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THE CANADA  
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OCTOBER, 1894.

SOME ERRORS IN TEXT-BOOKS ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY A. STEVENSON, B.A., PRINCIPAL HIGH SCHOOL, ARTHUR.

THE proper scope of the study of English grammar is but vaguely defined in the text-books, and grammarians have not yet come to an agreement as to what should be included and what should be omitted in a treatise on the subject. Most of us remember when grammar was defined to include orthography, etymology, syntax and prosody. But in our authorized school-books nowadays we find no mention of either orthography or prosody, and etymology seems to be treated chiefly in relation to inflection. Virtually, then, it has come to this, that English grammar, as we have it, may be considered as treating of certain functions and relations which words have when used as means of expression, and of certain variations in form which some words take to indicate these functions and relations.

It is the doctrine of some grammarians that formal grammar should be confined to the usual or standard modes of verbal expression. These scholars define grammar as the science of sentences, and when they are called upon to deal with forms of expression which are not sentences, they remodel the expression so as to convert them into sentences and then deal with them as such. Suppose

you ask them to parse the imperative expression, "run!" They first declare that this expression is incomplete for, say they, a sentence must consist of two words, a subject and a verb, of which the verb must agree with the subject. So they add to the expression the word "thou" or "you," which they say is "understood," and then they assert that the verb "run" agrees with its alleged subject.

This is surely a most unscientific mode of procedure. It is not worth while to add a word as subject of "run" for the sake of being able to say that there is now a complete sentence and that there is an agreement of the verb with that subject. For this agreement is, after all, a pure fiction even when the word is supplied. And though the command "run!" as it stands, be not a sentence, that matters not. The resources of the scientific grammarian are surely not so limited that he cannot deal with such an expression. Whether we call it a sentence or not, the expression is a good one. If, then, it does not fit our grammars let us fit our grammars to it.

Suppose at the outset we distinguish between things and names and we shall see that in giving the command "run!" the speaker is thinking not of

the word "you" but of the *person* to whom he is speaking. The person spoken to does not "understand" the word "you" prefixed to the command; he does not need the word "you" to tell him who is meant; he knows who is meant from other circumstances. Words are by no means the only signs of ideas, and the verbal sign for "you" is not used here because the idea is conveyed in other ways. The expression, then, is complete in the circumstances where it is used, and it is absurd to say that any word is understood. In parsing the word "run" we may say that it is used without a subject, but not that it agrees with a subject understood.

Let us also dismiss from our parsing the fiction of agreement, except where agreement actually occurs. In the sentence "Sweet are the uses of adversity," we need not say that "are" is in the third person and the plural number agreeing with "uses" since the form "are" does not always indicate either the third person or the plural number. The standard parsing of such terms seems the more ridiculous, too, when we remember that in reality, after all, there is no personal inflection for nouns.

This is an element of contradiction and confusion in our grammatical work that we should do well to get rid of. We say that the grammatical values of terms in language depend solely upon their functions and relations. We recognize that where inflections do occur in our language they exist because they mark these functions and relations. Yet, as the result of the study of Greek and Latin and the adoption of most of our grammatical language from treatises on the synthetic tongues, we frequently employ terms and forms of expression which are quite inconsistent with the facts of English, in so far as it is an analytic language, and which make the study of our grammar needlessly bewildering and difficult. The abuse

of the terms "agreement," "person" and "number" has been illustrated.

It is quite as bad to define inflection as a variation in form, and cases as a kind of inflection, and then to go on and speak of the objective case of nouns, where there is no inflection. Equally reprehensible is the common mode of speaking of phrases or subordinate clauses as noun or adjective or adverb equivalents, and of certain words as being, for example, nouns used as adjectives. Why all this bother? If a grammatical term, whether it be a word, or a phrase, or a clause, is used in a given sentence with an adjective function, then it is an adjective, and that is an end of the matter.

It is time that some grammarian would break entirely with the dogmatism of the past and would write us a book in which we should have nothing but the facts of English grammar in a proper scientific arrangement, a book without the confusing terms and definitions and the arbitrary rules which have made the study of English grammar a plague to the young during all past years.

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Discretion in speech is more than eloquence. When you doubt, abstain.—*Bacon*.

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In a Second Reader class lately visited the teacher certainly uttered two-thirds of the words—that is did twice as much talking as the class; one of the visitors thought she did five times as much as the pupils. Let the teacher make it a matter of effort to utter as few words as possible; give the pupils a chance.

"Sleep after toyle, port after stormy seas.

Ease after warre, death after life doth greatly please."

*Spenser.*

POST-GRADUATE COURSES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

PROF. J. SQUAIR, B.A.

(Synopsis)

WHAT can be said in favour of the double-degree system? Evidently what has just been said regarding the difficulty of raising the standards of matriculation and graduation becomes an argument in favor of establishing Ph.D. courses. If the standard of matriculation cannot be raised, then the B.A. course can never become an equivalent for a course in a German university, nor even for a post-graduate course in an American one, and we shall be forced either to put up for all time with an inferior system of higher education or to add something to what we now have. Another reason in favor of the Ph.D. course is, that it might furnish a new spur to the ambition of our young men and women to thoroughly equip themselves as scholars in some branch of learning. And another reason in its favor is our proximity to the United States, whose systems we may be forced to imitate because we most certainly shall be forced to compete with them more and more as time goes on.

Coming now to the difficulties which beset the organization of a system of Ph.D. courses, the first one which occurs to me, after the financial one, is the difficulty of seeing from what sources we should draw our students. We should not be able to draw many from the ranks of those who intended to enter the clerical, medical or legal professions unless we made the work so light that it could be done concurrently with the work necessary for preparing the students for entering their respective professions, and such courses would be a disgrace to the university. There would remain

those who intended to enter the teaching profession, either in Colleges or in High Schools. The number of college professors required in this country is very small, and we could hardly hope to draw from Europe or the United States, and so our chief source of supply would be those who intend to become High School teachers, and it is likely that few of these would come unless the Education Department should give a legal value to the Ph.D. degree, by refusing, say, a head master's or specialist's certificate to any but doctors of philosophy. This brings me to the next set of difficulties. Such an enactment as I have just referred to, would probably create a rush towards Ph.D. degrees, with the probable result of rendering it very difficult to maintain a high standard in both the B.A. and Ph.D. courses. And it is likely that the standard of work done in the High Schools would be lowered also, for it would come about in the end that the three courses—High School, B.A. and Ph.D. taken together—would not be much, if any, longer than the High School and B.A. courses taken together, now are. And so we should have added an extra piece of machinery without having increased the efficiency of our already sufficiently complex system of education.

Of course this whole debate is settled for the present by our unfortunate financial position. Whether we will or no, we must content ourselves for a while with what improvements, great or small, we can effect in the single degree system we now possess, and fortunately any steps

in advance we may take, will not embarrass future action. And what steps can be taken? The standard of matriculation can be raised a little, let us hope. This appears likely to be accomplished, although I am afraid but little will be done unless there is a combined effort by all those who have the matter at heart. There is a great deal of small, narrow selfishness to be overcome if we really are to succeed. The university must be willing to lose some students and the schools must be willing to have smaller success at examinations, or the same old evils will go on for ever.

I know I am touching on a delicate subject, but I cannot refrain from saying that in my opinion there is a great loss of time in both our Public and High Schools on account of wrong notions regarding the meaning and purpose of schools and of subjects taught in the schools. It would be impossible at present to give in detail the reasons for my views on this point, so I must content myself by naming briefly some of the things in which I think time is lost. I think that Scientific Temperance, for instance, is an improper subject for Public Schools, and I think that far too much time is spent at Arithmetic, Euclid, Grammar, Book-keeping and Calisthenics in our High Schools. With regard to the time spent in some of these our country stands alone, and so far as I can see there is no achievement in scholarship to which we can point to justify the wisdom of our exceptional conduct. Often during the last fifteen years have I heard foreigners express their astonishment that we spent so much time on the futile problems of Arithmetic and Grammar, and so little on the much more important problems of Higher Mathematics, of History, of Natural Science and of Linguistics. To my mind it is idle

to look for any real raising of our standards until there is a radical reconstruction of our programmes and time-tables.

The university must also try to raise the character of the undergraduate work. At present it is far from satisfactory. The spirit of the average student regarding learning is not right. He boldly avows that he does not come to the university for knowledge; but for various other reasons, such as to mix with his fellows, to learn how to do business, how to manage elections and societies, to edit newspapers, to debate, to look after his body, to become an athlete, foot-ball player, boxer and fencer, in short to do any and everything but what ought to be the business of a university. Of course, there are other types. One very common is the serious-minded, narrow man who is anxious to pass his examinations creditably, but who absolutely refuses to do anything that is not prescribed by the curriculum.

It is hard to find a student who has any strong desire to know things for their own sake. Those who have any buoyancy or eagerness are extremely rare. There seems to be a sort of *blasé* condition amongst them in spite of their ignorance. Now, what is to cure this? Like all other deep-seated, chronic diseases the cure will be slow. A right spirit amongst all teachers is what is first required. *We* must set a good example before we complain too much of the defects of our students. And the teachers of this country, both in High Schools and universities, have not done their duty in the past. In addition to this matter of arousing a right spirit, certain practical measures may be taken gradually as circumstances permit, as, for example, the institution of a new test for graduation with Honors, by making it necessary for

candidates to present an approved thesis in some subject, in addition to the tests already in existence.

But some may say, that is all very well as far as the under-graduates are concerned, but has the university no duty towards its graduates? I believe it has, but it seems clear to me that it would do very little good to this class by the establishment of post-graduate courses. What it ought to do is to establish a journal or a series of journals in which its graduates might publish the results of their investigations in the various departments of study in which they are interested. No matter what degree a man may take, it will amount to very little, if, as soon as he obtains it, he ceases to study and investigate. The possession of organs for the publication of investigations is a necessity to higher learning, no matter what sort of university courses you may have. But the poverty of the university may interfere here as elsewhere. If so, can the teachers themselves do nothing in the meantime? We have our four special associations whose programmes are always open to us, and it is a disgrace to the teaching profession of this country that those four programmes are always so meagre in scholarly things.

The greatest source of discouragement in connection with education in Ontario is the fact that there is such an indifference regarding growth in knowledge amongst our university graduates. How many men in this country can be looked on as being amongst the authorities in any subject? How many can be found whose knowledge in any subject would be called even respectable by the great authorities? There are some, but they are very rare. The university graduates of our country need an awakening, and that awaking ought to begin amongst the

teaching profession. What are the hindrances to such an awakening? They are numerous. We are a very material people, although we do not seem to know it. The Anglo-Saxon who lives in North America is amongst the most material of civilized beings. His great object in life is getting on. So long as he can have warm houses, soft beds and "square" meals, questions of an intellectual or artistic character have small attraction for him. He demands of his school teachers, not that they shall advance human knowledge, but that they shall make the school a success, that they shall pass many candidates at the various examinations in vogue amongst us. So the poor teacher must be a hewer of wood and a drawer of water, one who shall teach all day and correct exercises all night. Why should a teacher have an opportunity to increase in knowledge? Knowledge is of no value, and if the teacher had any extra time he would not spend it in gaining knowledge, but in gambling in stocks or real estate or the like. In time the teacher gets to look on sentiments like these as quite natural and proper, and moreover he does not wish to be loaded with extra educational baggage, particularly since it might interfere with his success in running in the race for better positions. He comes to look on things as his master, the trustee, looks on them: *tel maitre tel valet*: Shall it be ever thus? Will there not come a time when boards of trustees shall look for higher results than those that can be measured by examinations, and inspectorial visits? Yes, when a different spirit pervades our people. And that different spirit will come when a fair proportion of teachers show that they are themselves devoted body and soul to the interests of learning. There is no reason why there should not be a respectable

number of young teachers ready every year with scholarly papers for our association meetings, if they would only get to work. True, there is a sore lack of libraries, but if all were in earnest that lack could be remedied in some way or other. Why do not the so-called specialists of our profession get to work on some branch of the departments to which they have devoted themselves, and then give us the results of their investigations? It is very difficult to get anyone to read papers of any kind at our meetings, and unfortunately the majority of those that are read are on some pedagogical topic, or they are a defence of a particular department or an attack on other departments. Let us be done with this, and let us add to our programme subjects of a scholarly character, the results of our own patient investigations, and make the proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association a credit to our profession and to our country. Certainly the Proceedings are not a very fitting organ for the expression of the scholarship of a country, but let us not complain of the organ until we have shown we are worthy of a better one. As soon as we have a little band of investigators who can really say something worth listening to, the ready listeners will be easily found, and the worthy organ or organs will

come into being. Not a few fruitless attempts have been made in our country to found high-class journals, and in every case I venture to say the failures have come about more from the lack of articles than from the lack of readers. We are continually making the mistake that it is improvement in literary style which we need, while as a matter of fact it is greater knowledge. We are dying for lack of knowledge, and we won't believe it.

