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THE CANADA  
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY  
AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

OCTOBER, 1896.

NATIONAL PATRIOTISM.

By W. IRWIN, PRINCIPAL FLESHERTON P. S.

TO many teachers, who are already overworked in the preparation of candidates for the various literary examinations, it may seem an injustice to expect them to do anything towards the inculcation of a patriotic sentiment; yet since education should fit a person for true citizenship, and true citizenship must be co-existent with love of country, it follows that the teacher who fails to instil into the hearts and minds of his pupils a feeling of loyalty to their fatherland fails to perform one of the highest functions of the true teacher.

Patriotism is defined to be "Love and devotion to one's country; the spirit that prompts to obedience to its laws, to the support and defence of its existence, rights and institutions, and to the promotion of its welfare." This is a comprehensive definition, but to die for one's country is perhaps a more popular and a more ancient definition of patriotism. We don't always want to die, and, while it is our privilege to live, we may live for our country in such manner as to act the part of the truest patriots by using the talents God has given us in striving to elevate humanity to a higher plane of true Christian brotherhood, and as teachers, with an influence as lasting as

eternity itself, we should do our very best for the universal good.

We want a broader patriotism than that which is limited by national boundaries, and to grasp these higher ideals of true greatness, and to appropriate to ourselves, and to incorporate into our constitution what has proved a blessing in the constitution of any truly great and prosperous nation should be the ambition of every subject, and until we are willing to do this we fail to fill properly the highest duty of the best type of citizen. This leads us to realize the absolute importance of knowing not only the history and civil government of our own country, but also the history and government of every nation that leads the van in social, political and religious reform. We all admire, no doubt, this truly catholic spirit of a universal patriotism, yet the ties of nature force us into a deeper love for that land which we are pleased to call by the endearing name of home.

Patriotism is an essential factor in national greatness, and the greater degree to which this love-of-country spirit is developed the greater will be the height to which such country will ultimately and inevitably rise among the nations of the world. In order to

have a true love for our country we must have a full conception, of everything true and noble and great that our country possesses or is capable of producing, and seeing that we have many things worthy of our admiration we will be forced to form for our native or adopted land a love that can never be estranged.

Patriotism prompts to obedience to the laws of a country; but I believe only so far as these laws can be shown to be good laws. In a democratic country like our own, the governments are made *by* the people and *for* the people, and our representatives in Parliament are there because of the expressed wish of the majority of their constituents. Once in power, the partisan politician feels the political pulse of his supporters, allows self-interest to overrule judgment, and legislates with a view to securing a majority vote at the next election. The political partisan, who swears allegiance to any one political party, and who blindly upholds its actions through evil as well as good report, is not a national patriot, but a political bigot. Now, since the people make the legislators, and the legislators make the laws, it is not difficult to infer that the character of the laws reflects in some measure the character of the majority of the people. The patriot is liberal in his views, and willing to allow to others the freedom he claims for himself. The political bigot is narrow-minded and intolerant, and sees nothing good outside of his own opinion. The patriot recognizes the importance and rights of other people and other lands. The bigot sees nothing in them worthy of his recognition. The patriot lives for the good of his country, but the bigot lives only for self and party. Principal Grant says: "The school should teach patriotism, but let us not forget that there is as great a difference between patriotism and blatant, arro-

gant, spread-eagleism as there is between enthusiasm and fanaticism; the one is healthy and full of generous inspirations, and the other unhealthy and the destroyer of patriotism and morality. The one teaches us to love our own land and race first; the other teaches us to hate men for the love of God or the love of country." We have also a pessimistic class, who never see anything good at home, who are always grumbling about our country, our governments, and all our other institutions. They are always attracted by the bright spots in some distant picture, which portrays to them the golden treasures of some far-off land where without much toil they may ever reap a bountiful harvest; but while gazing on the shadow they lose sight of the substance.

The success of this association, or of any similar institution, depends largely, I may say wholly, upon the efforts of its members to make it successful, and to achieve the best possible results we must have unanimity and interest. If to make this meeting a success we have each a duty to perform, it must be equally true that each has a duty devolving upon him in the national development of the country to which he belongs. If our country is lacking in prosperity, whom should we blame? If our governments are corrupt, are we using our vote and influence to make them pure? If not, are we doing our duty as true patriots?

The patriotic spirit of a country must be kept alive. If the flame die out its independent national existence is doomed. Were it not for the self-reliance, unity and patriotism of the ancient Greeks, their names would never have been handed down the pages of history as the conquerors of the largest army of which history has any record. Were it not for the intense and burning patriotism of her subjects Scotland would never have

had a Bannockburn. History falsifies fact when it teaches that the English conquered Scotland. The patriotic love of native land still burned in the hearts of the Scottish people, and they only-awaited a favorable opportunity to reassert their independence, and later on this said-to-be conquered country gave to England a crowned head, one of whose descendants to-day sways the sceptre of that mighty empire whose colonies encircle the globe. A truly patriotic people knows no such thing as conquest. Goldsmith says:—

The shuddering tenant of the frigid zone  
Boldly proclaims the happiest spot his  
own;

The naked negro panting at the line  
Boasts of his golden sands and palmy wine.

Here we have it, a beautiful text; it may or may not be true, yet it contains a beautiful picture of contentment—one of the most potent forces in building up a national loyalty and engendering a love that is characteristic of and essential to true patriotism. Now, let us look at our own country, see what we have to be proud of, and investigate by what means we can imbue the minds and hearts of our pupils with a love for their native land.

We have much to stimulate a pardonable pride—an extensive territory of fertile soil, vast mineral wealth, valuable timber areas, a most salubrious climate, an inland water communication such as few other countries can boast of, world-renowned fisheries, a network of over twelve thousand miles of railway and telegraphic and telephonic communication, unsurpassed in proportion to our requirements by any other land. Our postal system is almost perfect, and our civil and religious institutions are worthy of our deepest admiration. Our country is young; the industry, skill and energy of our forefathers have transformed it from its primeval solitude into smiling gardens, luxuriant cornfields, and

populous marts of trade. Our sails of commerce are wafted by the breeze on every ocean, and our merchandise is entering nearly every port; and now, even young as we are, we occupy the third or fourth position among the trading nations of the world. In science, art and literature we occupy no mean position, and the possibilities and developments of the twentieth century no one dares to predict.

In the educational world we are making phenomenal advancement. We consider our school system second to none, each department being so related to the other as to form an educational ladder from the kindergarten to the university. The true teacher of to-day is an educational artist; his work is scientific. He must understand the nature of the material on which he works, must be able to take a psychological view of the child's mind, and knowing its operations he is able to impart instruction by the most modern and most rational methods. The child of the past was often treated as if he were a mere passive recipient; but the child now is an active agent in the acquisition of knowledge, so that teachers and taught are co-workers in the harmonious and symmetrical development of all the intellectual faculties. Our teachers, with few exceptions, are men and women of principle, integrity and uprightness of moral character; and if it be true that "like begets like," we must have growing up amongst us and around us an army of boys and girls who will develop into men and women of the same stamp. Let us have true patriotic teachers, and we'll soon have a patriotic people that will defy the very worst forms of despotism. We don't need special textbooks on patriotism. We don't want long-winded sermons on loyalty. What we do want is an army of teachers so full of love for their country, and for its institutions that their lives will be

one long sermon on patriotism. The patriotic teacher will find many opportunities for introducing incidentally the principal points by which a child will be unconsciously led to be patriotic. Some of our reading lessons are spiced with patriotism; our geography tells us of our territorial extent, our connection with the mother country, and the important position we hold in our relation with other lands through her; our histories tell us of our heroes and give us lessons in civil government; and by a proper development of themes like these, the teacher will find means to inspire his pupils with a spirit of true loyalty. An eminent American educator says: "Every school should teach lessons in civics and patriotism. Whenever the sentiment in any lesson of any study touches the important field of civics, the mind of the pupil should be imbued with its nobility. The teacher should remember that all studies at some time touch the field of civics, and should develop these lessons. Reading and literature

are full of passages fraught with sentiments of love for our country, of confidence in our free institutions, and of respect for our nation's benefactors. Lessons in civics may be learned from geography when it treats of our material resources; from arithmetic when it deals with taxes or duties; physiology when it teaches to preserve health and develop power in the individual that he may be a stronger and better factor in the government. Interesting object-lessons may be given by taking the classes to court-rooms, council chambers and legislative halls, where they may observe for themselves the processes of government in actual operation. In addition to all this, leading economic questions should be selected for free discussion. By this means the pupils are not only profited by drill in debate, but are put in possession of the power to investigate for themselves all questions of public importance, and they also acquire the power and courage necessary to stand and defend their views."

