulated result of the evil is beyond human estimate. Children have a right to the best influences. Who can be forgiven for robbing them of this right?—*E. D. K. in Primary Education.*

## RECORD MENTAL CHARACTERISTICS.

Do you make a record of the mental characteristics of your pupils? We have never joined the army of bitter critics of the percentage system, though it has been very hard to keep our tongue and pen silent at times, because, at the best, percentages express so little. They have their place, but it is merely as supplementary to the better and higher estimates and records of the child's ability and methods. The teacher who keeps, as many of the best teachers do, a record of the mental developments, is doing more for himself and the pupils than the best abstract array of per cents. ever recorded. Here is a sample:

*February 1.*—John James is more accurate in his arithmetical processes; more correct in his use of language; has lost his interest in geography; I fear he will never be a good speller; I think it may be best to allow his work in geography to slacken, for he needs accuracy and correctness in language much more. It has been hard work to secure it.

It is usually unwise to record more than one boy's characteristics in a day, but that will depend upon the teacher. *One, at least,* should be recorded daily.

*February 3.*—Mary May begins at last to appreciate division of fractions. She has a dull mind for numbers, but when she conquers a process it tells in her whole mental life. It did her more good to learn long division than any other five scholars. I could see it in her character and habits. I must stop her reading so many dissipating stories.

*February 5.*—Albert Allen seems to have lost his grip entirely. He is all sentiment, puts on airs, is getting quite "dudish," but he does no good thinking. I fear the dancing school and kissing parties will ruin his character as well as his mind. It is useless to talk to his mother; she is a thorough woman of the world. I must give a good deal of thought to him. To save him is worth a term's work. I saved Frank Ford; I'll try Bert.—*Journal of Education.*

## Book Notices, etc.

*Thucydides Book VII.* Edited by E. C. Marchant. Macmillan's Classical Series.

It is sufficient to announce this volume to those who are using the volumes already issued in this edition of Thucydides. Mr. Marchant has maintained the standard in every respect. This edition of Thucydides when completed will do honor to English scholarship.

*Cæsar: Bellum Gallicum.* Books V and VI. By John Henderson, M.A. and E. W. Haggarty, B.A. The Copp Clark Co.

The names of the Editors are a sufficient guarantee for the character of the book. A new and good feature is the introductory work in translation prefixed to each book. The exercises in re-translation at the end of the book are excellent and well adapted for school-work. Good maps are added.

We have received the following:

*Xenophon, Tales from the Cyropædia* adapted for beginners, with vocabulary, etc., by Charles Haines Keene. Macmillan's Elementary Series.

*Greek-English Word-List*, containing about 1,000 most common Greek words, by Robert Baird, Professor of Greek in North-Western University. Boston, Ginn & Co.

*Object-Lessons—How to Teach Them*, by George Ricks, B. Sc. (Lond). Vol. II. Heath's Pedagogical Library.

*Teachers' Manuals*, No. 21, "Rousseau and his Emile"; No. 22, "Horace Mann." By Ossian H. Lang. E. L. Kellogg, New York and Chicago.

*Practical Business Book-keeping by Double Entry for Grammar, High, and Commercial Schools*, by Manson Seavy, A.M., instructor in Book-keeping in the English High School, Boston. Heath & Co., 1893. 10x8, 238 pp., \$1.55.

For teachers' use this book will be valuable in Ontario. It supplies a full commercial course, including commercial paper; accounts of all kinds; books of original entry, giving all the recent improvements; ledger and trial balance statements, including changing from single to double entry; commission accounts; commercial computations, etc. It is one of the cheapest books in print, being beautifully printed on fine paper.

*Outlines of Pedagogics*, by Professor W. Rein, director of the Pedagogical Seminary at the University of Jena. Translated by C. C. and Ida J. VanLiew. E. L. Kellogg & Co., New York and Chicago.