To bring this too long paper to a close, let me repeat in concise form what seem to me the only things we can do at present to increase the efficiency of the higher parts of our educational system :

(1) Raise the standard of matriculation by a wise selection of subjects, as well as by a raising of minimum percentages.

(2) Raise the quality of the undergraduate work by attempting specially to excite a love of knowledge for its own sake amongst students and a curiosity which will lead them to make independent investigations.

(3) Let all of us, but particularly the younger members of the profession, begin to study in a thorough fashion some limited portion of some department of knowledge, and let us present it to some part of our Association in the form of papers to be published in the Proceedings.

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## RESTFUL TEACHING.

BY ANNIE PAYSON CALL.

TO teach with quiet nerves and free muscles, to transmit directly and clearly, from one's mind to the mind of another in a manner to develop individuality and original thought in that other—this is an ideal which every teacher will allow to be

before him. Unfortunately, there are many instances, especially among women teachers, where it can be truly said: "I should be more glad than I can express to reach that ideal, but it seems impossible when every day I get so over tired." No one

can see clearly, think clearly, or feel quiet, with a strain of over-fatigue upon him. And with a teacher it is especially difficult, for the tired nerves are steadily being more drawn upon by the irritation which comes from association with a variety of natures. Of course the irritation rouses irritation in the pupil, and the discipline maintained under such circumstances, if it is discipline at all, is a form of obedience which arises from repression on both sides. That in itself is most fatiguing, as, on the other hand, there is nothing more restful than an open and real sympathy between teacher and pupil.

There are some simple laws which when truly regarded and obeyed are very helpful in approaching this ideal state of the teacher, and, if these merely physical laws are followed, it opens the way and makes an obedience to higher physical laws not only possible but easy; whereas before, no matter how truly the ethics of teaching may have been recognized in the mind, the teacher would find herself constantly contradicting her own better knowledge, from sheer physical inability to live up to it.

Let us take a practical example, which may seem so simple as not even to deserve attention, and yet if the reader will kindly be patient to the end, the worth while may grow upon him.

Nervous strain reflects itself to a certain degree upon the muscles. Notice a face that has been impressed for years with worry and anxiety, until finally the muscles are drawn into a chronic tension, and the face is never peaceful, even in sleep. A lecturer expresses his nervous strain often in various superfluous muscular actions, which have come to be so common that they sometimes go unnoticed, and are even considered at times an assistance in delivery by the lecturer himself. They are, of course, only an assistance because it is easier for the moment to retain a nervous habit,

however bad, than undergo the mental effort of dropping it. But the Rubicon once crossed, in this case as in many others, it is clearly recognized to be not only a saving of strength, but a gain in communicative power, to be entirely without superfluous strain or motion. I say strain, as well as motion, for the most fatiguing kind of unnecessary work with a lecturer or teacher often comes from a rigidity of muscle which gives the appearance of perfect calm; but the reaction from such strain is a sort of fatigue which far exceeds that of superfluous motion.

If any teacher who recognizes in herself or himself a sensitive nervous temperament will, at the risk of some temporary discomfort, notice for a time just the superfluous muscular tension used, it will not only be a surprise, but an assistance in dropping such tension and so saving the fatigue which it causes.

The more this superfluous tension is allowed, the deeper the brain impression, until the habit of wasting fuel is not only established in the brain, but goes on increasing until there is either an active breaking up, or a wearing out, which is worse; for the owner of the brain that wears and wears and does not snap must drag through more misery before giving up than could possibly be concentrated into any immediate snap, even with the long trying process of getting well. If a brain impression will and does work one way, in an abnormal manner, it follows that it can be quite as surely relied upon for normal work; indeed, more so, because, with nature on our side, and having found the right road, the process to health is quicker and surer than that to disease. In health we are always returning to our own; in disease we are always departing from it.

I am speaking now of the brain impression made from superfluous muscular tension. Having discovered it,



how should we contradict and erase it? Take the arms and hands for instance, a very common field for superfluous force. Sit quietly with the hands in the lap; raise an arm slowly, feeling the weight from the shoulder, with hand hanging from the wrist. When the arm feels quite heavy while you hold it about on a level with the shoulder let it drop a dead weight on the lap. Repeat this several times and days in succession until you have to clear an impression of the natural restful state of your arms and hands when not in use, that every time you draw your arms up to listen or talk, every time your hands move in a way which is expressive of nothing but useless effort, your brain, which has grown normal in the arm and hand region, is at once sensitive to abnormal tension, which you know, of course, how to drop. At first you may notice such tension twenty times in the day; gradually the normal state will be more and more your own, and your attention will not be drawn to your arms and hands once a week. They will be good servants, obeying orders truly, and directly, and can be forgotten by their owner.

Much superfluous muscular strain comes from the spine. A rigid back is abnormal, and of course affects the movement of arms and legs. To avoid this, drop the head forward heavily with loose jaw, let the weight of the head seem to draw the body over, until it drops as far as possible, so that the forehead touches the knees when you are sitting, then raise the whole body *very* slowly, letting it feel more and more heavy as it comes up, and even stopping every now and then to feel the weight more. The head must not be raised until the very last, and especial attention should be given to the slowness of the motion. When the body is erect, take three long quiet breaths. Gradually, as with the arms,

by getting the impression of a free spine, you become sensitive to its superfluous tension, and by correcting the tension every time you feel it, the spine grows daily more normal.

In the above exercise the legs should be carefully noticed, and when effort is felt there the exercise should be stopped, the legs relaxed, and kept so during the motion of the body up.

To get the impression of freedom in the entire body, lie on the floor, or on a hard bed, take a series of long quiet breaths, feeling your body quite heavy when you inhale, and as if every particle of it dropped back separately, and more heavily as you let the breath out—exhale always with a sense of relief, and inhale with a sense of refreshment. The breath should be taken through the nose, with very great care to breathe more and more quietly.

With these simple exercises it can clearly be seen there must come an increasing realization of quiet and freedom. With that comes the increasing sensitiveness to a want of quiet, and a growing ability to recall it. A child is stupid and irritable, or obstinate: There comes at once a temptation to be irritable and fatigued by the child's state; having realized in fifteen minutes of every day what a quiet state is, we can in one second recall it, govern the child with the Big Repose behind our action, and the gain to both child and teacher is, of course, just in proportion to the superfluous effort dropped. For however well the teacher may conceal impatience, irritation, or nervous fatigue, the child is sure to feel it consciously or unconsciously, and the very concealment is a nervous strain to a teacher, especially as the prevalent form of control with men and women nowadays is through an almost fierce resistance, rather than the more natural control through non-resistance.

If I am tempted to be very angry and use my will to let go of nerve and muscle, rather than hold on, the brain impression is cleared and my temper disappears. If I repress my temper, without allowing it in any way to express itself, the brain impression is increased by the repression. And it is these fossil brain impressions, so to speak, that we are dragging about the world with us that bring full half the nervous fatigue, nervous prostration, and various forms of nervous diseases. Fifteen minutes every day given to clearing away the muscular tension would eventually open the way, and make the process clearer for ridding ourselves of the causes for all this unnecessary teacher fatigue, of which the muscular tension is but one simple effect.

One word about the voice. A teacher's voice trouble comes in almost all cases from throat contraction, and, while it is not best to attempt written directions to cure that, great relief may come from watching that the jaw and throat are loose during the other muscular exercises, especially the deep breathing, and always pitching the voice in a low key.

All this physical work amounts, of course, to little or nothing, unless followed by a steadily increasing mental freedom. It is merely an opening of the channels; but there must be the true philosophy to work through the channels. That every one knows, certainly to a degree, if once quiet and rested enough to see it. And following the light we have brings us to more. The normal attitude of mind helps the muscular freedom; the muscular freedom makes the mental freedom easier. I feel my muscles suddenly contract; stop the contraction and look for the cause. If I seek it truly it may be easily found in some personal sensitiveness of responsibility, or some other form

of self-centredness, equally unnecessary and humiliating. But such humility is most wholesome, if used as a reminder to drop the cause and its consequent contraction in future. And just here it can be said that there is nothing more helpful toward a normal state of nerves than a good healthy indifference. Notice, if you please, a *healthy* indifference—an indifference that will enable a man or woman to work with heart and soul at what is before him or her, regardless entirely of success or failure. That makes true success possible, relieves one from fatiguing reaction, and makes one heartily ready for the next task. But that consummation devoutly to be wished for can only come through a freedom from selfish interest of which some of us can hardly conceive, and none of us have reached though happily we are all free to aim at it.

The muscular exercises given above will not take the place of fresh air exercise, the proper nourishment, and plenty of good sleep; they should make one more alive to such needs. But the quiet having been found, if at times a longer task than usual seems necessary, it can be taken with less fatigue.

For mental rest the exercises themselves must be concentrated upon, simply as a child would try to do what it was told. And after the deep-breathing on the floor or on the bed, to quietly identify oneself with whatever form of nature appeals most strongly at the time, simply dropping every other thought that would intrude, is most restful. This concentration should be followed for a minute one day, and go on increasing in time until one concentrates on some one thing in nature steadily for five minutes. There is a whole subject in itself—concentration. So far recognize the freedom, or even the possibility of letting the subject carry you

instead of trying to carry the subject. I cannot close this article without an appeal to all who have under their charge the training of teachers.

It has been shown me so clearly that an entire college can be kept from doing its best work through this mistaken brain impression of nervousness in reciting, of dread of examinations, and kindred excitabilities, unnecessary, and yet travelling from one mind to another with the rapidity and with more certainty than any physical epidemic, however malignant.

One girl tries to recite before a large class; every other student believes it incumbent upon her to be delighted that she is not the victim, and to commiserate the nervousness of her fellow student, until it almost seems a sign of unwarrantable egotism if one is not "nervous" about a difficult recitation.

So it is with examinations: every one expects every one else to be nervous, and of course every one is. As I have said before, there is nothing so contagious.

A change may be accomplished by a repeated impression of this fact: "I am here to recite: the more I am criticised the more clearly I can see my mistakes, the better work I can do; therefore, the more I am criticised the better; it follows then that if I have common-sense I shall want to be criticised." Also with examinations: "I am examined to find out how much I know—I wish to be examined, that is what I am here for—if I fail it will show that I need more study, or a different sort of study; therefore I am glad to know it; if I succeed it makes assurance doubly sure; there is nothing to be nervous about."

It seems simple, almost childish, that the repetition of an impression such as the above words signify should be necessary to grown students. But the repetition of the words over and

over is dignity itself, compared to the other impression which they contradict, and which is sadly, one might almost say shockingly, prevalent in schools and colleges. And would not the result of the more rational brain impression be a teacher who would have more power and a clearer vision for all future pupils? Perhaps fifteen minutes' work given every day by a college collectively to gaining free muscles, and quiet nerves, would help greatly to bring about a more normal state of nerves in students, and in teachers to come.

I say perhaps, because it would be of little or no service unless led by teachers who were in sympathy with the more natural way of living and working.

If carried on daily with that spirit could there be, just now, a better or more sincere form of morning prayers?

It should lead to a restful activity with a normal re-action from the best work, bringing one rhythmically back, fresh for new work to come. We certainly need to remember that we should pray physically and mentally as well as spiritually.—*The Educational Times*.

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Good example always brings forth good fruits.—*Samuel Smiles*.

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It is not a good sign for the teacher to talk a great deal in the school-room. Some seem to feel that teaching consists in telling; let such remember Joseph Payne's words; teaching is self-learning. Education is a finding out process. In all good schools the voice of the teacher is heard but little and then mainly (1) in direction, (2) criticism, (3) questions. At stated times he may give information; for example, things he may have seen or read—but he will do this with much care, and only when there is a decided appetite for knowledge.

## COMPOSITION.

BY KATHERINE H. SHUTE, ASSISTANT IN THE BOSTON NORMAL SCHOOL.

THE term *Composition*, in this paper, will be used to include all written work in which the expression is original with the pupil; the thought may or may not be original. This definition, it will be seen, includes everything from the briefest statement which the child may write in answer to a simple question, provided the expression be his own, to the most elaborate attempt at essay writing by the advanced student. I shall confine myself, mainly, however, to the work done in primary and grammar grades.

With this definition and limitation in mind, I invite a brief consideration of the following points: First, the value of composition in education; second, the preliminary work which serves as a preparation for composition; third, the choice of subjects; fourth, methods of conducting the composition exercise; fifth, the necessary training for teachers of the subject; and, in conclusion, composition viewed in its relation to reading.