#### SOME REFLECTIONS OF A SCHOOLMASTER.

ALMOST a quarter of a century has passed since there appeared in *Maga* a short series of papers under the title "In my Study-chair." It is an accident of our good fortune that we are privileged to take an affectionate and hereditary interest in those papers, written as they were by one who not only could appreciate to the full the worth of other men's books, but also had himself the pen of a ready and a graceful writer. His was one of those rarely cultured minds to which nothing appealed more strongly than the treasured works of the old-world writers, and the volumes on which his eye loved to dwell as he sat in his study-chair were those

Ancient Classics with which he himself kept up a lifelong friendship, and into the contents of which, in his later years, he so ably contrived to give "unlearned readers" some insight. Dear to his heart were the books themselves, and dearly cherished the associations connected with the early study of the prose and poetry of what to the modern advocate of a purely utilitarian education are indeed dead languages, but which, as an appreciative student justly remarked, "must continue to be the key of our best English literature."

That only a very moderate portion of that spirit has fallen to our lot is the misfortune of a less intellectual

nature. We have indeed a warm admiration for many though not quite all the Classics, but it is the admiration only of a passing acquaintance as distinct from the constant affection of a familiar friend. A passage from Homer, dullard though we are, we acknowledge to sound to us more full of poetical fire than anything ever written in our own language; and we readily believe that in the "Odyssey," "be its authorship what it may, lie the germs of thousands of the volumes which fill our modern libraries." Certainly in our early school-days it was impressed upon our memory in more ways than one by a somewhat Draconian ruler, that between the works of Homer, Shakespeare and Walter Scott, there existed a close relationship; and many a sin in the way of failure to construe our "Iliad" was covered by a timely recollection, real or feigned, that something very like the passage was to be found in one or other of the Waverley novels. It was as well, be it remarked, not to be too accurate on such occasions; for welcome indeed then the command, "Fetch me all my Waverleys, my boys," and the last half of that awful hour, which fortunately came but once a week, was spent by the whole class in looking for the parallel passage. Had we failed to strike that chord, the order—so painful experience taught—might have been, "Fetch me the black book and the cane. I'll flog ye all." And what a load of anxiety was rolled off from our young minds when the rumour ran round the school that the Warden had gone off for a change in the company of his Homer and his Shakespeare. For then we small fry, who heartily feared, though it was our creed to say we loved, his presence, felt that for a few days, at any rate, life was indeed worth living.

Or, again, we can read with pleasure passages in the Greek Tragedians,

and, while we only imperfectly appreciate their grandeur, can wholly recognize and regret our incapacity to give a rendering of them in English at all worthy of the original.

Finally, even to our untutored ears, a speech of Pericles in Thucydides, or a Philippic of Demosthenes or of Cicero, seems to have about it a ring and a power which a Burke or a Sheridan or a Magee may have rivalled, but which contrasts very favourably with the "Times"-reported oratory of the modern politician.

And yet with all our shortcomings in respect to the Classics, we may lay claim to having to a limited extent inherited a fondness for books. But the volumes, we are fain to confess with which our own modest library is replete, are the writings of the English novelists of the earlier half of the century—Scott, Dickens and Thackeray. These we loved dearly in the past; as we gaze on the old familiar titles our thoughts wander back over many happy hours spent in their society; our only grievance against them in the present is that, as we take down one of our favourites from its place in the shelf and open it at haphazard, we feel that we shall know exactly what came on the preceding, and what will be told us in the next, page.

"Ye come again! Dim visions of the  
past!  
That charmed in life's young morn these  
weary eyes,  
Shall I essay this time to hold ye fast?  
Still clings my heart to empty fantasies?  
Ye throng around! Well! Be your  
glamour cast  
Upon me, as from shadowy mist ye  
rise!  
Youth trembles through me, while I  
breathe again  
The magic airs that whisper round your  
train.  
Ye bring with ye the forms of happier  
days,  
And many dearest shadows rise to  
view;  
Like tones of old and half-remembered  
lays,

Come early Love and Friendship tried  
and true;  
Thought wanders back through Life's be-  
wildering maze."

If such epithets as "dim" and "shadowy" can hardly be said to apply to our recollections of the books of the three great authors we have mentioned, it is because we have from time to time, we might almost say from year to year, refreshed our memory. But much at any rate of an old friend's apt rendering of Goethe's introduction to "Faust" seems to describe the feelings we cherish for their works. As we look back to the many pleasant hours spent in the company of Esmond, David Copperfield, Ivanhoe, Quentin Durward, and other favourite heroes, we can readily understand that an enthusiast like Mrs. Fenwick Miller found in books a comfort and an interest that have never failed. Some of our best loved authors' works we naturally have found more interesting than others, but a reperusal of many that we have once hastily condemned has not unfrequently brought about a reversal of judgment; and though we have criticised "Bleak House" as too long, "Pendennis" as dull in parts, "St. Ronan's Well" as tame by comparison with Sir Walter's best work, we still feel that if we were condemned to a week's solitary confinement, we would choose any one of the three to while away the hours in preference to Mudie's box full of modern three-volume novels. Every detail of "Ivanhoe," and of many others of the Waverley novels, we had at our fingers' ends long before most boys leave a preparatory school; but while we can envy young and lucky people who still have these books to read for the first time, we console ourselves with the thought that they are there on the shelf ready at hand for us to read again when we will. But we hear on all sides now that the time is

cut of joint with the Waverley novels, and we have been told in these latter years that the Wizard of the North has no longer the power to interest the rising generation, that his work is too dry and too old-fashioned, and that the young brain requires a more invigorating and more satisfying food—that the children's teeth are set on edge by the sour grapes which their forefathers were perforce contented to devour. On one side a mother complains to us of the hard measure meted out to her boy of twelve on whom the penance of reading such a dull book as "Ivanhoe" has been imposed as a holiday task. "So very much beyond the poor boy, and so very uninteresting and old-fashioned for a really clever child!" and then the good lady goes on to inform us that schoolmasters as a class are really so extremely groovy (an opinion, by the way, which we cordially endorse) that they expect other people to be as narrow-minded as themselves. We assent to the double proposition that schoolmasters are impossible themselves and expect impossibilities from others. Fortified by our complaisance, and sure of our sympathy, she continues: "Well, what I have done is just this. I have picked out a nice book myself for him to read, a really good modern book, and at the end of the holidays I shall just write and say that I am the best judge of his holiday reading." And she leaves us reflecting on the reasonableness of mothers and the corresponding unreasonableness of schoolmasters, and wondering whether by any chance that "really good modern book" will be "Trilby" or "The Sorrows of Satan."

On another occasion we are staying in a country house, and our hostess, who has noticed that we spend a good deal of our time in the library, informs us one night that we are to take Miss —— down to dinner. "I am

sure that you will get on capitally with her; she is so fond of books and so very well read."

Possibly our hostess gave our fair companion the cue, or was it out of deference to our grey hairs and general fogeyism that she forebore to discourse on balls, matinees, and other social subjects, and did not profess anxiety to know whether we danced, or hunted, or played golf, or were fond of music? No, our fair blue-stocking—for if she did not look the part she made a laudable attempt to play it—inaugurated a conversation by a reference to the literature of the day.