No one knows better than the author of this little book how worse than valueless it will prove if used as a mere text-book. As he says himself, "a system is of value only to him in whom it has been developed. They only who will make the system here propounded their own, by thinking it out again for themselves, will appreciate the wisdom compressed into these hundred and forty pages. Briefly the book is an attempt to determine and describe a system of education for the early years of school life, that should be based upon such psychological principles as are now established beyond refutation. In the mere details of his course for historical study the author is not very convincing, but in giving to proper teaching in history the first place in point of educational value and interest he is undoubtedly right.

REWARDS and punishments should be sparingly used, and only as a temporary means of fixing good habits.—*Sully.*

EDUCATE toward a knowledge of truth, a love of the beautiful, a habit of doing good, because only through these forms can the self-activity continue to develop progressively in this universe.—*Harris.*

If the teacher has the consummation of tact that makes the pupils to any degree in love with the work so as to make them submit with cheerful and willing minds to all the needful restraints, and to render them on the whole well disposed to himself and to each other, he is a moral instructor of a high order, whether he means it or not.—*Bain.*

## Literary Notes.

In greatly broadening the scope of that interesting monthly, the Chicago Magazine of *Current Topics*, its publishers have decided upon a change of name, which will comport more fully with its contemplated field. *Current Topics* will be dropped and with the May number "The Chicago Magazine" will be assumed as the title. Under its new name the greatest latitude will be given for the introduction of those features most desirable in the popular magazines of the period. Price as heretofore, 15c. per copy, \$1.50 per year.

A QUESTION of some moment to the busy man and woman of to-day is, how to obtain a maximum of the choicest, most valuable reading matter at a minimum of outlay? *Littell's Living Age* is a magazine well suited to the need of such. Fresh, entertaining, instructive, paying weekly visits, convenient in size, clearly printed, and replete with choice gleanings from the foreign literary field, it is an excellent magazine for families of culture and intelligence. It needs to be but known to be prized as one of the best educational influences which can be introduced into the home. The contents of recent issues will maintain the high average which characterizes its weekly issues. It is published by Littell & Co., Boston at \$8.00 a year. A specimen copy may be obtained for 15c.

The leading article in *Worthington's Magazine* for April is "Some Great Libraries of the United States," by S. G. W. Benjamin. "American English," by Richard Burton, is a critical essay that will command special attention from writers and speakers and all who would preserve the purity of the language. Mrs. Livermore's serial, "One of the Forty-Niners," brings out the patriotic self-sacrifice, the anxieties, the soul-crushing suspense of the wives and mothers at home during the civil war. A pleasing love story is that entitled, "Powhatan and Pocahontas," by S. Elgar Benet, illustrated from drawings by the author. "Giant's Bracket by Katharine Lee Bates, is a charming serial full of vivid interest. Other departments present a varied store of interesting and entertaining articles and items.

*The American Mathematical Monthly*. This attractive magazine of 32 pages, which made its first appearance in January, promises to "devote a due portion of its space to the solution of problems, whether they be the easy problems in Arithmetic, or the difficult problems in the Calculus, Mechanics, Probability, or Modern Higher Mathematics." The first number contains a portrait and a biographical sketch of Prof. E. B. Seitz, articles on the "Lowest Integers Representing Sides of a Right Triangle," "Postulate I of Euclid's Elements," "Application of the New Education to the Differential and Integral Calculus," and several others of great interest. The solutions in Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Calculus, Mechanics, etc., are alone worth twice the subscription, \$2 per annum. The JOURNAL wishes success to its bright new contemporary in the educational field. Edited by B. F. Finkel, A.M. and J. M. Colaw, A.M. Chubbuck Bros., publishers, Kidder, Missouri, U.S.