What claims has composition to a recognized place in our courses of study? Both fallacies in thought and weak and inadequate expression, it will be granted, are much more readily detected when the pupil attempts to express himself in writing. He feels more dissatisfied when the result of his slipshod thinking faces him from the written page than when he produces equally shabby oral work, and becomes ambitious to express himself more clearly; for often he does not recognize the fact that the fundamental trouble is in his thought and not in his expression of it.

But clear expression is dependent upon clear thinking, is, indeed, impossible without it; and—what is

more—the effort toward clear expression, the effort to impart thought to others, reacts upon thinking and forces it to be more discriminating. In its reactionary effect upon thought, it seems to me, lies the chief value of composition work.

In the second place, added power in the use of clear, forcible, elegant English is a result which we have a right to expect from judicious practice in the art of composition.

Again, composition may be used effectively as an incentive to the imagination; because even the simpler processes of composition require a recombining of the materials with which the mind is already stored, while the higher forms of the art call for the highest and most far-reaching activity of the creative imagination.

Finally, composition may be so employed as to awaken a more intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of literature; inasmuch as the effort to produce work of any kind leads an intelligent and candid mind to value more justly the work of others in the same field.

That it renders thought more discriminating, increases the power of expression, incites the imagination to greater activity, and develops an appreciation of literature: these are the claims which entitle composition to an honorable place in our school programmes.

Admitting the claims of composition, what training shall be given little children from the time they first enter school until they are ready to take their first, feeble steps in the art? Since in the natural order of things, oral expression precedes written, since, in truth, written language is but a later and more artificial dress for

thought, it is essential to consider what may be done in school to develop the child's earlier means of sharing his thought with others—oral language. We might, indeed, go a step further back and ask what means are to be taken to develop habits of logical thought; and this would introduce an enquiry which should antedate the last;—how train the child in correct habits of observation? But these enquiries, although entirely pertinent in a thorough study of the subject, are hardly within the scope of this limited paper.

In brief, there are three directions in which the little child is to be trained. His mind is to be stimulated to healthful activity; he is to be encouraged to express himself with freedom and is to be critically watched, and tactfully led to make his expression clear, correct, and complete; and finally he is to have much practice in arranging written work upon the page with some degree of knowledge, accurate so far as it goes, of paragraphing, the use of capitals and punctuation.

How are the habits of correct oral and written expression to be formed? For unless they are habits, the child is always to be hampered in the practice of composition. The ability to write properly when an especial effort is made is one thing, the habit of writing properly is another.

The habit of expressing thought in clear, accurate, complete sentences may be formed, as many of us know from experience, with very little children when they are only beginning their school life. If in every lesson in which answers consisting of complete sentences are desirable, the teacher requires such sentences every time, rejecting slipshod answers when they are given and occasionally rewarding good answers with judicious praise, the little folks will soon grow

ambitious in the matter and the habit will take care of itself.

Habits in written work are more slowly but just as surely acquired. The first sentence which the child is allowed to write on his slate should be correctly written as regards arrangement, spelling, capitals and punctuation. The same care should be taken with the next statement and with every succeeding statement until the habit is formed.

This seems a very small matter and one easily accomplished, but it is wonderful how many teachers know how not to do it. In the first place, the teacher should use great care about her own written work on the board, not only that which the children are to copy, but that which they are to see and gain impressions from. It is a very trite saying that we learn to do things correctly by doing them correctly, but one worth repeating here. A child never learns to make good sentences by using careless English which the teacher accepts without protest; neither does he learn to write in correct form when left to himself to tell "what he remembers about the pretty story," being permitted the liberty of his own untrammelled imagination as to arrangement, punctuation, etc. Not only does he fail to form good habits, but he distinctly succeeds in forming bad habits, which some future teacher must strive to counteract with labor and sorrow. Neither will the child whose work is seldom examined and never corrected form good habits. He may be kept busy (even this is a question when one considers the weakness of poor human nature in performing unrecognized duties), but that he will form habits of correct written expression which are to stand by him in the serious business of written examinations and essays is well-nigh hopeless.

There are yet other simple and

convenient means of forming bad habits, but how are good habits to be formed? The means to this result are equally simple, but they must be persistently used. Frequent exercises in copying and dictation which are to be examined and rigidly corrected will after a time result in the formation of habits. There should be a minimum of written work required, but it should be chosen with a definite purpose.

Boston has had its season of running wild over written work in primary schools. There are strong indications that the tide has turned, but it takes time to counteract so violent a movement. Over and over again I have visited schools where the main object seemed to be to keep children busy with the slate and pencil and where the quantity of the work and not the quality was commended by the teacher.

Granted, then, that the preparation for composition work in its simplest forms consists first in the child's power to express himself orally in complete sentences, and second, in the ability to write in the proper form from a copy or from dictation, we next ask how much of the child's school life shall be devoted to acquiring these habits? Roughly speaking, much can be done toward establishing them in the first two years, and very little is gained by attempting any written work outside of this in these two years. During the next year the same work should be continued, but the child may also spend a comparatively small part of the time devoted to written language in answering questions in his own words, in reproducing brief stories or fables, guided at first by the teacher, sentence by sentence, and finally—because the sentence habit has been established he may be left to himself to reproduce in writing what he has

shown himself capable of reproducing orally. He may also write simple letters, guided at first by the teacher, sentence by sentence, in the expression of his thought, and finally, left to himself, he may write upon certain topics agreed upon beforehand.

In the lower grammar grades, that is the fourth, fifth and sixth years of a child's school-life, this work should be continued and reproduction in writing from topics of lessons previously discussed orally may be introduced. In the higher grammar grades the pupils may attempt essays upon subjects connected with the school-work or upon any other topics which interest them.

If the objection is urged that this plan is too limited and cramps the child's originality, it may be said in reply that there are ample opportunities in the school-room, both in lessons and friendly conversation, to encourage and develop the child's individuality, without running the risk of developing habits of careless written expression, which is inevitably the case, as some of us know by sad experience, when the average child does much unaided writing.

Why is the composition hour so often an occasion of childish misery? Why do most healthy children "hate" compositions? Is not the opportunity to tell what we know and care about in and of itself a pleasant and desirable thing? I think it is, and I dare say that more of our children would think so if we used a little more common sense as regards our choice of subjects, and our methods of conducting the composition exercise.

In the choice of topics, two extremes are to be guarded against. One is the tendency to confine the composition work too closely to school matters, so that the child once within the four walls of the school-room finds no escape and sees no delightful, inti-

mate relation between the life in school and the varied life outside, with its games, its story-books, and its bright fancies. The other is the danger of paralyzing the young mind with an abstract subject far above its grasp. Doubtless we have all had our share of suffering of this sort. I well remember, at the age of eleven, sitting down with dismay in my heart to grapple with the mysterious and baffling subject of "Mutability."

In regard to the method of treatment, no greater mistake can be made than allowing the child to work by himself too early. If the first few compositions are made class exercises in which teacher and pupil take part,—the teacher guiding the thought, leading the pupils to see first the main divisions of the subject, then the subdivisions of these, building in until the pupils are so full of the matter that they must express themselves, then calling for full and free expression, throwing aside all ambiguous or inaccurate language, asking at times for a variety of statement for the same thought, choosing the most concise or the most vivid or the most graceful, arousing, in short, an enthusiastic desire for clear thought and appropriate expression—were this done, the brighter children would not suffer, the slower would gain steadily in power, and all would find pleasure in the work.

Little by little the pupils should be required to do more work by themselves. John is to write upon this division of the subject, quite by himself, and Charles is to try this topic, and Tom that, and thus together we are all to contribute toward the whole. And all the time the teacher speaks with enthusiasm and with happy anticipation of the coming day when each boy shall write by himself an entire composition. Nothing is truer than that children regard with enthusiasm a thing in which the teacher herself

seems full of enthusiastic interest. From the little child who longs to read the new word, because the teacher's eyes sparkle with pleasure when she looks at it, to the great overgrown boy who attacks the perplexing problem with patient energy, because the teacher's voice thrills with interest as she speaks of the difficulties to be overcome, enthusiasm is contagious.

How shall the normal school pupil be trained to teach her own pupils? Four ways are open to some normal students, three to others, two to all: First, observation of lessons given to primary and grammar pupils by experienced teachers; second, actual work with real children, subject to criticism; third, illustrative lessons given by the normal student to her own classmates; and finally, and the main part of the work must be done in this way, careful discussion of the subject in the classroom,—its scope, its value, the proper preparation for it, methods of conducting it, and the practical difficulties and the abuses which beset it.

Because the rightful claims of any subject are best appreciated when it is viewed in relation to other subjects, I should like in conclusion to draw attention to one thing which is always to be borne in mind in discussing the value of work of this kind. Composition is not the only, nor the most valuable, means of training the child in the use of his mother tongue. Before and above this must always come wide and intelligent reading. Throwing aside exceptional cases of diffidence or other personal peculiarity, the wide reader is the good speaker and writer. He has something to speak and write about, he has unconsciously added great store to his vocabulary in his varied reading, and has appropriate expression for his thought.

I have said that composition may be made a valuable aid in the training of the active form of the imagination,

but only, it seems to me, when reading has been allowed to do its work in training the passive imagination. Here we meet another abuse altogether too frequent in our schools in recent years. The young child is given a picture and is asked to write a story about it. Now in addition to the fact, already suggested, that in his spasmodic effort to invent a story, the child makes sad work with his written forms in which he has not yet had enough practice to render him trustworthy, he makes up his story by merely stringing together ideas which present themselves to his mind, as he looks at the picture, with very little if any logical sequence. Because now and then a child with inherent story-telling power does a good bit of work in this direction, because most of the children like it, and because it keeps them busy and produces a tangible result with very little work on the part of the teacher, this method of training the language power and the imagination has found great favor in our city schools of late years.

Let us see what the actual results of this training are. In addition to habits of careless writing, including spelling, with which legacy the child is passed on to the higher grade grammar teacher and not infrequently to the much-suffering high school teacher, he develops a reckless illogical method of tacking ideas together, and is permitted to dignify the performance with the name of *thought*. Could any training be more misleading?

That the story-telling power—than which there is no more delightful and attractive accomplishment—can be developed by patient, judicious training, in which the study of pictures plays a very small but not unimportant part, I have no doubt whatever. But one trouble has been that we have looked for harvests in seedtime.

As was suggested earlier in this

paper, composition work, properly conducted with older pupils, increases the appreciation of good literature. If the effort to think for himself and to express his own thought is supplemented by reading what other people have thought and said so much more clearly, more convincingly, and more gracefully than is possible for him, this very effort toward expression on his own part brings a keener realization of the merit of what he reads. I have sometimes thought that this is not merely the best, but perhaps the only, reason for allowing pupils to write verses. The effort to clothe thought in metrical language and the search for felicitous expression, awaken a keener delight in reading true poetry. The moment a boy or girl is allowed to feel any great degree of satisfaction in his or her own work,—whether prose or verse,—the moment that the time given to original production is allowed to outweigh the time devoted to the study of real literature, that moment finds the composition work an injury rather than a benefit.

In some schools the matter of composition is pressed too far, I think, and reading suffers in proportion. To use the ever serviceable simile, the teacher attempts to draw water from dry wells. Let reading and free discussion of what is read have their rightful place in the school course, and with less time than is now devoted to composition, better results may be obtained. A few words of no uncertain sound from John Morley's address to the students of the "London Society for the Extension of University Teaching" bear directly upon this subject. "I venture, with all respect to those who are teachers of literature," he says, "to doubt the excellence and utility of the practice of over much essay-writing and composition. I have very little faith in rules of style, though I have an unbounded faith in the virtue of cultivating direct



and precise expression, but you must carry on the operation inside the mind, and not merely by practising literary deportment on paper. It is not everybody who can command the rhythm of the greatest masters of human speech. But every one can make reasonably sure that he knows what he means, and whether he has found the right word. These are internal operations and are not forwarded by writing for writing's sake. I am strong for attention to expression, if that attention be exercised in the right way. It has been said a million times that the foundation of right expression in speech or writing is sincerity. It is as true now as it has ever been. Right expression is a part of character. As somebody has said, by learning to speak with precision, you learn to think with correctness; and firm and vigorous

speech lies through the cultivation of high and noble sentiments. I think, as far as my observation has gone, that men will do better for reaching precision by studying carefully and with an open mind and a vigilant eye the great models of writing, than by excessive practice of writing on their own account."

If this is true for adult students, those capable of pursuing university studies, can we say too emphatically that for our primary and grammar school pupils precision and power are not gained "by excessive practice of writing on their own account?"

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Strive manfully: habit is overcome by habit.—*Thomas a Kempis.*

Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.—*Goethe.*

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## THE FULLER STUDY OF GEOGRAPHY.

BY ARTHUR MONTEFIORE.