"You are very fond of reading, are you not?"

"I read a little sometimes."

"Well, I read a very great deal. I am devoted to books. I have just finished"—here she mentioned one of our three-volume enemies. "Is it not awfully clever?"

Fortunately we had dived into the book sufficiently to gather that it dealt of matters beyond our ken, and fortunately, too, our very superficial knowledge of the contents was good enough for the occasion. But we were not sorry when she showed an inclination to carry the war into our own territory.

"Now, do tell me what you have been reading lately."

"Woodstock."

"Woodstock! I never heard of it. What a pretty name. Who is it by? Do tell me all about it."

"Well, it was written by one Walter Scott."

"Oh, indeed! Is it one of those—what funny name did he call his books by?"

"The Waverley Novels. Have you never read any of them?"

"Well, yes, I think I have read some, or tried to read them. But I am afraid that I skipped rather. They were so dreadfully—what shall I call

it?—prosy, and so unlike anything one reads now."

So unlike, indeed!

And once again—we knew a boy in the flesh not so many years ago, one of the most industrious, honest, and healthy little fellows we ever met in a fairly wide experience of that ubiquitous article, the British schoolboy. At the age of thirteen he had many virtues, but at the same time a most profound antipathy for reading or any sedentary occupation whatever excepting that of biting his nails. Whether the antipathy to reading was innate or the result of deficient home-training—whether, in fact, he was the sinner or his parents—it would perhaps be impertinent to inquire. He was very conscientious, good-tempered, and obedient, and what we may call the mechanical side of the intellect was fully developed. But he was wholly devoid of any literary taste whatsoever. He would learn with ease and repeat accurately whole columns of irregular verbs or nouns, could rattle off the names and dates of kings and queens, of battles and treaties, and work through a page of examples in arithmetic without making a single mistake. But he never opened a book out of school-hours except under dire compulsion, and save only the results of cricket-matches and the names—initials and all—of prominent cricketers, knew nothing of what went on in the world beyond what came in the ordinary course of school-teaching. He might also be said to have had the capacity of locking up the door of his intellect, and keeping it locked until the sense of duty required that it should be opened. It was probably a sense of duty also which induced him to adopt a hoarse whisper by way of a voice in school-hours, and to reserve his natural intonation, which the Boanerges might have envied, for the playground or conversation with his



school-fellows. Once the experiment was tried—an experiment which answers well in many cases—of setting him down to read a sensible book. Amenable as at all times to discipline, but wearing at the same a ludicrously dejected look, he undertook to do his best. He was taken to the library and asked what sort of a story he would like. But he was diffident of expressing an opinion and invited suggestions, and it was difficult to suggest when the only answers to be arrived at, given of course in the hoarse whisper, were “Pretty well,” or “I don’t know.” So at last we started him off with “Ivanhoe,” and he was graciously pleased to volunteer his opinion that it was a funny name. And for a whole month he devoted himself for perhaps two hours a week to “Ivanhoe”; and such was his conscientiousness that we fully believe he never skipped a word, and so great his sense of the injury which the great intellectual effort was inflicting on his leisure that he never took a single word in.

“Well, old fellow, how is ‘Ivanhoe’ getting on?”

“Pretty well, thank you.”

“How far have you got?”

“Oh, I’ve nearly read”—and he consults the top of the page—“one hundred and twenty pages.”

“And whom do you like best?”

A hasty glance at the page to see what name came handiest.

“Oh, Wamba!”

He looks so extremely woe-begone over our cross-questioning that we make a feeble attempt at a joke.

“A little fellow-feeling—eh my boy?”

Blank gaze.

“You don’t know what I mean, I suppose?”

“No.”

“Well, you know what Wamba was?”

“Yes,” rather dubiously.

“Well, what?”

“One of the chaps in the book.”

A week later we made one more attempt to find out whether the story had in any way appealed to him.

“Have you found any old friends in ‘Ivanhoe’?”

“No.”

“Do you mean to say that you never heard of any of the people before?”

“No.”

“Well, you know King Richard?”

“King Richard!”

“Yes, Richard the First.”

“Oh yes, he was king 1189 to 1199.”

“Well, you came across him in the Tournament.”

“I didn’t know it was the same chap.”

And he implied by this remark that any form of book-learning indulged in out of school-hours is merely a work of supererogation, and not to be accounted as either profitable or edifying.

This last instance we have cited is an extreme one doubtless, but by no means unique. In all ages of mankind there has been born into the world, even among the so-called educated class, a certain proportion of boys to whom nothing verging on the intellectual is in any way a recreation, who feel with the preacher that “he that increaseth knowledge increaseth sorrow.” Unfortunately the prominence conferred in these latter days on athleticism has a tendency to accentuate the mischief. Each year seems to add its quatum to the number of boys who regard each hour of play-time not devoted to some active exercise as so much time misspent or wasted. So long as they are out of doors this is a spirit to be encouraged. But we draw the line strongly at the youth who in the house can provide himself with no more intellectual occupation than talking cricket, shop or studying the pages of an old Lilly-

white's guide. When the cakes and ale lose their charm, when stiffened limbs and unpliant muscles forbid violent exercise, when custom, if not fatigue, compels a certain amount of sedentary leisure, what will be the end of these boys and men? Unless they mend their ways and force themselves, or are forced by others, to employ the talent which they are now

content to wrap up in a napkin or to bury, they will become time-killers, club-loafers, unintellectual bores; or, as nature abhors a vacuum, less kindly spirits than Calliope, Clio, or their sister Muses will possess their minds, "an empty void though tenanted. To such as these old age will indeed be "pleasure less decay."—*Blackwood's Magazine*.

## THE CASE FOR SCRIPTURE TEACHING IN SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—Will you allow a teacher of long experience to say a few words in reply to Miss Mildred Spencer's attack upon Scripture teaching in secondary schools?

It is a surprise to her, she says, that although the question of religious teaching in schools has been dealt with, not merely exhaustively, but "most exhaustively," in newspapers, magazines, and speeches, "the educational aspect of the case has been passed by almost without notice."

There are some minds which are always thrown into an attitude of doubt by the use of superlatives, and I suppose mine is of that order, for to me the above statement at once suggested the inquiry whether any question can be dealt with "most exhaustively," or, indeed, otherwise than rather superficially, either in the periodical press or on platforms. But, setting this aside, I wonder what can have given Miss Spencer the impression that the educational aspect of religious teaching is an aspect which has not only not engaged the attention of those who are interested in this question, but has actually escaped their notice; for, to my thinking, it is the very aspect upon which the attention of all those whose hearts are set upon the

maintenance of religious instruction in our schools is absolutely centred.

For the question of Scripture teaching in schools is inseparably bound up with the larger questions: What are and what ought to be the aims of education? All true "educationists"—but here I interrupt myself, for we want definitions. What are we really to understand by an "educationist"? And, yet more urgently, in relation to our present subject, what is the exact value of that strange adjective "muddle-headed," which Miss Spencer thinks fit to apply to what she calls "our" Scripture teaching.

However, not to be too particular, I continue. All true educationists, including, I daresay, Miss Spencer herself, will reply: (1) To awaken intelligence and exercise faculty; (2) to cultivate and inform the mind; (3) to develop and strengthen the moral standard, and to train character. Also there will, I suppose, be a general agreement that the last strand in the threefold cord is the most important; for, unless our pupils grow up into good men and good women, we must feel that we shall have failed miserably, however well we may seem to have succeeded in other directions.

So well do our clear-sighted neighbors, the French, perceive this, that the *leçon de moralité* holds the first place in all their school programmes, and there are countless books, some of them really admirable of their kind, intended to enable teachers to teach, and pupils to acquire, both the knowledge and the practice of morality, without the Christian basis, which their secular system of education excludes. The result is not altogether a success, and they are quite aware of it. For the reason why, I would refer my readers to Principal Shairp's fine essay on "The Moral Dynamic," in his "Studies in Poetry and Philosophy."