THE complete novel in the April number of *Lippincott's* is "The Flying Halcyon," by Colonel Richard Henry Savage. Gilbert Parker's Serial, "The Trespasser," reaches its twelfth chapter. Other stories are "Cap'n Patti," by Elia W. Peattie, who touches upon the Salvation Army, and "For Remembrance," by Elizabeth W. Bellamy. P. F. De Gournay supplies an interesting account of the F. M. C's of Louisiana, a class which lost its distinctive existence by the war. Under the heading, "The Librarian Among His Books," Julian Hawthorne describes the Library of Congress and its distinguished Custodian. Chief Justice Abraham Fornander tells about "Hawaiian Traditions." H. C. Walsh explains an interesting experiment in "Co-operative House-keeping," now being made at Brookline, Mass., and George J. Varney writes learnedly of Storage-Battery Cars." In "Heroines of the Human

Comedy," Junius Henri Browne contributes a study of Balzac and his feminine characters.

The poetry of the number, besides a thoughtful and beautiful Easter Hymn by M. S. Paden, comes from Celia A. Hayward and Charles Calvin Ziegler.

THE April *Atlantic Monthly* contains several papers which ought to be read by all who should be well informed on the questions of the hour. Among such papers may be mentioned A. Lawrence Lowell's careful and critical article on "The Referendum in Switzerland and in America;" Wm. R. Thayer's "Some Causes of the Present Italian Crisis;" a brief history of Italy since 1870; and Joseph L. Brent's suggestive paper, "War's Use of the Engines of Peace." Among other articles there are Major Eben Greenough Scott's "General Lee during the Campaign of the Seven Days;" Richard Burton's "Nature in Old English Poetry;" R. Y. Tyrrell's "Early Latin Poetry;" Olive Thorne Miller's "The Secret of the Wild Rose Path;" and Agnes Repplier's "Opinions." Fiction is well represented by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps's "The Oath of Allegiance;" and Mary Hartwell Catherwood's "The Windigo;" also by a continuation of Margaret Deland's interesting story, "Philip and his Wife."

There are the usual reviews of recent fiction and other works, and the usual Comment on New Books and The Contributors' Club.

## For Friday Afternoon.

## LITTLE HOUSEKEEPERS.

(FOR SEVERAL LITTLE GIRLS).

Busy and happy young housewives are we;  
Not very big specimens—that you can see—  
But we've just the same housework of all kinds to do  
That the big, grown-up housekeepers have to go through.

Since Monday is wash-day, all the world 'round,  
At the wash-tub, on Monday, we're sure to be found.

We rub Dolly's clothes till they're pure as the snow, (1)  
Then we rinse them, and wring them, and hang them up so. (2)

On Tuesday, the ironing has to be done,  
So we sprinkle and fold (3)—that's the part that is fun!

And we smooth out the wrinkles with our irons thus, you see,  
Rubbing backward and forward, till they're smooth as can be. (4)

On Wednesday, we bake—and oh! 'tis such fun  
To knead soft dough—this is how it is done (5)  
For our cakes, we mast have just the finest of dust.

Then our pies—this is how we roll out our crust. (6)

On Thursday, there's nothing especial to do,  
So we do odds and ends—darn stockings or sew. (7)  
But on Friday, with brooms we make the dust fly  
As we sweep the house o'er, where'er dirt we espy. (8)

And at last, when Saturday comes—oh! dear! dear!  
We're busy as any grown folks ever were,  
We clean, and we scrub, and we brew, and we bake (9)

Then our week's work all done, Sunday rest we can take.

1. Make the motion of rubbing up and down as on a wash-board in washing.

2. Make the motion of wringing clothes by hand, and then reaching up to hang them on the line.

3. Motion of sprinkling.

4. Using the right hand, move smoothly left and right—left and right, etc.

5. Move alternately the doubled fists up and down as in kneading dough.

6. Use both hands, making a smoothing motion.

7. Motion of sticking a needle in and out.

8. Holding the hands as though holding a broom, make a sweeping motion.

9. Count off with the right hand, on the fingers of the left, each item—*Young Folks' Entertainments*.

## A LITTLE PHILOSOPHER.

MRS. MARGARET SANGSTER.