### PLACE-NAMES.

Ancient place-names may be regarded as philological fossils, for just as the geological fossil is mutely eloquent of the unwritten history of the earth, so the philological fossil reveals to us the unwritten and otherwise unknowable history of man and his habitations. The prudent teacher will therefore not fail to show how much there is in a name. He will gather from place-names, as he would read from monumental epitaphs, the character, the faith, the gradual progress of civilization, the habitations; nay, the very existence of ancient and occasionally extinct peoples. He will be able to compile with considerable accuracy their social and religious history, not,

be it noted, from deeds and charters, or chronicles and songs, but from a careful consideration of that simple thing—a name! And, moreover, by reading a name aright, he will discover those natural changes which have passed over the face of the locality, and which geologists and botanists might well have failed to perceive. The study of place-names, therefore, is of utility to both the historical and physical sides of geography, and it must be regarded as a potent factor in geographical education.

I will illustrate, for the benefit of the sceptical or inexperienced, what I mean by utilizing place-names. In describing a locality of England in Saxon times, it would be necessary to point out not only the headquarters

of earls and bishops—the centres of political power—but also the scattered centres of commerce, the market towns. This would be made easy in many instances merely by referring to the name: Thus, since in “cheap” and “chip” we find the root of the Saxon verb “to buy,” we at once suppose—and our supposition is supported by history—that towns which bear these prefixes were market towns or places of sale; *e.g.*, Cheapside, Chippenham, Chipping Norton, Chipping Sodbury, Chepstow. Occasionally, these have been translated centuries since; *e.g.*, Market Harborough, Market Weighton, Market Drayton, etc. Again, in dealing with the geographical history of the two important counties of Kent and Sussex—which were comparatively more important in days when they literally were the *high-roads* to the Continent—it might tip a shaft with an instructive point to show that the towns or villages with the affix “den” lay in the marches or borderland between these counties—*e.g.*, Tenterden, Castleden, Hazleden, Eversden. These matters are all the more important, as every child should be familiar with the geography and history of at least his own country.

#### NAMES AND MEN.

Again, what a vivid scene might be placed before the class of the piratical attacks and subsequent settlements of the Scandinavian Vik-ings, or port-peoples, upon our coast! How closely, by looking at the places-names, might their track be traced as they sailed up the narrow inlets or came to safe anchorage in an open bay, and finally built their rude homes on cliff and beach with the sea-gull and the marten. Suppose the teacher follows this word “vik”—meaning a port in this sense—a little further. He would show that these vik-ings, or port-peoples—for, as a rule, men have taken their names from places, and not *vice*

*versa*—were not the first to use the word. It is much older than this, for it is found in Greek as *oikos*, and Latin as *vicus*. The Greek sense was that of a “dwelling,” but the Latin *vicus* approached the Saxon sense in meaning a collection of houses along a road—*i.e.*, a hamlet or a straggling street. He would further point out that among these Saxons “wic” meant a village or settled home in the country; but that, to the Scandinavian pirate, a permanent corsair, “wic” or “vik” would mean a bay or cove where he could easily beach his ships and build a few huts as headquarters for his piratical and öl-drinking crew. Thus from their Scandinavian homes, from Vigten and Westervik, from Ulvik and Laurvig, he would trace their geographical distribution along the eastern coasts of England and Scotland, to the Shetlands and the Faroë Isles, to Iceland itself. The chief links in this chain would be Reykjavik, Lerwick, Berwick, Norwich (on the ancient estuary of the Yare), Ipswich and Sandwich. And further, in connection with this word “wic” or “vik,” he would limit the geographical distribution of the various races by the changes the word has undergone. Thus, in the north, where the Scandinavian element preponderated, it would remain harsh, while in the south the more melodious tongue of the comparatively suave Saxon would soften its form. So we still have in the north Lerwick, Berwick, Hawick, and Alnwick, while in the south Sandwich, Woolwich, Ipswich and Norwich long since assumed their present forms.

In tracing the geographical distribution of tribes through the names they have bequeathed to us, we find ample example in our own isles. If, for instance, the teacher were to follow up the difference between harsh and soft forms as demarcating the influence of Scandinavian and Saxon, how much he could reveal! Thus the northern

and eastern "burgh" becomes southern and western "borough" and "bury"; "caster," chester; "kirk," church; "birk," birch; "dale," dell; etc. In like manner we can follow the Norseman by his name for a cape or point; a "Naze" is found in England as well as Norway, and its exists in Dungeness, Sheerness, and Fifeness, as well as in the Norman's settlement in France, as Grisnez.

From the point of view which regards what I may call the geographical distribution of religion, there are a few instances worth quoting which will serve to show how they and simile can be utilized in the teaching of geography. Thus the names of places in Teuton England are in marked contrast to those in Keltic England. The Teutons in England, though devout and religious after their fashion, were no ancestor-worshippers and saint reverers like the Kelts, whose faith and philosophy was hero-worship. Therefore, in Eastern or Teutonic England towns named after "saints" are rare; in Western or Keltic England they are numerous. Moreover, the Teutons spoke of their great people with considerable familiarity, while the Kelts were, as a rule, studiously observant of the prefix "saint." Thus, in Teutonic England we find St. Felix of Burgundy, first bishop of East Anglia, commemorated in Felixstowe; St. Helen in Elstow; St. Peter in Peterborough; and St. Botulf in Boston (Botulf's town). In Keltic England, however, St. Austells, St. Erths, St. Germans and St. Mellions abound; and we also find these saints or local hermits commemorated in combination with natural features, as in Ottery St. Mary, Shillingford St. George, St. Lawrence Clist, St. George Clist, etc. Yet even in Keltic England we sometimes find the prefix "saint" dropped, as in Mary Tavy, Peter Tavy, Mary Church, Virginstowe, and Honey

Church. And as these are all very ancient places, it may be reasonably supposed that they are early translations of the Cornish (Welsh) Llanfair (St. Mary's Church), Llanbedr (St. Peter's Church), and so on.

#### NAMES AND SITES.

Before leaving this deeply instructive branch of geographical teaching I will point out how much life can be given to nomenclature by placing before the student a rough view of the various forms in which the same word appears in different languages and climes. Thus, to take the commonest word for a river—"avon." We find it in Welsh as "afon," in Gaelic as "Abhuinn"; in Austria it is "Inn" and "ab" (Danube); in Spain "ana" (Guidiana); in India "ab"—(Punjab: "penj," *πεντε* = five; "ab" = rivers. The country between any two rivers = Duab). Similarly, the Keltic "uisque," water, is found in numberless forms throughout Europe; es., ex, usk, ux, uqq, ax, iz, ox, ock, oke, ouse, use, esker, esky, oise, issy, ivar, and so on. In the same way the Keltic Pen or Ben, a hill, can be found in Pennine, Apennine, Grampian, Pennigant, in Pentra (Spain), and Pindus (Greece). Cases like these can be greatly multiplied, and there is hardly any limit, save that of his own knowledge, to the teacher who would place geographical names before the student in a systematic manner.

Many of the names which I have mentioned, and hundreds for which have no room here, are important for teaching purposes, as describing with considerable accuracy the geographical conditions of the locality they represent. They even furnish evidence of conditions which no longer exist; of ethnological facts of which we have no other record; of incidents and individuals to which they are the sole monuments. Thus the prefixes "Aber" and "Inver" clearly define

the position of a place to be at the mouth of an "ab" or "in," a river. Familiar examples are Aberdeen, Aberystwyth, Aberconway; Llanverness and Inverary. Again, Fifeness and Holderness are clearly situated at or near capes; Milford and Haverford (Norse, fiord), Oxford and Guildford (Saxon, ford), are situated on inlets and river-fords respectively. Fal-mouth, Weymouth, etc., need no explanation. Ey, ea, a, are all forms of a Norse word meaning island. Anglesea, Battersea, Thorney, Sheppey, Isla, Ailsa, etc. As bearing testimony to change of conditions, coed (Welsh), wold, wyld, weald, wald, hurst,holt—all meaning wood or forest—may readily be found in scores of places, cleared and inhabited centuries since. So with mere, moor, etc.

As evidence of ethnological change, it can be pointed out that the Keltic race can be traced all through Europe by the place-names they deposited *in transitu*, and the rule of the Moors in Spain left numerous names which exist to this day—*e.g.*, Guadalquivir—"Wadi-el-Kebir," the great river or valley. I have already adduced a number of instances where the existence of individuals has been preserved in English place-names; it will be sufficient to add Cherbourg, or "Cesar's burg," Edinburgh, or "Edwin's citedal," and Augsburg, that of Augustus. There are yet other place-names which preserve the accidental characteristics which may or may not have been lost, as Bath, Wells, Bex (*baix*), Baden; and the prefix "new" to many places now ancient, as Newgate, Newcastle, New Forest, New College, Neufchatel.

All that I have adduced is but a "drop in the bucket" of illustration with which an able teacher can illumine the subject of geography. With this subject there is the greatest freedom for the play of individual taste, and this is another point in its favour.

In teaching it, it is well to bear in mind how much better it is to *handle* the subject than merely to point at it. Let the teacher take hold of the law or fact he may be describing, let him set it up on end as it were, and turn it about from side to side, so that the pupils' thoughts may freely play about it, and their minds' eyes take it in from every point. Let him apply the test of practice to theory, and of proof to principle. Let him proceed, *gradually*, from the known to the unknown, from particulars to generals. Especially let him insist on the pupil working out his own ideas, clothing them in his own words, forming definitions for himself, and arriving at conclusions which his collection and subsequent arrangement of facts have rendered imminent, if not inevitable. Above all, let the teacher suppress himself sometimes—it is difficult—and give his pupil "his head." It may surprise him to find how much that pupil has learnt, and what feats he can perform in constructive geography.

Speaking recently at a meeting in Newcastle, Sir Robert Ball hinted at the approach of a time when posterity might have to construct machinery that would be worked with heat obtained by the direct action of the sun's rays. He showed on the screen a machine which, by means of a reflector, heated the water in a boiler large enough to generate the steam required to move a small printing press.—*London Inventions.*

UNDERGROUND LONDON is getting to be many stories deep. The new City and Waterloo underground electric railway, in traversing Queen Victoria Street, passes for a considerable distance directly underneath the low level sewer, which in its turn runs beneath the underground railroad. The electric road at this point is sixty-three feet below the surface.

## POPULAR EDUCATION.

THE common school brings boys and girls only a part of the way through a course of study. The vast majority drop out before they finish the common branches, and a comparatively small number enter the high school. The girls are in the majority in the high school graduating classes, while the boys are in the minority, and this disparity increases from year to year. Thus we are left to face the unwelcome fact that the greater part of the young people of this country are not receiving even a good common-school education. There is a great gulf fixed between the condition in which we find the masses of our common-school people when they quit school and the higher institutions of learning, which latter seem to exist for the purpose of educating men and women to the highest degree for the various vocations and professions in life. It is between the common school and the higher institutions of learning where popular education should come in and meet a real need in our civilization.

"Popular education" is a euphonious term, designed to describe a system of instruction which is adapted to people who are engaged in regular daily employment, and who left the common school in early life, but who have not had the privileges of education in a college or a university. The necessity was laid upon them to earn bread, the school with its books may have been distasteful to them, or parents may not have held them to their daily task in the school-room; whatever the cause that operated, they dropped out of school, engaged in business, joined in a marriage contract, or went in other ways, till it was too late to retrace their steps in an educational way. But now, in mature life, they have been touched

by business obligations, social demands, calls from a church or a political party, and when they undertake any of the duties to which they aspire they find themselves deficient in literary culture, and then sigh for the learning of books, for the inspiration of a teacher, or are goaded by a hunger for education.

This is the intellectual condition of a great mass of the American people. The picture is not overdrawn. It is common for educated men in their struggle to establish higher institutions of learning, to overestimate the culture of the masses. The former create an atmosphere about themselves which is fast becoming the aristocracy of education, and thus divorce themselves from the people. Therefore popular education is a great necessity in the United States; and we mean by popular education information on all lines of useful knowledge that the average American ought to possess to make him an intelligent business man, a knowing citizen, or a capable man of affairs. In a word, he should be the possessor of a variety of knowledge essential to the success of a man of common sense.

This education must be prepared in such form, in books and magazines, that the average man may comprehend it without the presence of a living teacher. Because the teacher cannot go with his book to the student, the author must prepare in popular language the text for the average man; technical terms must be eliminated, Latin and Greek, German and French and higher mathematics must be tabooed. We have reached a time when history may be written in a very plain vocabulary; this is true also of works on literature, science, art and religion, and it

should be done. Nothing in a book so dazes the average man as a pedantic statement in philosophy, couched in unknowable words, or, what is worse, in a dead language. Education, to be popular, must mean

science made as fascinating as fiction, history written like a romance, philosophy told as a tale, and religion explained in parables and symbols, such as the great Teacher himself used.—*The Chautauquan for November.*

## AMSTERDAM.

AMSTERDAM is reached easily in 12 hours from London. A train leaves London at 8:30 every evening for Harwich; there a steamer is taken, and the Hook of Holland reached by five next morning; a train starts off at once, passing through Delft and then Scheidam, more famous in America for its production of "Schnapps" than anything else; in the production of its "Hollands" and "Geneva," over 200 distilleries are employed; this latter liquid is so called because the *Jenever* berry (the Juniper) is used to flavor it. A steam tram runs to Rotterdam in a half hour. We make a short stop in Schardam, and then go on to the Hague, the residence of the government, having 150,000 people; and then through Leyden, then to Haarlem, where the railroad turns to the east, and Amsterdam, the capital of the Netherlands, is reached about 8:30 a.m.