In this country—let us be thankful for it—there is yet a general understanding that the only trustworthy foundation for morality is religious faith. The fear of God *must* underlie the keeping of the Commandments. "It is not necessary," wrote Dr. Arnold (I quote from memory) "that Rugby should be a school of three hundred boys, or a school of one hundred boys; but it is necessary that it should be a school of Christian gentlemen." This is a very English ideal, and it is one that has met with general appreciation and approval. There are but few among the friends of education in this country who would not rejoice to see all the proceedings in every school "leavened with Christian faith and feeling." But we are told, with a continued accumulation of adjectives, that the teaching of the Bible in schools forms a *very serious* difficulty; that there is an *extraordinary* want of clear thinking on the subject; and that our *muddle-headed* Scripture teaching is "*intellectually vicious* in its results," because it warps and bewilders the moral sense, and so binds up spiritual truth with intellectual error that it is (actually!) "an obstacle to real religion." The con-

clusion is: Let us give it up; and, if such premises are to be accepted, who can wonder at the conclusion? "The parents," says Miss Spencer, "belong to every variety of sect," and, therefore, she seems to think, all idea of unity in teaching must be given up.

But, even in those schools where the parents do very largely belong to different congregations, to different branches of the Christian community, there are few, indeed, who would not claim, first and before everything else, to be members of that "sect called Christians" of which we read in the Acts of the Apostles; and this implies a unity which goes deeper than the deepest of all their differences, a unity which manifests itself in the common desire which we, who are teachers, find in almost all, the desire that their children should receive instruction in the faith and duty of a Christian.

Of such teaching the Bible is the great and inexhaustible treasure-house. How, then, are our pupils to be rightly instructed in Christian faith and duty, how are their teachers to set before them those Christian principles with which we desire to see their conduct and their character alike penetrated, if we are to lay aside our Bibles, and exclude the Book of Books from our time-tables and our class-rooms? It is true that the parents are primarily responsible for the Christian training of their children; but teachers have their share also both in the task and in the responsibility, and woe to the nation when either parents or teachers neglect their part of the common duty.

Certainly, if the religious teaching, whether in primary or secondary schools, were as "disastrous" a "muddle," and as mischievous in its results, as Miss Spencer would have us believe, very grave blame must be due somewhere for the manner in

which the most sacred part of our educational responsibilities has been fulfilled. But it is not so. That the work is far from *perfectly* done, even in our best schools, I willingly admit. The higher the task the harder it is to perform *perfectly*; but difficulty can never be a valid reason for renouncing duty. Besides, on the whole, Miss Spencer's allegations are so wide of the facts that I cannot help believing that her view of religious education in secondary schools must rest rather on conjecture than on observation; or, at least, that her actual opportunities of studying the question must have been limited to a very few schools. One could almost imagine that it might have been limited to a single school, for can there be more than one school in which there is so stupid a neglect of "the light that science throws on the interpretation of Scripture" as that implied in the sixth paragraph of her paper? Where is the teacher who would not show the pupils that the word "day" in the first chapter of Genesis is to be understood, as in so many other places of Scripture (day of the Lord, day of Judgment, etc.), as a name for a period of indefinite length; and who would not use illustrations from geol-

ogy, if the children's age made such illustrations suitable? I am quite unable to imagine *any* teacher questioning children on the details of the six days' creation process, "as if their spiritual welfare depended on knowing whether creeping things were made before fowls;" and I think that in most good secondary schools the time when the pupil "will hear about evolution, and learn something of the geology of the earth," will arrive so naturally before they leave school that they will not have the chance of being surprised by it, in later years.

I could say much more—of the delight there is in teaching Scripture; of the deeper pleasure when old pupils have spoken of living help found in those lessons above all others; of the untold satisfaction of seeing a pupil awake to a sense of responsibility, and begin to battle with faults and aim at right-doing. But this letter is already a long one, though not, perhaps, so long as the article which has drawn it forth. I hope, in justice to the other side, that you, sir, will nevertheless try to find room for it.

Yours faithfully,

M. E. SANDFORD.

The Queen's School, Chester,  
August 10th, 1896

## THE USES OF FACTS AND FICTION IN THE EARLY EDUCATION OF THE YOUNG.

(Continued from last issue.)

**B**UT there are other stories besides those of fairyland; and of these I must now speak. They belong for the most part to the later stages of childhood. There are "allegories"—but these are commonly too full of abstractions and symbolisms to be very interesting to children. They may enjoy the story—as in the case

of "Pilgrim's Progress"—but the symbolism, as far as it makes itself evident, rather disturbs than promotes the interest. Still, in the hands of a master, an allegory can convey a moral precept in a very striking and memorable way, and one which makes its meaning clearer. There are "fables;" but these are too often

satires to be very suitable to children. They are, however, sometimes full of real fun; and, if the laugh is good-natured and there is no sneering, they may help us now and then to criticize conduct without being unkind or too personal. The power to see the humorous side of things should not be neglected. And lastly, there are "realistic stories" and "true stories." Of the latter I need not speak here, except under the head of the general uses of stories. Realistic stories may be made of considerable use; but, from the fact that they profess to give us pictures—not mere reproductions—of real every-day life, and that real every-day life is not usually very eventful or exciting, they are apt to mislead by their writers making the abnormal, exceptional, and even the disagreeable, far too prominent in order to enliven the narrative. Just because the account of a naughty child or a very odd person or strange state of things is wont to prove more attractive than that of ordinary persons or conditions, so what is called realism is liable to give a very distorted idea of reality. Besides, it is very commonly forgotten that a story of the real cannot be real to a child unless his mind possesses the material and the experience necessary for making the required constructions; and this holds good also of true stories, which are not understood and assimilated by a child merely because they are true. After all there are truths higher than mere matter of fact. It is possible to get closer to the true meanings and duties of life than human action gives evidence of. Bacon's realistic attitude in his "Essays" does not give us the highest truth. And, though a sound organization of secondary education in England must be of great benefit to us all, it will be long, I fear, before it becomes a matter of fact. The reverse of the difficulty is sometimes amusing-

ly brought out when a teacher relates some ancient legend very realistically without giving the children the right point of view—that the legend represents what was once believed to be true. Children strongly resent being tricked, dearly as they love realism. They do not dislike a legend as a legend—wondering the while whether it could possibly be true. But they resent being made to think it true, and then find that is not. And the resentment is stronger when the story is not ancient but modern, and about children like themselves.

There is another danger about realistic stories which should be borne in mind. When the teacher wishes to set an example of conduct before the children, it is commonly better, as Miss Buckland points out, to place the stories in times and countries different from the present—and she instances the story of "The Good Samaritan"—so that the children may be inspired to a general line of conduct, and not to be led "to a petty vain attempt to repeat what has been admired, in the hope of getting the same applause."

I take it, then, that realistic stories for children, when used for educational purposes, should be true to life and nature, and should deal with their simple ordinary laws; should have no forced moral; should introduce no feeling but that natural to the children and to the situation; and the scenes and characters should be taken from the life which is natural to childhood or which is, at any rate, easily intelligible to children. I need scarcely add that most of the stories now-a-days ostensibly written for children are really for the sentimental adult. Not that I wish to condemn them—the "Adventures of Alice" are a perennial delight; but they are not for children.