The days are short and the nights are long,  
And the wind is nipping cold;  
The tasks are hard and the sums are wrong,  
And the teachers often scold.  
But Johnny McCree,  
Oh, what cares he,  
As he whistles along the way?  
"It will all come right  
By to-morrow night,"  
Says Johnny McCree to-day.

The plums are few and the cakes are plain,  
The shoes are out at the toe;  
For money you look in your purse in vain—  
It was all spent long ago.  
But Johnny McCree,  
Oh, what cares he,  
As he whistles along the street?  
Would you have the blues  
For a pair of shoes  
While you have a pair of feet?

The snow is deep, there are paths to break,  
But the little arm is strong,  
And work is play if you'll only take  
Your work with a little song.  
And Johnny McCree,  
Oh, what cares he,  
As he whistles along the road?  
He will do his best,  
And leave the rest  
To the care of his Father, God.

The mother's face is often sad,  
She scarce knows what to do;  
But at Johnny's kiss she is bright and glad;  
She loves him, and wouldn't you?  
For Johnny McCree,  
Oh, what cares he,  
As he whistles along the way?  
The trouble will go,  
And "I told you so,"  
Our brave little John will say.

## A BIG, BIG PIECE OF PIE.

E. M. BUMSTEAD.

Our Ollie went to his bed  
With tears just back of his eyes,  
And a pain, because, as his sister said,  
He was "overly fond of pies."  
He dreamed the dreadfullest dreams,—  
As dreadful as they could be;  
For a big, big piece of pie, it seems,  
Is a bad, bad thing for tea.

He dreamed of a terrible snow  
That fell from an inky sky,  
And every flake that the winds did blow  
Was big as a pumpkin pie!  
All in a heap 'twas laid,  
While the rude wind laughed in glee,  
But oh, the deep, deep drift that it made  
Was a sad, sad thing to see.

Then he thought that the summer was dead,  
And winter would always stay;  
That an iceberg ledge was his only bed,  
And a glazier his home by day.  
And the sun, too late he rose,  
And he went to bed too soon,  
And a long, long icicle hung from the nose  
Of the cold, cold man-in-the-moon.

He turned to his sister; oh  
How lonely and sad he felt  
When he found she was made of ice and snow  
Which a hug would be sure to melt?  
Just think of the dreams he had,  
As dreadful as dreams could be!  
Oh, a big, big piece of pie is bad  
For a small, small boy at tea!

THE end of education:—To think; to reason; to feel nobly; to see the relations of things; to put the ages together in their grand progress; to trace causes; to prophesy results; to discern the sources of power; to find true beginnings instead of unknowable causes; to perceive the moral as governing the intellectual, and both as dominating the material; to discern the lines along which humanity is moving, and distinguish them from the eddies of the day.—*T. Munger*.

THE more we enlighten the intelligence the more we develop the moral consciousness.—*Compayre*.

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THE moral educator must take pains to control and guide the public opinion of the school.—*Sully.*

"WERE the schoolmaster as noisy as a politician, or as visible as an orator, or as charming as an artist in a studio; the public would hasten to crown with laurels at least all those great in this calling; but they live and die in a world where those who lay the mighty foundations of a cathedral are forgotten, compared with those who carve its columns or design its colored glass."—*Prof. David Swing.*

It is obvious that the young woman with fifty-six pupils before her is attempting what no mortal can perform. I suppose it is practicable for one young woman to hear the lessons out of one book of all of fifty children before her during the hours of the school session, and keep a certain amount of watch over the children who are not reciting their lessons, providing the graduating is almost perfect, and we are going to be satisfied with "uniform" results. But the new teaching is of quite a different character. It requires alertness, vitality, and sympathetic enthusiasm.—*President Eliot.*

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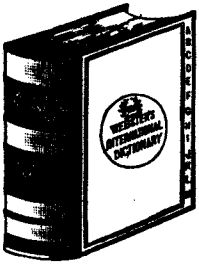
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