The city has over 400,000 inhabitants, and is full of commercial activity. There are numerous hotels. I chose the Hotel Suisse; it is well conducted, and the rates are moderate, for lodging and breakfast \$1.00; for dinner, 60 cents. English is spoken. The Calverstraat, where the hotel is situated, is one of the important streets, and yet it is so narrow that no vehicles are allowed in it in the busy part of the day; then the street as well as the sidewalks are filled with people.

Amsterdam seems to form a sort of semicircle, a half wheel; the railroad

station is at the hub; streets radiate like spokes from this point; around this, too, canals curve in a semicircle, growing larger and larger. On the canals there is a busy life; boats come in from the country on canals laden with produce from farms, and enter these canals, and unload at the markets; few horses are seen. In making excursions I was able to realize that the entire country is below sea level. All along the Zuider Zee are earthworks (dykes) to keep the sea off the land. In some places, as near Helder where the north end of the land which forms Holland is much exposed to the sea, the dyke is a massive work; it is protected by stones that descend into the sea 200 feet. I have stood on the flat meadow on the landward side of the dyke, and have heard the angry tide pound on the other side, knowing the water was fully twelve feet higher there than in the quiet canal where I was. Vast meadows stretched westward, level as a floor; on these the black and white Holstein cattle were peacefully grazing; houses dotted the landscape; churches and schools sent up their spires; around the whole was a wall to keep out the hungry sea. No roads exist, except those on the dykes; none are needed, for the produce goes by boats; the railroads, too, are on the dykes. Having built the dykes to keep out the sea, windmills are used to pump out the water that falls in showers. In many cases there

were lakes of considerable size, these were pumped dry, and give rise to "polders," the old bottoms which prove very valuable for pastures.

One of the interesting places I have visited is Volendam, a little fishing village on the Zuider Zee about 15 miles from Amsterdam. It is built on both sides of the great dyke; on the land side are two or three or four rows of houses covered with red tiles; on the sea-side there is a single row; a break-water of stones a hundred feet beyond the dyke forms a harbor, in which over 300 stout Dutch sloops are housed in winter; now about 100 are lying there. The dress of the men is very peculiar; to a sleeved vest of red or purple cloth pantaloons are buttoned; enough cloth is gathered to a band to make five pairs; the legs, too, are of an immense size, so that they are swollen out at the hips in an extraordinary manner. The women wear a peculiar lace cap that flares out at the sides. All, even the three-year old girls and boys, wear wooden shoes. They are a very clean and industrious people; the women are at home scrubbing and scouring, or, walking up and down the dyke knitting or darning stockings. This is quite a resort for artists; only from them have some of the people heard of America. The Dutch are great lovers of home; they live here on a mere pittance and do not think of emigrating.

I wished these peaceful people were residents of Chicago in the place of the unruly set that has given that city such a terrible name. The news of the riots there caused much comment. It was remarked in English newspapers, "No wonder the scalawags of Europe are congregated there." A Swiss gentleman spoke of the sudden departure for America of one who had committed a crime and was sought for by the police. A traveler from Italy said in reply to his

inquiry, "What has become of the brigands?" They retorted, "Gone to America." All concurred in saying that the Americans were fools if they did not have an efficient and active police and shoot down rioters remorselessly. When one is pointed out here buildings that have stood for 1,000 years he sees there is a law-abiding spirit in this land that does not exist in the Western parts of America.

The kingdom of the Netherlands is composed of eleven states of which Holland is one, that is, Holland is not all of the Dutch country; it has about the population of the State of New York. Wilhelmina, now about 14 years old, will be queen, if she lives; her mother is regent. The town of Delft (referred to above) has a celebrity connected with the early history of the country; the *Prinsenhof* (prince's house), on a canal now used as a museum, was the scene of the murder of William Prince of Orange, on July 10, 1584, by Gerhard, who thus sought to get the price offered for his head. The spot is pointed out by an inscription; the marks of the bullet still remain. William the Silent was the founder of Dutch liberty; his son, Maurice, caused John of Barneveld, to be condemned to death in the 72d year of his age; the case has since been adjudicated in favor of Barneveld.

The country is full of interesting material for the tourist. The Dutch are the most industrious people in the world. They have dug canals and made farms out of swamps and lake bottoms, that other nations would have left untouched. In looking about one feels it is a pity these hard working people have not more room. If they had had a knowledge of the English language, and had given their young men and women a chance by emigration, the reaction on the parent country would have been favorable.

I mean that a country that would prosper must have for its motto, Interest in Humanity; these people have limited their interest too much to themselves; not selfishly, perhaps, but practically it has amounted to the same thing. If I were asked to suggest a way out for the Dutch, I would propose that all the children be set to learn the English language. I believe Germany would be far better off to-day if she used the English language. For, in the good time coming, all the

nations will use one language, and that cannot but be the English; it may be many centuries before this is accomplished, but it is one of the things that is sure to come to pass. Altruism is not only a duty, it is a means to a higher state of prosperity. The Dutch appear to possess too little interest in other nations. But they are kind, domestic, religious, industrious, persevering, and brave.—*A. M. K. in The N. Y. School Journal.*

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## PUBLIC OPINION.

MAN AND WOMAN.—When men and women come to saying ungracious things of one another in a kind of hostile rivalry, the situation is not pleasant and bodes no good to the coming generation. The evil may be a limited one, yet it is, as far as it exists, a real one, and is already embittering and unsettling a good many lives. Well would it be, therefore, if some one could come forward with an eirenicon that would still the unnatural jarring which is a decided feature of to-day's civilization. It is the women to-day who are in the main on the aggressive. In fiction and essay they are employing their new found intellectual powers in demonstrating how poor a creature is man. According to some, it would appear as if man had been the great imposture of the ages, and that a certain instinct of preservation had led him to deny culture to woman, lest he be found out, and the bubble of his reputation eternally collapse. One recent writer, who however, assumes a man's name, has it that if nature had not implanted a troublesome amount of affection in woman's composition, she could by her greater

force of will and character drive man into a corner of the universe, just as the inferior races of the past have been driven before the superior ones—only more so, the disparity being greater.

This is not wholesome. If men have abused their power in the past, it is only what holders of power, who were also fallible mortals, might have been expected to do; and if women were wise, the lesson they would learn, now that they are more and more being placed in the way of acquiring power themselves, would be, if possible, not to abuse it so much as men in their day have done. There is little to be gained by turning the shaft of feminine wit against men, nor will the feminine character be improved by much indulgence in the practice. Better far will be a serious effort to rise to the level of their new opportunities and responsibilities. A man may be a great scholar and a great fool, and so, we venture to say, may a woman. It is a much easier thing to stimulate the intellect than to strengthen and enrich the moral nature; and it does not follow that, because women now have access to



most colleges and universities, they are going at once to show a higher type of character. It is not impossible even that a reliance on those methods of culture which have been devised for men may tend to impair in a greater or less degree those finer intuitions which are claimed as the glory of the female sex, and in which we are quite prepared to declare our own firm belief. The intellectual differences between the sexes may be less than has hitherto been supposed; but there are differences nevertheless, and it is the manifest interest of the race that these should be developed and made prominent, rather than weakened and obscured. If the human race is to endure, and if civilization is to advance, the relations between the sexes must not permanently be relations of rivalry. Men and women were not made to struggle with one another for the advantages of life, but mutually to aid one another in reaping those advantages. That "sweet love" of which the poet speaks is given as the reward of right relations of man and woman; and, where other guidance is lacking, we may profitably ask whether any given line of conduct tends to the gaining or the sacrificing of that reward. If to the former, then it may safely be said to be right conduct; if to the latter, wrong. What it is clear that man has to do in these later days is to frame to himself a higher and completer ideal of manhood than he has hitherto on the whole, entertained, and try to live up to it. The awakened womanhood of the age—when allowance has been made for all that is hysterical and morbid and heartless in contemporary feminine utterances—summons him most clearly and distinctly to walk henceforth on higher levels in the strength of a nobler self-control. Then he has to recognise in the fullest sense, without a particle of reservation, that he has in woman not

a weaker shadow of himself, not a reflection of his glory nor a minister to his pleasures, but a divinely bestowed helpmeet, to whom special powers and faculties have been imparted for the interpretation of truth and the beautifying of life.—*Popular Science Monthly for August.*

IT NEEDS REMINDING.—It has been said that "the world doesn't need instructing, so much as it needs reminding." Novelty is commonly less important than re-emphasis. If we were only alive to the importance of the duties which we already know as duties, our lives would be better and nobler and more potent for good. But our sense of those duties numbs in disuse, and most of the time we are hardly conscious of much of the knowledge that has been in our minds from our earlier years. Then it is that we are benefited by having called to our attention and interest an old truth that is more important to us, and to those about us, than any new truth could be. A correspondent in Canada, writing in grateful acknowledgement of help in daily living furnished by *The Sunday School Times*, says, in enforcement of this truth: "Allow me to record my debt to you for an editorial, which appeared some time ago, on 'More Ambitious to Excel than to Shine.' I don't think you touched a *new* cord in my mental instrument, but rather that you put the screws on a string or two that were in a dangerously loose condition." It were better to prompt a pupil, or a friend, to the performance of one neglected known duty, than to inform him of ten new duties of which he had never known before.—*The Sunday School Times.*

Thou must learn to bridle and break thy will in many things, if thou wilt live a quiet life.—*Thomas a Kempis.*

## NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

ADVANCE.—It is said of the teacher's profession that it is too often used merely as a stepping-stone to a more lucrative post. The day surely is not distant when this need no longer be. The tax-paying parent perceives more and more clearly the real nature of the teacher's work, and the vital necessity of the school process being directed by real teachers.

It is inspiring, indeed, to read of great teachers in the past who so loved their life-task that the question of remuneration hardly rose above the horizon of their thought. These men were martyrs. The conditions under which they labored demanded the unselfish service which they gave. The times were poor. The higher functions of the child-school were unheard of, except as whispered prophecies in the hearts of a few. The teacher's post in those days was often reserved for unfortunates who were incapacitated by age or infirmity for pursuits considered to require an ordinary degree of ability. An instance is recorded, in the quaint poetry of village lore, where an aged dame, so

loaded with her years that she proved no longer competent at tending the village geese, was, as a final measure of economy, given charge of the village school.

Perhaps wrapped up in the simple chronicle there was a poem, indeed. It may be that in this crooning, white-haired soul, a troop of trusting babies found an open gate to the simple ways of God. But we judge the *kirchenrath* of the village regarded the matter from another standpoint.

Those old days are gone by. The world grown rich and practical in all things, is slowly coming to a recognition of the teacher. It comes faster as the teacher asserts herself, her needs, and her rights. It were imbecile to become martyr for the enjoyment of martyrdom. The great Pestalozzi went hungry along with his young charges; the world was poor. To-day the children don't so often go hungry—physically; the world is rich. It is for teachers to put forth their claims and those of the children. Advance the salary line!—*Interstate School Review*.

## GEOGRAPHY.

THE CULMINATING POINT OF THE NORTH AMERICAN CONTINENT.—The question as to which of the American mountain summits wears the crown of highest position on the North American Continent, again assumes an interesting phase through the reported discovery of a mountain group in Alaska, in the region of Mount St. Elias, whose altitudinal determination would seem to depose both the Peak of Orizaba (Citlal-

tepetl) in Mexico and Mount St. Elias—the two peaks which have for some time held the position of honor, and which are so nearly of one height (eighteen thousand three hundred and eighteen thousand two hundred feet), that one might justly hesitate before finally awarding the palm for supremacy. The new mountains, possibly representing merely separated summits of a single mountain, upon which Mr. Israel Russell has bestowed the

name of Mount Logan, are reputed to be nineteen thousand five hundred feet in height, or fully equal to what was for many years assumed to be the true height of St. Elias. The small angle of measurement, through which the height of this mountain was computed, does not permit us fully to accept the determination, and it is by no means unlikely that Mount Logan will, on closer scrutiny, share the fate which has befallen so many of the North American mountains, such as St. Elias, Mount Wrangell, Mount Hood, etc.—decapitation. The niceties of absolute measurement in the case of a high mountain are such that only upon a most careful and repeated use of instruments can any dependence be placed, and this applies equally to determinations that are made by the angle and the barometric methods. At the present moment, the height of what has been assumed to be one of the most accurately determined summits of the Karakoram range of India—Mount Godwin Austen, or K<sub>2</sub>—has been brought into question, and only recently a resurvey of the Australian Alps has restored Mount Kosciusko, with a height of seven thousand three hundred and thirty-six feet, to the first position among the Australian mountains; its rival, Mueller's Peak, whose crown has received a special accumulation of visiting-cards, scraps of paper, addressed envelopes, etc., in recognition of its claims to superiority, falls short by sixty-eight feet.