And now I think the ground is clear for a statement of what, to my

mind, are the uses of fiction in education. What I say will refer to stories in general used in one part or another of education up to the age of ten or eleven. Stories enlarge experience by giving descriptions and pictures of the practical working of much that has been observed, and of other matters similar to these; they exercise the imagination and the feelings in a fitting way; and they supply examples and ideals. They can also be used for giving information of many kinds. Stories enlarge and supply, so to speak, the beginnings of experience by illustrating the practical working of some of the simple laws which govern life. True experience can only come with years; but, meanwhile, children need something to guide them. Precepts and dogmatic teaching do not, as a rule, make much impression on them. "We may tell children that certain causes produce certain effects, but the lesson is soon forgotten; if the law, however, is shown in action in a story, the consequences remain fixed in the mind, and, again and again through life, serve as a guide under similar circumstances." Stories show a child other children like himself living and acting together, and so enable him in a measure to make his own self objective, and to form sounder judgments about that self. They, in a sense, widen his circle of intercourse, and so lessen his pre-occupation with his own likes and dislikes and wishes.

Stories exercise the child's imagination—not only receptively and imitatively, but also by supplying him with much material and many useful models for constructions of his own. A very little care in selection will enable the mode of activity to be both simple and suitable. They can be made to exercise all the simpler non-egoistic feelings, and especially sympathy, which has been called "the imagination of the heart"—and this

without the often too keen and confusing excitement of real cases personally present. The child sees the feelings of others at work and so learns still further to observe and realize the feelings of those around him, and to imagine what they will be in cases beyond his experience.

Stories supply examples, of which I have already spoken. They supply also ideals, which are still more important, not only on the ethical, but also on the æsthetic side. A life unstimulated by admiration, unlighted by a gradually growing love of excellence, is but the life of bird or beast, but not that of a human being. We must hold firmly by the natural and real, but chiefly that we may reach the spiritual beyond it. Ideals, like much else, are growths; and they must seem to us to be partly realizable by ourselves or they will have no influence on conduct, and will not call the will into play. The ideals we set before the little ones should be children's ideals, which will grow into man's ideals later on. And, in order that their partial realization may seem possible to children, we must clothe these ideals in definite forms and set them doing definite things. From the characters and actions must simply, unobtrusively, almost unconsciously spring the moral maxims which we wish the children to adopt as their own true guides. Dogmatic teaching in this matter is quite inadequate. In no other department are stories so valuable as in this; and in this a high place must be given, I think, to the best of our fairy stories; because they are full of childhood's ideals. If the prison-house of matter of fact must perforce—even for his very health and safety—close around the growing boy, let us at least leave it here and there open to the sky.

Would I, then, you may ask, make stories, and especially fairy stories, the central predominant interest, the

source from which all else must spring in the education of children? My answer is certainly, no. The central interest should be for them their natural and their human surroundings—plants, animals, and human beings. It is from intercourse with these that the stories must spring, not knowledge of these merely from the stories. In what I have been just saying, I have been dealing with one only of the means at the teacher's command, one only of the higher uses of fact. There are other means and other uses which have to be considered before we can decide on what shall be predominant. But, whatever may be our decision, the firm basis of all must be reality, matter of fact. There is no valuable art, there is no sound morality, which is not firmly rooted in fact, and does not grow up from thence by means of experience. But in both there is something more than matter of fact—the aspiring spirit of humanity,

Still climbing after *wisdom* infinite  
And always moving as the restless spheres.

We shall not compass our great ends as teachers, we shall not rear true men and women, by restricting children to matter of fact, and clipping the pinions of their roving fancies. As imagination and idealization without fact become empty dreaming vanishing phantoms, so fact without imagination and idealization makes man a beast of burden or a machine.—*Educational Times.*

One of the greatest mistakes that can be made by teachers in beginning school in September, is the sudden change they feel called upon to make in their out-door life. There should be just as little change as possible. The longer the vacation feeling can be cherished the better for everybody. Let the "new leaf" be turned very slowly, and the "settling down to work" be one of those things that comes of itself.

## THE TRANSVAAL.

BY EDWARD J. PARROTT.

### THE TRANSVAAL REPUBLIC.

IN 1852, the Transvaal Republic, under the title of the South African Republic, was formed. The British Government recognized the independence of the emigrants beyond the Vaal in 1853 by the Sand River Convention, and two years later granted the "Orange River" Boers permission to set up their own government as the "Orange Free State." For a time the Boers lived quietly, peopling the country, growing their crops and amassing great flocks and herds. The Transvaal before the gold discoveries, languished in poverty, and in 1876 its Government practically collapsed

owing to the impoverishment of the country due to the heavy strain of military service against the Kaffirs and Zulus. In 1877, the Government decided to establish the Queen's authority in the Transvaal, and a commission was issued empowering Sir Theophilus Shepstone to take the necessary measures. The Boers resisted from the first. They armed and drilled for three years, and early in 1881 began their War of Independence by massacring a company of the 94th Regiment at Bronkhorst Spruit.

### THE TRANSVAAL WAR OF 1881.

This war has been described as "unfortunate and wretchedly misman-

aged." Certain it is that the British reverses endured in its progress are still a sad and sore memory to every patriotic Briton. The Boers were under Kruger, the present President; Joubert, the present Commandant-General; and Pretorius, who gave his name to the capital. By a series of accidents, the Boers found arrayed against them troops weak in numbers, mostly consisting of young and unseasoned soldiers, led by a general who paid with his own life the penalty of rashness and lack of judgment. The battle of Laing's Nek was fought on the 28th of January. General Colley, with 870 infantry, 170 horse and six guns, attacked from two to three thousand Boers holding a strong position in the pass. Our men were at an immense disadvantage, and the Boers displayed magnificent marksmanship. The fight at Ingogo River took place on the 8th of February. Two thousand Boers attacked our position for six hours; and though they were repulsed by General Colley, the British troops were forced to retire. The crowning disaster of the campaign, however, occurred on February 26th, when less than 150 Dutchmen stormed Majuba Hill, held by 400 British troops; and after a battle which lasted from seven in the morning until late in the forenoon, defeated the British with great loss. The Imperial Government poured overwhelming reinforcements into South Africa, and the complete subjugation of the Transvaal was imminent. On the 22nd of March, however, hostilities ceased, and Mr. Gladstone gave back the Transvaal to the Boers, permitting them complete self-government under the suzerainty of the British Crown. A treaty in 1884, the Convention of London, established the Boer Republic, with President Kruger at its head.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF THE BOER.

The old-fashioned Boers are an unprogressive race who detest change, and desire nothing better than to get beyond the view of their neighbour's chimney smoke. They are uncouth, surly and suspicious to strangers. They are still of pure European blood, and cling with simple faith to the teaching of their Bibles. They cherish with deep affection their wives and families, and still go about their herding and hunting and trekking in the old, slow, unconquerable, dogged spirit of their ancestors. They have been charged, not without reason, with treachery and cruelty, specially to the natives against whom they have warred, and whom they employ as servants. Usually they are big (six feet four inches being a common stature), heavy men, strongly built but ungainly in their movements, full of rude health and vigour. Sir Arthur Cunynghame says: "There are no finer young men in the world than the young Dutch Boers, who are generally of immense height and size, and are very hardy. Men more fit for the Grenadier Guards, as to personal appearance, could not be found." In remote places the Transvaal Boer lives much as his fathers did two hundred years ago. The ancient evening custom of washing the feet is still practised; the great Bible is solemnly read night and morning; corn is still trodden out by means of horses and mules, and winnowed by casting it in the air on a windy day. The Boer *vrouws* are described as excellent women, sharp in business matters, full of the strongest affection for their land and the people, and willing to endure all sorts of toil and privation. Lord Randolph Churchill speaks of the Boers as being without a glimmer of intelligence. He predicts that they will pass away unhonoured, unlamented, scarcely even remembered. He declares, not alto-



gether justly, that they never plant a tree, never dig a well, never make a road, and never grow a blade of corn. The magnitude of the Boer's services to South African civilization must, however, be acknowledged, and they must be admired for their determination and intrepidity in defence of their independence. The Republic has no standing army, with the exception of a small force of horse artillery, all able-bodied citizens between sixteen and sixty being called out in case of war. The burghers, who number about 15,000, provide their own rifle, horse, equipment and provisions.