The discrepancies in the results of mountain measurements are such that one is tempted to ask: Are the results obtained by a single investigator worthy of full confidence? The personal element—by which we mean not only the desires and non-desires in a determination, but the method of handling the instruments, the kind of allowances that are made for instrumental and ocular aberrations, and

the uniformity and similarity of the checks that are used to counteract these aberrations—enters so largely, and seemingly so constantly, into any calculation, as to make this almost individual or approximative, rather than positive. Otherwise, indeed, it becomes difficult to explain the differences of results that are obtained by equally competent observers—differences that are in many cases far too great to be explained away on the assumption of special difficulties of measurement. To mention only a few of the higher American summits, toward the measurements of which no special difficulty ought to have been encountered: Aconcagua has been oscillating between twenty-two thousand four hundred and twenty-three thousand nine hundred feet: Chimborazo between twenty thousand and twenty-one thousand four hundred feet; the Illampu between twenty-one and twenty-five thousand feet; Orizaba between seventeen thousand four hundred and eighteen thousand three hundred feet; St. Elias between fourteen thousand and nineteen thousand five hundred feet; Ixtaccihuatl between fifteen thousand seven hundred and sixteen thousand nine hundred and sixty feet. It would almost seem as if there were certain factors involved in mountain measurement which have not yet been fully taken account of, for it is difficult to explain such broad differences on the theory of individual methods alone.

It has become customary, in scientific circles, to disparage the use of the barometer as an instrument of precision in the determination of heights; and it is unquestionably true that the most refined measurements have been made by angle instruments. But, on the other hand, it is equally true that many of the most divergent results have been obtained through just such angle measurements, in which, especially in the case of lofty

snow-capped mountains, a critical method and nicety of instrumental manipulation are required which comparatively few travelers possess. Probably, the average barometric measurement compares favorably with the trigonometric, even if it cannot produce, as an expression of the best, an equal nicety of result.—*The New Science Review*.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON.—At last an inscription has been placed over the grave of Ralph Waldo Emerson. Hitherto there has rested in Sleepy Hollow a huge boulder, brought from the open field and standing in a rugged simplicity, as a fitting memorial of the dead philosopher. So many people came to visit the grave, that it became necessary for the family to place a net-work of wire as a fence around the lot, and to close the passageway

with a locked gate. But these visitors found no inscription to satisfy their interest. This week, however, a bronze plate has been set in the stone, with the following words upon it:—

RALPH WALDO EMERSON

Born in Boston, May 3, 1803,  
Died in Concord, April 27, 1881.

“The passive master that lent his hand  
To the vast soul that o’er him planned.”

It is said that when the stone was chipped away to make room for this plate, every precaution was taken to avoid the carrying away of fragments that would serve simply to gratify curiosity. But a number of the chips were saved, and will be disposed of as souvenirs.—*The Critic*.

### THE SOVEREIGN POET.

He sits above the clang and dust of time,  
With the world’s secret trembling on his lip.  
He asks not converse nor companionship  
In the cold starlight where thou canst not climb.  
The undelivered tidings in his breast  
Suffer him not to rest.  
He sees afar the immemorable throng,  
And binds the scattered ages with a song.

The glorious riddle of his rhythmic breath,  
His might, his spell, we know not what they be;  
We only feel, whate’er he uttereth,  
This savors not of death,  
This hath a relish of eternity.

WILLIAM WATSON.

*Spectator*.

## DISCUSSION.

DURAL, N. S. WALES,

March 16th, 1894.

DEAR MR. MACMURCHY,—Your note was duly received a few days ago, and on the eve of the Canadian mail going I write these lines about our colony and the times, as you requested.

The colony is the oldest in the group, and was discovered by Captain Cook in the year 1770; the first colony (New South Wales) being proclaimed in February 1778; but more about the colony in my next.

As some one says, *the times are out of joint*, and some of the teaching profession are greatly concerned; my own opinion after twenty years' teaching under the department is, that the New South Wales teacher is better off—on the whole—than similar officials in any other Australian colony, or even teachers in England, Canada, or United States. 'Tis true, we have some curtailment of liberty in certain matters; but we have security of tenure, a fixed salary, residence provided for teachers in charge (head teachers or principals—if the grander term is better liked), or some equivalent allowance. We are under the direct control of the Chief Inspector's Department, and we have no School Boards to make our lives a burden—in the British and American sense; of necessity we have our roses and thorns.

Political matters are in a state of transition, and until the next general election under the new law is over, I do not think any one can forecast events.

The Wesleyan Conference has been sitting and excluded one of their ministers of sound doctrine and good morals, because he refused to take a certain appointment, and

desired to run for Parliament, preach single tax and preach the gospel. Teachers have sometimes to administer very sharp discipline to a good worthy pupil, when he refuses to obey and asserts private rights in opposition to general discipline. But the Wesleyan Conference, as Spurgeon would say, "is orthodox."

The Moderator of the Presbyterian General Assembly has made a terrible attack on verbal inspiration—takes the extreme view and has just stirred up things. Rev. Dr. Clifford, of London, is orthodox, but not the Moderator. More in my next.

Yours truly,

HENRY E. PAGE.

## THE PARSING OF LIKE.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

SIR,—I have read "Learner's" letter in your last issue, but his reasoning has failed to convince me that it is either necessary or proper to parse "like" as a preposition.

He thinks that I have unwittingly assigned to the word "like" the value of the phrase which it introduces. Now I am quite prepared to admit that the phrase 'like a fool' is adverbial, just as I should admit that the phrases, "agreeably to our instructions," "similarly to the rest," if put in its place, would be adverbial; but just as I should parse 'agreeably' and 'similarly' as adverbs, and not think it necessary to take 'agreeably to' and 'similarly to' as prepositions, so I parse 'like' as an adverb, and not as a preposition. The only difference is that the preposition 'to' is expressed after 'agreeably' and 'similarly',

while with 'like' the 'to' may be considered, if necessary, as understood. I say *if necessary*, because I am not familiar enough with the early forms of the language to know whether "like" originally had the power of taking a dative after it. It is certain (see "Kellner's Historical outlines of English Syntax," p. 121,) that the dative case was used after many adjectives, and if after adjectives why not after the corresponding adverbs, as is very often the case in Latin, e.g. 'conveniens' and 'conveniente.'

To me it seems better in all such cases as, He acted *like* a fool, He looks *like* a fool, He is very *like* his mother, She dresses very *like* a man, Boys *like* him ought to know better, She sings *like* a nightingale, to parse

"like" as an adverb or an adjective, according as the resemblance is in the action, or in the person (or thing) a good test is to see whether 'similarly to' or 'similar to' makes the proper substitute.

Again, I suppose it would be good enough (even if not very common) English to say, 'He acted *like* a fool than I did,' He acted *likest* a fool of all the boys. If so, and if *like* is a preposition, what are *liker* and *likest*? are they also prepositions? If so, we have the anomaly of a preposition that can be compared.

I may add that the same reasoning seems to apply to *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*, and hence I have always hesitated to parse *near* as a preposition.

Yours, INQUIRER.

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## EDITORIAL NOTES.

### LIGHT AND LEADING

The word is ever, "That they go forward." The energy of heart and of mind of both follower and leader which had been set free for a short spell in the pleasant and joyous months of summer to rest and to recover its normal activity is again throughout all Canada, in harness, shall we say? This incessant movement is marvellous. Spend and collect again. Ever build the eternal in man. The parents first in order of time and importance, ministers and teachers second and equal. The greatness of a country depends upon these. These are the conservators and the distributors of the vital forces which make Society blessed, or a sink of corruption.

In this work, easily the first of all works, the teachers, often known as the "Army of Light," have a most

influential part. May theirs be the happy experience of the consciousness of affording light and leading in the schools and in the various communities in which they may be placed throughout our country.

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In the month of August of this present year, the Canadian Medical Association met in St. John, N. B. We had not the pleasure, though in the province of New Brunswick at the time, of being with our friends at their meeting in the active and prosperous city on the far-famed Bay of Fundy. We are pleased that the doctors gave some of their valuable time to discussing the effect which our educational system has on the boys and girls attending our schools. One member of the Association, Dr. Bayard, of St. John, took the ground that the present

school system put too many studies on young children, and as a result overstrained the nervous system and caused great injury, from which they never recovered. The effect of this cramming was particularly injurious to girls. We are told, that in the discussion which followed, nearly all the speakers agreed that the effect of our present school work or system is injurious, as above stated. The following resolution was adopted:—The system of education in force in the Dominion draws too largely upon the brain tissue of children and materially injures their mental and bodily health. There does not ap-

pear to have been one dissentient to the above resolution. So spake last August the profession whose special function it is to look after the health, mental and bodily, of the people of Canada.

Medical practitioners have expressed the same opinion again and again. Now medical men do not express themselves thus for the sake, simply, of doing so. We believe we are safe in saying that there is truth in their resolution, and that every teacher of experience will corroborate their statement and ours.

We shall return to this subject again.

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## SCHOOL WORK.

### ENGLISH DEPARTMENT.

Readers of the MONTHLY are cordially invited to contribute to this department: Examination papers, notes, discussions, and queries bearing on the teaching of English in our schools.

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### EXERCISES IN ENGLISH.

BY H. I. STRANG, B.A.

(a) "Oh mother, who wast long  
before our day,  
And after us full many an age  
shalt be,  
Careworn and blind, we wander  
from thy way :  
Born of thy strength, yet weak  
and halt are we ;  
Grant us, oh mother, there-  
fore, us who pray,  
Some little of thy light and  
majesty."

—Lampman, "A Prayer to Earth."

(b) Oh for a life of leisure and  
broad hours,  
To think and dream, to put  
away small things,  
This world's perpetual leaguer  
of dull naughts ;  
To wander like the bee among  
the flowers .  
Till old age find us weary, feet  
and wings  
Grown heavy with the gold of  
many thoughts.  
—Lampman, "Knowledge."

1. Is *oh* correctly used in these extracts? Distinguish clearly with examples between *oh* and *O*.

2. Justify the forms *wast* and *find*.

3. Parse *long, full, born, little, leaguer, like, bee, feet, grown*.

4. Analyze fully the 2nd line of (a) and the 1st of (b).

5. Classify the infinitive phrases in (b) and give their relation.

6. Explain the meaning of the 3rd line of (b).

7. Point out and explain any figures of speech.

8. Distinguish inflection, derivation and composition, and select an example of each from (a)

9. Is *wast* in line 1 of (a) notional or relational? Why?

10. Account for *shalt* rather than *wilt* in l. 2 (a).

11. Expand, "Born of thy strength" into a clause.

12. Point out an example each of "Adverbial objective," "indirect object," "an adjective used predicatively."

13. Write sentences using *think* and *dream* as transitive verbs.

14. Write sentences using *before* as a conjunction, *day* as an adjective, *blind* as a verb, *halt* as a noun, *little* as an adverb.

15. Form adjectives from *mother*, *majesty*, *flower*, *age*, *gold*, *thought*.

16. Form nouns from *long*, *wander*, *broad*, *dull*, *wearry*, *grow*.

FOR ENTRANCE AND JUNIOR CLASSES.

1. Analyze the following simple sentences :

(a) All *day* the dreamy sunshine steeps

In gold the *yellowing* beeches.

(b) Its blood-red wine the sumach spills,

Deep *hues* of carmine *showing*.

(c) The birch stands *like a Dryad* fair

Beneath her golden tresses.

(b) Now *by* great marshes *wrapt* in mist,

Or *past* some river's mouth, Throughout the long still

autumn day

Wild birds are flying *south*.

2. Parse the italicized words in (a), (b), (c) and (d).

3. Divide the following passages

into clauses, write out each in full separately and tell its kind and where necessary its relation.

(a) And the otter-trappers found me,

Before the break of day,  
With my dark hair blanched  
and whitened

As the snow in which I lay.  
But they spoke not as they  
raised me ;

For they knew that in the night  
I had seen the shadow-hunter  
And had withered in his blight.

(b) The heart that watched through those drear autumn nights,

The wide, dark sea, and man's  
new empire sought,  
Alone, uncheered, hath wrought  
a deed sublime,

Which, like a star behind the  
polar lights,  
Will shine through splendors of  
man's utmost thought

Down golden eras to the end  
of time.

The following attempt to classify and illustrate the chief uses of the subjunctive mood is submitted in the hope that it may prove of some service to students and young teachers. No claim of originality is made for it, and discussion and criticism are freely invited :

I.—The subjunctive present may be used to express :

(1) A wish, prayer or imprecation, as :

Long *may* it wave ! Happy *be* thy dream ! God *bless* you ! *Perish* the thought ! Cursed *be* Canaan ! Woe *be* to the man ! Ill *betide* the fatal year.

(2) A direction, caution or resolution, as :

See that an opportunity *be* given to each one. Beware lest it *be* too late. Take care that he *do* not see



you. Resolved that an entrance fee of fifty cents *be* charged.

(3) A contingent future, as :

I will do so if it *be* possible. If time *permit* I shall work a few examples. Don't use it unless it *seem* absolutely necessary. Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust him.

NOTE.—Very commonly in older writers, and not infrequently yet in some good writers, the subjunctive present is used to express a present contingency, as: If that *be* so we need not wait for him.

(4) A concession, as :

Give something, *be* it ever so little.

There is no place like home, *be* it ever so humble.

II.—The subjunctive past may be used to express :

(1) A wish, as :

Would that I *were* in your place !

O that he *were* here to see it !

I wish it *were* not so far to the office.

(2) A supposition of what is not the case, as :

If I *were* in his place I *would* do so.

*Were* it not for that he *would* come with us.

*Had* I the money you *should* be paid at once.

(3) A supposition of what might happen, as :

If I *were* to offer you one, *would* you take it ?

*Should* it happen again let me know at once.

He *could* do it if he *would* only try.

If he *did* that he *would* be punished.

III.—The subjunctive pluperfect is used in supposition of what might have happened, as :

*Had* we *known* that, the accident *might* have been avoided.

Hadst thou but lived—thy thrilling trump had roused the land.

NOTE.—From present tendencies it seems probable that in time the distinctive forms of the subjunctive will drop out of use, except in the case of I. (1), the last part of (2) and (4), when the fact that the use of the indicative forms would change the meaning, will cause the subjunctive forms to be retained.

## QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR.

### BOOK V. CHAPTERS 1-3.

BY H. I. STRANG, B.A.

I.—Translate into good idiomatic English, chapter 2. *His confectis—possint.*

1. Parse *peractis, studio, multum.*
2. *Revertitur.* What peculiarity in regard to this verb ?
3. *Cujus.* In what different ways may the case be accounted for ?
4. *Circuitis.* What other compounds of *eo* may have a passive ?
5. *Supra.* Why this word rather than *antea* ?

II.—Translate chapter 3. *Veritus ne—permissurum.*

1. Parse *veritus, facilius, discessu*
2. *Quo contineret.* Why *quo* rather than *ut* ?
2. Put the message in *oratio recta.* *Veritus.* Tell in your own words what caused this fear.

III.—Translate idiomatically.

1. *Huic rei quod satis esse visum est militum reliquit.*
2. *Haec civitas longe plurimum totius Galliae equitatu valet.*
3. Give the construction of *rei, militum, Galliae, equitatu.*

IV.—1. Give the nom. gen. and gender of *litem, hibernis, maribus, hieme, onera, injuriis.*

2. Compare *longe citiorem, facilius, magis, humiliores, veteres.*

3. Conjugate the compounds of *ab* and *do*, *cum* and *ago*, *ædes* and *facio*.

4. Give the corresponding number-forms of *ejus generis*, *huic rei conventibus peractes*, *quo portu*, *has naves*, *id flumen*.

5. Find examples of three different constructions following *impero* and state which is the usual one.

6. Show how the following words have been formed from simpler ones : *fluctus*, *jumentum*, *onero*, *civitas*, *imprudencia*, *princeps*

7. What construction follows *utor*, *præficio*, *per*, *pareo*, *jubes*, *propter* ?

8. *Ostendit quid fieri velit*. Account for the mood of *velit*.

9. Give 3rd sing. fut. ind. of *fieri*, *doceant*, *possint*, *visum est*, *fecerint*, *dat*.

10. Give all the active forms of *proficiascor*.

V.—Render into idiomatic Latin :

1. We have entrusted our fortune and that of these states to your army.

2. These vessels are larger than the ones that the Germans use.

3. Having learned these facts, we set out for the camp the same night with the forces which we had collected.

4. Fearing there might not be sufficient ships to transport all the troops, he ordered more to be brought from the neighboring ports.

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### EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON SHAKESPEARE'S "JULIUS CÆSAR."

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BY WILLIAM HOUSTON, M.A., IN-  
SPECTOR OF TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

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1. Account for the fact that this play is named after a character whose death occurs during the earlier portion of it. Is the title justifiable ?

2. Compare minutely the characters of "Julius Cæsar" and "Marcus Brutus," as presented by Shakespeare in this play, referring to episodes or incidents in support of the conclusions you reach.

3. Give a full account of the part superstition is made to play in influencing the action of the leading persons in the drama, with citations or references to justify your position.

4. State definitely the extent to which Shakespeare introduces the "supernatural," and show whether, in your opinion, his use of it in this and other plays, such as "Hamlet" and "Macbeth," is warrant for supposing that Shakespeare believed in the possibility of such apparitions. If he did not believe in it, then how can his introduction of "ghosts" be defended on dramatic grounds ?

5. On several critical occasions the advice given by Cassius is rejected through the influence of Brutus. Specify accurately all these occasions and set forth some dramatic theory, with citations and references, to account for Shakespeare's setting these two persons off against each other in this respect.

6. Compare and contrast minutely the characters of "Brutus" and "Antony," as presented throughout the play.

7. How far, in your opinion, was Antony actuated by ambition, and how far by genuine regard for Cæsar, in encountering danger in order to avenge his death, when to all appearance he might have avoided danger by adopting some other course ? Give reasons drawn from the play to justify your answer.

8. Give a careful analytical comparison of the speeches of Brutus and Antony in the Forum after Cæsar's death, from both a dramatic and an oratorical point of view.

9. Shakespeare appears to have intended that the turning point of the action of each of his tragedies should occur about the middle of the play. If such a climax of action is discernible in "Julius Cæsar" specify the precise point at which, in your opinion, it occurs, and give reasons for your view. The following points are suggested, but any other that appears more probable may be chosen: (a) The death of Cæsar; (b) the entrance of Antony among the conspirators shortly afterward; (c) the interval between the speech of Brutus and that of Antony in the Forum.

10. Give an accurate account of the part played by "Casca," and of the personal qualities which fitted him to play it. Compare him with "Cassius" as a conspirator.

11. Give some artistic reason for the occurrence of prose in the few passages where it does occur in the play. The special instances of "Brutus" and "Casca," each of whom speaks at times in prose and at times in verse, should be included in the explanation.

12. How does Shakespeare deal with lapse of time during the action of the play? Compare, if you can, his method of treatment with the method of the classic tragedians. State the advantages and disadvantages of each method.

13. Show accurately to what extent Shakespeare has introduced comedy into this tragedy. Compare this mixture of "tones" with the theory and practice of the classic drama. What, in your opinion, was Shakespeare's purpose, and how far has he succeeded in effecting it by this artistic device?

14. Trace the various objective devices and influences by which Brutus is drawn into the conspiracy to murder Cæsar, and the various subjective stages through which he passes before he finally decides to join it. How

far is his pliability compatible (a) with Shakespeare's general conception of Brutus, and (b) with Antony's, "This was the noblest Roman of them all."

15. Cite the evidence for and against attributing to Brutus each of the following characteristics: "gentleness," "patriotism," "fortitude," "consistency," "rectitude," "ambition," "selfishness," "generosity," "heartlessness," "cowardice," "courage."

16. Account, as a matter of dramatic art, for the first scene of the first act of the play.

17. It is generally admitted that the "Julius Cæsar" of the play is greatly inferior to the "Julius Cæsar" of history. Account for this lessening of his real pre-eminence either (a) by showing that Shakespeare was actually in error owing to defective information, or (b) that he had some dramatic purpose in view in minimizing it, and what that purpose was.

18. "Unity of action" seems to require that a play entitled "Julius Cæsar" should end with the death of Cæsar. Compare with such a theory of dramatic treatment of a theme, the actual treatment of his theme by Shakespeare. Give instances from other plays of his disregard for this particular "unity."

19. Compare or contrast "Portia" and "Calphurnia" as women and as wives. Make the comparison or contrast as detailed as you can in dealing with the conduct of each in trying to protect her husband from a danger which she knew or believed to be impending over him.

20. Explain Shakespeare's dramatic purpose in introducing the following passages:—

(a) The description by Cassius of Cæsar's weakness (Act 1, Scene 2, ll. 90-131).

(b) Casca's description of the offer and refusal of the crown, (I., 2, 232-292).

(c) The tempest and apparitions (I., 3, 135).

(d) The various appearances of the "Soothsayer" on the scene.

(e) Antony's going to the conspirators instead of negotiating with them at a distance.

(f) The murder of Cinna by the mob (III., 3).

(g) The quarrel between Brutus and Cassius.

(h) The incident of the sleeping boy. (IV., 3, 230-305).

21. Brutus (V., 1, 100-108) denounces suicide as "cowardly and vile." Lucilius (V., 3, 21-25) assures Antony that Brutus will never be taken alive. Brutus shortly after commits suicide. Knowing that he had done so, Antony and Octavius eulogize him and provide for him an honorable burial. Comment on this series of incidents (a) as they affect the reputation of Brutus among his own countrymen; (b) as they affect our estimate of him; (c) as they affect our estimate of Shakespeare's dramatic art.

22. Brutus, though conspiring to murder Cæsar, objects to murdering Antony, and objects to requiring an oath of the conspirators. What views of the character of Brutus does Shakespeare intend to impress on us by these two incidents, and what other dramatic purpose do they serve?

23. Compare or contrast Brutus and Cassius as patriots, specifying the other motives that Shakespeare mingles with patriotism in each case.

24. In what estimation, according to this play, was Cicero held by the various sections of the Roman community whose opinions are given to us?

25. Defend or assail each of the following theories of the drama of "Julius Cæsar," basing your arguments entirely on the play and citing or referring to the passages on which you depend:—

(a) That it was written to teach some political doctrine.

(b) That it was written to teach some ethical truth.

(c) That it was written because the subject seemed to Shakespeare to afford great dramatic possibilities.

## EAST VICTORIA PROMOTION EXAMINATIONS.

### THIRD TO FOURTH BOOK.

#### ARITHMETIC.

1. Find the cost of 720 boards each 14 ft long, 8 inches wide, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches thick, at \$12 per M. (10)

2. Find total cost of the following:—

26 yds. silk at \$1.45; 4 yds. linen at 15 cts.;  $2\frac{1}{2}$  yds. lining at 20 cts.; 4 yds. muslin at 11 cts.; 2 doz. buttons at 25 cts.; 12 yds. flannel at 38 cts.; 5 yds. cotton at 14 cts.; 2 pr. gloves at \$1 25;  $3\frac{1}{2}$  yds. ribbon at 42 cts.; 1 silk handkerchief at \$1.45. (20)

3. A grocer mixes 15 lbs. of coffee at 27 cts., 3 lbs. at 35 cts., and 3 lbs. at 40 cts. What is a lb. of the mixture worth? (5)

4. What will it cost to plaster a room 32 ft. long, 18 ft. wide, and 13 ft. high, at 12 cts. sq. yd., allowing 200 sq. ft. for doors and windows? (10)

5. Add nine millions and six; eight hundred and four thousand and ninety; eighty thousand eight hundred; one hundred and one thousand one hundred and ten; one million twenty thousand five hundred and ninety. (10)

Give answer (a) in figures, (b) in words.