#### THE UITLANDER.

Within five years of the establishment of the reconstituted Republic gold was discovered in the Witwatersrand region. In 1886, the site of Johannesburg was dotted with the roughly-constructed huts of miners who flocked into the district. In 1895, Johannesburg was a handsome well-built town with tramways, cabs, the electric light, and most of the resources of civilization. Its inhabitants numbered 60,000 adult male whites, mostly English-speaking

people. Last year the output of gold from this region alone was valued at £8,000,000 sterling. These Uitlanders (foreigners) are now the largest body in the State, and yet they are denied most of the rights of citizenship. The government of the country practically lies in the hands of twenty-five men, mainly of the original Boer section, who hold absolute power in their hands for a certain period. The Uitlander finds it most difficult to secure a vote, and even then he has no part or lot in the Executive Government. He pays the bulk of the taxes, and he dreads their employment to establish a military tyranny. He believes that the whole administration of the Transvaal needs purifying, and he kicks at the ancient patriarchal system of government which obtains. The formation of a Transvaal National Union, the issue of a manifesto, the armament of the inhabitants of Johannesburg, and the invitation to Dr. Jameson to cross the frontier and lend assistance in a rising need not be mentioned here. Neither need we dwell upon the tragedy wrought out at Krugersdorp on Sunday evening, December 29th of last year.—*Teacher's Aid.*

#### "SILK" MADE OF WOOD PULP.

THERE will shortly be started in Lancashire a new industry of a character so novel that the mention of it may appear to be suggestive of an absurdity rather than of sober truth. It will be one for nothing less than the manufacture of silk out of wood pulp. Dress and other fabrics made from this wood-silk are, indeed, already being sold extensively in London as among the leading features of this season's Paris novelties. At present the wood-silk comes from France, that it might be made

into a commercial success. Since then the demand for the new commodity has far surpassed the existing powers of manufacture. Some months ago the idea was mooted of adding to the number of our own industries by arranging to make the artificial silk in England as well. A number of silk and cotton manufacturers met to discuss the question, and finally sent out to Besançon a deputation consisting of some of their own number, an engineer, a chemist, and a lawyer to investigate the subject thoroughly.

This was done, and the outlook was found to be so promising that certain concessions have been secured, and a company is now in process of formation, and, to begin with, a factory, which will cost £30,000, is to be built near Manchester for the manufacture of artificial silk yarn from wood pulp, for sale to weavers, who will work it up by means of their existing machinery.

The way in which wood pulp can be converted into silk yarn will be best explained by a brief account of the process as it is already at work at Besançon. A certain economy of labor is practiced by obtaining the wood when it is in its "paper" or "cardboard" condition (though waste cotton may also be used), and the first operation is to macerate it in a solution of nitric and sulphuric acid. After this the acids are squeezed out by a hydraulic press, and the stuff is thoroughly cleansed in large vats of water. It is then partially dried, and afterwards left for some hours in a revolving cylinder containing alcohol and ether. After this it is passed through a filter, which it leaves looking very much like thick gum, and is next put into cylinders, from which it is forced by pneumatic pressure into pipes passing into the spinning department. Here the machinery looks like that employed in Lancashire spinning sheds, except that one of the pipes referred to runs along each set of machines. These pipes are supplied with small taps, fixed close together, and each tap has a glass tube, about the size of a gas burner, at the extreme point of which is an aperture so minute that of the filaments passing through no fewer than ten would be required to make up the thickness of a human hair. These glass tubes are known as "glass silkworms," and some 12,000 of them are in use in the factory.

The effect of the pneumatic press-

ure in the cylinders referred to above is to force the liquid matter not only along the iron tubes, but also, when the small taps are turned on, through each of the glass silkworms. It appears there as a scarcely perceptible globule. This a girl touches with her thumb, to which it adheres, and she draws out an almost invisible filament which she passes through the guides and on to the bobbin. Then, one by one, she takes eight, ten, or twelve other such filaments, according to the thickness of the thread to be made, and passes them through the same guides and on to the same bobbin. This done, she presses them together with her thumb and forefinger at a certain point between the glass silkworms and the guides. Not only do they adhere, but thenceforward the filaments will continue to meet and adhere at that point, however long the machinery may be kept running. In this way the whole frame will soon be set at work, the threads not breaking until the bobbin is full, when they break automatically, while they are all of a uniform thickness. The remaining processes are the same as in the case of ordinary silk, except in two respects. In the first place, the artificial silk has to be denitrified, so as to render it non-inflammable after the chemical processes it has undergone; and, in the next place, the hanks are placed on two revolving rollers, which stretch and also "iron" them, producing that high degree of lustre which is one of the chief characteristics of the artificial silk. The new product is said to take dye much more readily than the natural silk, and certainly the colors and the extreme richness of some specimens that have been on view in London seemed to leave nothing to be desired in this respect.

The chief difference in appearance between the natural and the artificial silk is in the greater lustre of the lat-

ter; though it will be found also that if a single thread of each is taken the artificial will "break" differently from the natural, and has only about 80 per cent. of its strength. There will probably be some sentimental regret that the silkworm itself, which has played so important a part in the clothing of the peoples of the Western world since the middle of the sixth century, should thus run the danger of being supplanted by liquefied timber, though the discovery that clothing can be made out of wood pulp is, after all, no more remarkable than that which was made by the Persian missionaries who visited China 1,300 years ago and learned, to their surprise, that garments could be made from the cocoons of a caterpillar.—*London Times.*

If thoughtful people perceive that much is lost to mankind collectively and individually, by neglecting to study and to practise the little courtesies of life, then let them not by negligence, and, as it were, unbeknown to themselves, permit these

habits to pass away without a struggle to maintain them. A true gentleman is naturally courteous—he could hardly be the reverse if he tried; but in these days, when so many lay claim to the title who possess few qualifications of gentility, it may be well to point out that a courteous manner is a quality which, especially in the present days of rudeness, possess a distinctly commercial value. However boorish we may be ourselves, we all appreciate civility and courtesy in others. If British boys and girls were taught to subordinate self, to respect their neighbors, and in non-essentials not run counter to their prejudices, we should probably in a few years find that although for political reasons Great Britain might still maintain that "splendid isolation" of which we have lately heard so much, her people were no longer disliked, but by their politeness and urbanity had won the respect and friendship of foreigners, and had thereby increased the influence of their country, and taken the most effective steps to diminish the chances of international misunderstandings.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

DEAR SIR,—Doubtless the examiners employed by the Education Department to prepare the mathematical papers for the year 1896 are grateful to you, even though they may not have made any demonstration of that gratitude, for the plea so considerably made by you on their behalf to extenuate, as far as may be, their misconception of what a fair examination paper should be. In this part of our educational machinery, whatever may be the correct explanation, there is a conspicuous weakness. Your editorial contains the suggestion that the cause of this unfortunate

state of affairs may be insufficient remuneration. That may be true, but the insufficient remuneration is not caused by lack of funds. It needs but little reflection on the part of any one who is concerned with education in Ontario to arrive at the conclusion that thousands of dollars must have been received by the Education Department this summer from candidates writing at the annual examinations. It would be interesting to know just what sum has been received by the Education Department in fees, and to what use this money has been put, interesting not merely to teach-

ers, but to students, and to the public at large, through the columns of your magazine I venture to ask the Department these questions. The examiners who prepared the mathematical papers may

have received less than good work was worth, but not because the candidates did not pay enough.

Yours, etc.,

HEADMASTER.

Ont., Sept. 21st, 1896.

### “WHAT CONSTITUTES A SECONDARY SCHOOL.”

BY PROFESSOR JAMES E. RUSSELL, UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

INVESTIGATION in the sphere of child psychology, tends to show that there is a decided change in the interests of children sometime about the twelfth or thirteenth year of age. Up to this time the child is acquisitive; he seeks to add to his store of knowledge and to his stock of possessions; he makes collections of birds' eggs, postage stamps, campaign buttons. Apparently his sole enjoyment is in the getting, rather than in its results. At about the age of twelve or thirteen, however, there appears the tendency to ask the all-important question, What is all this worth? He begins to seek the meaning of what he has done. He becomes, in short, speculative, philosophical. The child lives in a world essentially realistic; the world of the youth is essentially idealistic.