6. From April 8th at 9 a.m. to November 18th at 5 p.m. (a) How many hours? (b) How many minutes? (c) How many seconds? (10)

7. The road from Bobcaygeon to Kinmount is 18 miles long and 66 ft.

wide. How many acres of land does it contain? (5)

8. Find the cost of 4414 lbs. of hay at \$8.50 a ton. (5)

9. How many cubic inches in a block of stone two feet six inches long, two feet three inches wide, and five feet four inches high? (5)

### COMPOSITION.

1. Combine the following into sentences and divide the sentences into paragraphs:

There were three butterflies once. One was white. One was red. One was yellow. They were playing in the sunshine. The rain soon fell. The rain made them wet. They hastened to fly home. The house door was shut. The key was nowhere to be found. They went to the Tulip. It was all gaily striped. It was striped in red and yellow. They said to the Tulip, "Tulip, open your flowers a little. Will you kindly? That we may slip in out of the rain." The Tulip said, "I will open to the red butterfly. I will open to the yellow butterfly. I will not open to the white butterfly. They may come in. It may not come in." Then the red and yellow butterflies said, "You will not let in our white brother. We will not come in either. Thank you." Now it rained. It rained harder and harder. They flew away. They flew to the Lily. They said, "Good Lily, will you kindly open your flower a little." They said, "Will you let us step in out of the rain?" The Lily then said, "I shall be glad to let in the white one. He looks like myself. I will not let in the other two." The white butterfly said, "If my two brothers cannot come in, I will not come in; thank you." They all flew away. They flew together. The sun had heard how the butterflies were true to one another. He was behind the cloud. He shone out again. He shone

bright. He shone clear. He dried the wings of the three butterflies. They danced once more. They danced over the flowers. They played until it was night. They went home. The door was wide open. The last sunbeam had opened it. He had done it for them. They flew in. They went to bed. (25)

2. Write about 20 lines on any one of the following stories you have read:—

- (a) Robinson Crusoe.
- (b) Uncle Tom's Cabin, or
- (c) Any other book you have read.

(25)

3. Write a letter to an imaginary friend in Florida giving an account of our Canadian Winter Sports. (25)

4. Imagine yourself one of the desks in your school. Tell the story of your life up to the present time. (25)

### LITERATURE.

Readers not to be used.

#### I. THE FARMER AND THE FOX.

(a) What is meant by the "poultry-yard suffering?" (3)

(b) Why did the farmer say he would "teach the fox to steal his geese?" Did not the fox know how already? (3)

(c) Explain how the fox's tongue had helped him in hard pinches. What did he mean by *hard pinches*? (3)

(d) "One more good turn." What good turn did he want done now? (3)

(e) "They won't care a rabbit skin." Explain this. (3)

(f) "They will dine at your expense." What did the fox mean by that? (3)

(g) What did he mean by the farmer's head being too thick, and how did he compare his own cleverness with that of the farmer? (3)

(h) What did the farmer mean by *logic*? (3)

(i) By what other name is the fox known? (3)

(j) Distinguish between *vengeance* and *revenge*. (3)

(k) What name is given to a story of this kind? (3)

(l) What useful lesson may we learn from this story? (3)

2. THE BEAVER.

(a) Mention several useful lessons we may learn from the beaver. (4)

(b) What name is given to a foot like that of the beaver? Name other animals of the same kind in this respect. (4)

(c) What is meant by beavers being very social animals? (4)

(d) Explain why the beavers are safer in the water than on land. (4)

(e) What other animal builds a house somewhat like the beaver? (4)

3. ZLOBAINÉ.

(a) Why had the husband "twice need of life?" (3)

(b) "Unrecking harm." Explain. (3)

(c) What part of an army is the flank? (3)

(d) "The live black crescent crept." Explain this. What is a crescent? (3)

(e) "But one was there whose heart was torn." Who was this? What is meant by the heart being torn? Why was it torn? (3)

(f) "Knee smiting against knee." Does this show that he was a coward? Give a reason for your answer. (3)

(g) Why did the father feel joy at the boy's act? (3)

(h) Give the names of the man and the boy. (3)

(i) Write what you think of such boys as the one described here. (3)

4. Write the name of the other of each of the following, and state to what country he belonged:—

(a) Zlobaine.

(b) A Canadian Boat Song.

(c) John Gilpin.

(d) The May Queen.

(e) The French at Ratisbon.

(f) The Whistle.

(g) The Rapid.

(h) A Small Catechism.

(i) Jack in the Pulpit. (9)

5. Quote two stanzas each from any two of the following:—

A Canadian Boat Song.

Jack in the Pulpit.

Somebody's Darling.

Evening Hymn.

Lord Ullins's Daughter.

John Gilpin. (8)

GRAMMAR.

1. On the morning of the second day of his school life, the little fellow came into his class quietly with his book in his left hand.

(a) Write the subject, the modifiers of the subject, the predicate, and the modifiers of the predicate. (12)

(b) Parse morning, his, school, little, fellow, came, quietly, with. (14)

2. How can you tell (a) an adjective from an adverb, (b) a preposition from a conjunction? (4)

3. Explain the difference in meaning of

(a) Boy, (b) boy's, (c) boys, (d) boys'. (4)

4. Write the possessive case of

(a) He, (b) men, (c) birds, (d) who, (e) book. (5)

5. Write the plural of

(a) Penny, (b) I, (c) cargo, (d) spoonful, (e) deer, (f) mother-in-law. (6)

6. Write the singular objective of

(a) I, (b) thou, (c) she, (d) he. (4)

7. Draw a new diagram like the following, and give the relation and part of speech of each word in the sentence:—"The monster sank again into his native element."

Word.	Relation.	Part of Speech.

8. Correct the following, giving reasons :

- (a) I done my work last night.  
 (b) He seen them boys across the bridge.  
 (c) He laid on the sofa for 3 hours.  
 (d) The man has went home.  
 (e) Why have you not wrote to me?  
 (10)

## GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

### GEOGRAPHY.

1. Define Meridian, Canal, Tropic, Equator, Horizon.

(5)

2. Through what waters would you pass in a voyage from Liverpool to Chicago by way of Qubec? (6)

3. Name the direction of the following rivers, and say into what waters they flow:—(a) Missouri, (b) Ottawa, (c) Fraser, (d) Trent, (e) Rhine. (5)

4. Draw a map of the County of Victoria and locate (a) the townships, (b) the chief lakes and rivers, (c) the county town, (d) the incorporated villages, (e) the railways. (18)

5. Where in America are the following found in great quantities, (a) coffee, (b) silver, (c) rice, (d) coal, (e) cotton. (5)

6. What and where are the follow-

ing:—(a) Boston, (b) Duluth, (c) Rio Janeiro, (d) San Francisco (e) Montreal. (5)

7. Name and locate the cities of, Ontario. (6)

### HISTORY.

8. Write an account of the taking of Quebec, 1759. (7)

9. What do you understand by

(a) The Reciprocity Treaty.

(b) The British North America Act.

(c) Responsible Government. (3)

10. Who is (a) Governor-General of Canada?

(b) Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario?

(c) Warden of this county?

(d) Sheriff of this county?

(e) Prime Minister of Canada?

(f) Premier of Ontario?

(g) Reeve of your municipality? (4)

11. Who were (a) John Cabot, (b) Jacques Cartier, (c) Magellan, (d) Drake, (e) Tecumseth, (f) La Salle. (6)

12. In what year was the Dominion of Canada formed? What provinces first composed it? What provinces have since been added? (3)

13. Who discovered the Mississippi? In what year?

## CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

*The Atlantic* for September contains a paper on an old Boston vagrant by Josiah Flynt, the writer who has been successful in introducing tramp life to the public. Mrs. Catherwood has a short story entitled the "Kidnapped Brick." Miss Thomas has a delightful article, "Rus in Urbe." Altogether it seems much like a woman's number, the writers of two other short stories being Grace Howard Peirce and Kate

Chopin. Duncan Campbell Scott contributes a short poem.

The October number closes the forty-fifth year of the *Popular Science Monthly*. Prof. Richards of Yale ably defends the collegiate game of foot-ball. Two interesting papers on educational subjects are, "The Questioning Age in the Studies of Childhood," by Prof. Sully and the "Pro-

essional Training of Teachers" by M. V. O'Shea. The range of subjects treated is extremely wide, but the subjects selected are all of great interest. One that might specially be mentioned is "Poetry and Science," by Prof. Hudson of Stanford University.

The complete novel in the October *Lippincott* is by Francis Lynde and is called "A Question of Courage." The scene is laid in the Tennessee mountains. There are a number of short stories and sketches by such promising writers as Le Roy Armstrong, Kate Jordan and Kate Milner Rabb. The *Lippincott* has a keen out-look for new writers.

Mrs. N. H. Clifford, the author of that remarkable tale, "Aunt Anne," has a story entitled "A Flash of Summer," running in the *Illustrated London News*. Many of the pictures in the present issues are devoted to the far away-war in China and Japan. There is an interesting and vivid review of "The New Woman," at the Comedy theatre by Clement Scott.

*Littell's Living Age* for September 22nd contains "The Confession of Tibbie Law," from *Blackwood's*, along with another short story from the *Nineteenth Century*. An out-of-the-way paper is that on a "Physician of the Seventeenth Century," by Lady Verney.

A series of articles on the "Homes of Cary," is begun in the October number of the *Missionary Review of the World*. Willard H. Morse has an interesting paper on "Family Life in India." There is also an article on the "Hindu Musical System," by the Rev. Edward Webb. The different departments are full and interesting.

In the November number of the *Ladies' Home Journal* will be begun a novel by Mrs. Caroline Atwater Mason, entitled "A Minister of the

World." The scene of the story is to be in New York. The present issue contains a pleasant short story by Octave Thanet and an instalment of Pomona's Travels. J. Macdonald Oxley has an article on Post Graduate Courses for Women. Other timely papers make up an excellent number.

*A Physical Laboratory Manual*, by H. A. Chute, M.S., appears from the press of Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. It is in every way a satisfactory handbook of experiments in physics, the practical hints alone being of the greatest value to teachers. Each experiment is fully described, and great attention is paid to records of experiments.

One of the great educational books of the year is the *History of the Early Scottish Education*, by Mr. John Edgar of Glasgow University and Balliol College, and now Classical Master in the Royal High School, Edinburgh. A second volume is in preparation, which brings the history down to the present time. The volume before us deals with education in Scotland up to the Reformation, and is a noble work combining thorough research and sound scholarship. It is also a necessary work, for, as the author justly says, "Reform should proceed along national lines." The Scottish character and nation owes so much to its schools that a worthy treatment of this subject would be timely in any age, and never could it be more so than now.

*Landmarks of Church History* is the title of the latest issue of the Guild text books, published by A. & C. Black, London. Like the others it is an admirable little volume. The editor is Prof. Henry Cowan, D.D., of Aberdeen.

We have received from the publishers, The W. J. Gage Co., Toronto, an ex-



cellent edition of those poems of Tennyson which are prescribed for University Matriculation work for 1895. The Editor is Mr. F. H. Sykes M.A., Ph.D., and the edition is a credit both to the editor and the publishers. The editor's notes are especially good and there is also an interesting introduction.

Messrs. W. R. Chambers, London, have published a systematic course of object lessons under the title "Elementary Science." The author is Mr. Todd, Science Demonstrator to the London School Board. The lessons are complete and well arranged for class use.

It is strange indeed that scientific men, so successful in material things, should meet the higher problems of life in an unscientific spirit. We have long waited for some pioneer to lead the way to a truly scientific consideration of social and religious questions, and such a one, if we are not mistaken, has arisen in Mr. Benjamin Kidd, whose book on *Social Evolution* is now being seriously read and considered by a good many thoughtful men and women. Grave and difficult problems perplex the modern world, more grave and difficult than ever. This book states some of them, and, as its name implies, concerns itself chiefly with the progress of man as man, the condition and causes of progress, the present state of civilization, and the remedies for its ills. This is a book to be read. And we may mention in the same connection Mr. Drage's remarkable work on *The Unemployed* (Toronto: Williamson & Co. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)

Among the recent publications of Messrs. Ginn & Co. are three beautiful classical texts, one of which, the *Dialogus de Oratoribus* of Tacitus appears in a large and handsome volume, so complete and attractive that

one is tempted to wish to learn Latin over again. The Editor is Prof. Gudeman of Pennsylvania University. This edition has been in preparation for six years and the Editor has availed himself of the latest results of German scholarship in the different parts of his work. The other two texts are Thucydides, Book III., edited by Prof. Smith of Vanderbilt University and Homer's *Odyssey*, Books V-VIII., Edited by Prof. Perrin of Yale, both being numbers of the *College Series of Greek Authors* and both beautiful specimens of the printer's art as well as of the scholar's work.

Another fine book from the press of Messrs. Ginn & Co. is Mrs. Hufford's selections from the writings of Ruskin, with a good introduction and notes.

*Latin Prose Composition*, by Fletcher and Henderson, published by the Copp, Clark Co. (Ltd.), Toronto. Messrs. Fletcher and Henderson have already achieved such success as editors of *Classical Text-books*, that a new work from them is looked forward to with interest, by all concerned in the welfare of classical study. From an examination of the book before us, it would appear that the authors are fully alive to the changed circumstances under which Latin Prose is now studied, necessitating, as they do, the utmost economy of time and labor consistent with an intelligent grasp of the subject. The book is terse, sympathetic and comprehensive, theory and practice are admirably balanced and there is no overloading with unnecessary difficulties. Part I, by a series of easy exercises, gradually develops a practical acquaintance with Latin syntax and style in general, while Part II wisely supplements this with continuous passages, affording practice in imitating the vocabulary and style of *Cæsar*, *Livy* and *Cicero* in particular.