Contemporaneous with these changes in the mental life are the momentous physiological transformations which mark the beginning of the adolescent period. The individual comes into his inheritance, an embarrassment of riches, the acceptance of which involves weighty responsibilities. The important pedagogic consideration is the enormous accession of physical and psychical energy. What shall be done with it? This question the educator must answer. Failure to recognize that a new era has dawned in the history of the individual will inevitably result in

the fruitless dissipation of this priceless store or its expenditure along lines of doubtful benefit to all concerned. It is especially the duty of the secondary school to recognize the peculiar interests of the adolescent period and so to direct the expenditure of youthful energy that good may come instead of evil.

Our social order demands that every child shall be the better enabled through schooling to master his environment. The school that does not leave its pupils better equipped for their life-work by reason of its teachings is unworthy of public support. The secondary school is no exception; it, too, must fit for life. But the theory—unfortunately in the ascendancy at present—which prescribes for college admission high school courses which are intended to give in four years a well rounded, practical preparation for life, I believe to be thoroughly unpedagogical and utterly impracticable. It is impossible to devise a course of study for the high school which shall be at once the best possible preparation for college and for life. Pupils enter the secondary school intending to continue their studies for periods varying from one year to ten years. Will anyone say that the first four years of a ten years' course gives the best possible preparation for the future life of the high school graduate? On the other hand, there is something wrong

when a course of study naturally culminating at the end of four years is continued beyond that limit. On one theory alone can such things be explained, viz., that one and the same mill can grind out cooks and preachers all equally good. But this is no place to discuss the doctrine of formal discipline. In my opinion the American secondary school must go on multiplying courses (most likely by offering more elective studies) until every boy, and especially every girl, may find a course of study adapted to his or her peculiar needs, both in content and length of time.

The American secondary school, therefore, can recognize no distinctions of class or sex; it is for all who choose to enter therein. It cannot be defined according to length of curriculum; some of its courses may be only one year in length, and others may extend over six or eight years. Secondary education properly begins at twelve or thirteen years of age; it lasts until such time as the individual is able to take up independent work, whether it be in domestic life, in the trades, in business, or in the university. It includes, in my judgment, the last year or two of the grammar school, all of the high

school and a part of the college work. This is not saying that the high school should maintain courses of six or eight years in length; certain practical considerations must obviously be reckoned with in solving that problem. But it is evident that from the beginning of the period of secondary education to its end, there must be observed the strictest continuity both in the kind of work and the methods employed.

The secondary school, as I conceive it, is clearly differentiated from the continuation school, the technical school, the trade school, the commercial school, and all institutions of similar nature. It aims at the interpretation and unification of knowledge as well as its mere acquisition. At the same time it should give the youth the ability to use his knowledge for his own advancement, and the good of others. Neither a liberal education, nor formal discipline, nor yet practical training, should be the exclusive aim of the secondary school, but rather all these combined. Its highest aim is a liberal education by means of a discipline more or less formal, in order that the individual may be the better prepared for his life-work.—*Educational Review.*

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## FRIENDS OF SHAKESPEARE.

### MONUMENT TO CONDELL AND HEMINGE.

IN the churchyard of St. Mary the Virgin, Aldermanbury, there stands a monument, erected by Mr. Charles Cleznet Walker of Lilleshall, Old Hall, Shropshire, to the memory of John Heminge and Henry Condell, friends and fellow-actors of Shakespeare, who were buried in the little God's acre now hemmed in by lofty warehouses. The ceremony of the unveiling of this belated memorial by

the Lord Mayor was attended by a number of distinguished people, among them being the American Ambassador (Mr. Bayard), Lord Ronald Gower, Sir Henry Irving, Sir Theodore Martin, Sir Henry Knight, and Archdeacon Sinclair. The proceedings opened with a service in the church, after which the company proceeded to the monument, where Mr. Walker said he regretted that nothing

of the kind had hitherto been erected here to those two worthy men. The Lord Mayor, after a few remarks, then unveiled the statue, which is of Aberdeen red granite polished, with an open book of light grey granite, representing the famous first folio, one leaf of which has its quaint title page, "Mr. William Shakespeare's comedies, histories, and tragedies. Published according to the true original copies. London, 1623." On the opposite leaf is marked, "We have but collected them, and done an office to the dead . . . without ambition either of self-profit or fame; only to keep the memory of so worthy a Friend and Fellow alive, as was our Shakespeare. John Heminge. Henry Condell." Each of the four sides have a bronze tablet, that on the front reading—"To the memory of John Heminge and Henry Condell, fellow-actors and personal friends of Shakespeare. They lived many years in this parish and are buried here. To their disinterested affection the world owes all that it calls Shakespeare. They alone collected his dramatic writings regardless of pecuniary loss, and without the hope of any profit, gave them to the world. They thus merited the gratitude of mankind." On the left tablet is written:—"The fame of Shakespeare rests on his incomparable dramas. There is no evidence that he ever intended to publish them and his premature death in 1616 made this the interest of no one else. Heminge and Condell had been co-partners with him at the Globe Theatre, Southwark, and from the accumulated plays there of thirty-five years with great labour selected them. No men then living were so competent, having acted with him in them for many years, and well-knowing his manuscripts. They were published in 1623 in folio, thus giving away their private rights therein. What they did was priceless, for the

whole of his manuscripts, with almost all those of the drama of the period have perished." On the right tablet there is an extract from the preface to the first folio, and on the back there are brief biographies of the two men, with the quotation from the third act of "Henry VIII.," "Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy country's, thy God's, and Truth's." The monument is surmounted by a bust of Shakespeare.

The American Ambassador, who was loudly cheered by the crowd outside the church gates, said: This is a most interesting occasion to all who love the English tongue, to all who speak it, to all to whom the glories of English literature are dear. This monument is surmounted by the bust of a man of the most marvellous intellect the Almighty has sent to our race. He stands *facile princeps* the master-mind of English expression, and to-day there comes a note most grateful that would have been to no man more grateful than to the plain Englishman, William Shakespeare, that the unbought affection, the disinterested service and love of two of those who were his working-day companions, should rescue from oblivion and loss so large a part of those immortal works that otherwise, I fear, we never should have known. There is a great deal that is passing and fugitive in life. There is a great deal that is permanent in human nature, and here we have the souls of those two uniting themselves at the end of three centuries with that of the generous donor of this monument. Talk of the vicissitudes of things, where is there anything clearer, plainer, or more delightful and reassuring than in the touch of the spirit of these men long dead, and of him who is now living to bring them to the honorable memory of mankind? It would not be well on such an occasion as this that the voice of America, of the people of the Unit-

ed States should not be articulately heard in chorus and in unison with the people in this country. I have said at another time and place that there were some things incapable of division. The glories of our common literature cannot be divided. (Cheers.) They must be shared. They are stronger on either side of the

Atlantic because they are shared on both sides. Therefore there is a patriotic tie on each side which touches the heart of each man who loves either country or who loves both countries, when we take the master-mind of the literature of our common tongue.—*The London Chronicle.*

## WHAT TREES SHALL WE PLANT ?

**W**HITE pine will make merchantable timber much sooner than is generally believed, and instances are not wanting to show that under favorable circumstances trees of this variety thirty years old have yielded good marketable timber. In fact the white pine is a rapid-growing tree and a valuable tree to plant, the principal drawback to its merits in this respect being the amount of care required in the earlier stages of its growth.

The shellbark hickory is among the most desirable trees to plant for profit for the reason that it can be harvested when comparatively young, and its nuts are marketable. If planted close together the young trees taken out in thinning have a value for carriage work. One cut of a hickory tree six inches in diameter will make about twelve or fourteen spokes. In small trees of say four inches diameter, the first two cuts are used for spokes, the rest for head blocks and other parts of carriages. Prof. Budd, of Iowa, advises planting the nuts of the hickory where the trees are intended to remain. If planted for forest trees and not for nut-bearing purposes alone, the same authority advises planting the nuts eight feet apart each way with plenty of larch or tamarack seedlings between to act as nurse trees to the hickory. As they grow up the larch may be cut away and

sold. The price paid by the makers of carriage wheels for hickory—which is now all imported from the United States—is such as to afford a return equal to from twelve to fifteen dollars per cord. The hickory grows best on a rich, deep fertile soil, and while it will succeed on ordinary land should not be planted upon sandy or sterile soil.

Among other valuable trees to plant in view of the increasing demand for their timber for manufacturing purposes are the black ash, rock elm and black cherry.

Black walnut is also extremely valuable, but it takes a long time to mature. Prof. Sargent estimates that a hundred years of growth would be necessary to make it merchantable timber, as the young wood has not that rich, dark color that gives it its great value, although it seems to us this is an outside estimate.

The hard maple, although principally appreciated for its sugar product and as fuel, is also a valuable timber tree. It is used almost exclusively in the manufacture of shoe lasts, and is exported largely to Britain, where it is manufactured into mangle rollers and other articles. One firm in Ontario exported 100,000 maple blocks for mangle rollers in a year. It is also a tree of fairly rapid growth, and if planted close will make good timber that will not be materially in-

jured by several seasons of tapping for sugar, while for fuel it is among the very best of our native woods. The soft maple, while favored by bee-keepers on account of its flowers, is not so valuable as a timber tree, and is shorter lived.

Of the evergreens, next to the white pine in value for planting is the Norway spruce. For the purposes of shelter or as a windbreak it is very valuable, while its comparatively rapid growth—it grows more rapidly than our native spruces—makes it a valuable timber tree if planted in forest.

The basswood or linden is another of our most suitable trees for planting. It is a rapid grower, its wood is much prized by carriage, cabinet, piano and

organ makers, while its flowers furnish our bees with the choicest honey. Principally because of this latter feature one of our most prominent apiarists, Mr. Allan Pringle, of Selby, has planted this tree quite extensively, as has also Mr. Thomas Conant, of Oshawa, who, however, regards the black walnut as the more valuable tree to plant.

The white elm, or rock elm; one of our most graceful and best shade trees which for streets is becoming yearly more valuable. The demand for the best quality of timber for the rims of bicycle wheels has assumed large proportions and makes it a valuable tree to plant. It is also used largely for waggon hubs.—*Report of the Clerk of Forestry.*

## TOBACCO AND THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

CERTAIN American universities have entered, says the *British Medical Journal*, on a campaign against tobacco as being injurious, not only to the physical health, but to the intellectual development of students. The authorities of the Boston University have issued an ordinance that those students who are unwilling to forego the use of tobacco while within the precincts of the university will have their fees returned, and be required to take their names off the books. The Ohio Wesleyan University has made a rule forbidding its students to use tobacco in any form. Other universities have also set their faces more or less decisively against the seductive herb. Several attempts have been made in the higher educational institutions of the United States to put the question as to the effects of tobacco on academic youth to a statistical test. In 1891 the official physician of Yale published the results of observations

made on the undergraduates of that university. In a class of 147 students he found that in four years seventy-seven who did not use tobacco surpassed the seventy who did use it to the extent of 10.4 per cent. in increase of weight, 24 per cent. in increase of height, and 26.7 per cent. in increase of chest girth. The most marked difference was, however, in point of lung capacity, the abstainers showing an average gain of 77.5 per cent. more than smokers or chewers. Among the undergraduates at Amherst it was found that during the four years of the *status pupillaris* the abstainers from tobacco gained 24 per cent. more in weight, 37 per cent. more in height, 42 per cent. more in chest girth, and 75 per cent. more in lung capacity than their weaker brethren who fell into the toils of "My Lady Nicotine." The larger relative increase in growth and vital capacity among the Amherst students as compared with those of Yale is accounted



for by the fact that the former are on the average younger than the latter, and therefore more susceptible to injurious influences.

As regards the effects of tobacco on the intellectual powers, Professor Fisk found on dividing a class at Yale into four sections representing different degrees of proficiency, the highest section was composed almost entirely of non-smokers and the lowest almost entirely of smokers. We do not know (continues the *Journal*) of any similar statistics from the colleges and universities of other countries; but the figures as to Yale and Amherst are certainly striking. They only place in a more vivid light, however, a fact as to which, we take it, there is no dispute—to wit, that under the age of twenty smoking is likely to stunt the growth and hinder the development of the body, including the brain. As regards Professor Fisk's experiment of sectional classification, we are doubtful whether there may not be some confusion between cause and effect. Besides the question of intellectual

capacity, another factor has here to be taken into account. As a general rule students who do not smoke are more industrious than those who do. It is not necessarily, however, because they do not smoke that they work harder; it is rather because they are industrious that they do not smoke. Dr. Johnson said that tobacco was conducive to laziness because it gave a man the feeling that he was doing something when he was doing nothing. We know, of course, that some of the hardest and most productive workers in every field of intellectual activity smoke from morning till night; these, however, are heroes not to be imitated by men of common mould. Besides, as Balzac said of the heroes who had fallen victims to love, it might be argued that the great men who smoke would be still greater if they eschewed tobacco. However this may be, there can be no doubt that for heroes, as well as for ordinary men who are still in the making, the less they have to do with tobacco the better.

### THE GROWTH OF MANITOBA.

THE figures of the recent census of Manitoba, now given to the public, make the population of the Province 193,425. This is hardly as large a figure as the Provincial authorities claimed would be reached, but census counts in the West seldom do equal the claims of the local enthusiasts. It indicates, however, a fairly satisfactory rate of growth. Since 1871 the census returns show the Province's population to have advanced as follows:—

1871 .....	18,995
1881 .....	62,260
1891 .....	152,506
1896 .....	193,425

It is the fashion in some quarters to complain of the slow growth of the Canadian Northwest. It certainly has not been as rapid as the enthusiasts anticipated, but this may be the fault of the enthusiasts quite as much as of the country. The proper test of growth in a case such as Manitoba's is by comparison with other places of like size and similarly situated. One of these is North Dakota. It has a slightly larger area than Manitoba, and it was traversed by the railroad before Manitoba was. It adjoins Manitoba. It has practically the same soil and climate as Manitoba has, and it seeks to attract the same class

of people to its borders. Between 1880 and 1890, the United States census years, it developed much more rapidly than did Manitoba. One reason of this was that it was not till 1885 rail communication with Manitoba was established through Canadian territory. But since 1890 the State has no practical advantage over the Province. In 1890 the census population of North Dakota was 182,719. At the beginning of 1896, according to the estimate of the State authorities, printed in the *World Almanac*, it was 225,000. The growth

claimed was under 43,000. The growth ascertained by count in the case of Manitoba was 40,919. North Dakota has slightly the largest territory; it had the largest population to draw to; it had the largest national migrating population to draw from. By numbers of increase Manitoba all but kept pace with it; by percentage Manitoba exceeded its growth. There could be no fairer comparison than between the Province and such a State as North Dakota and by such a comparison Manitoba is shown to have done well. —*Galt Reporter*.

## SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

MR. CRAIK'S report for this year to the Scottish Education Department on the inspection of higher class schools and the examination for Leaving Certificates has just been issued. From the report, which is dated Aug. 5, we take the following:

"The higher schools inspected under your lordships' authority are seventy-four in number, of which thirty are higher class public schools under the management of School Boards, twenty-four are endowed schools, and the remainder are schools under private management—whether that of a governing body or a proprietor. As regards the results of inspection, I am able to report, as last year, that the cases, of which instances were to be found in the earlier years of inspection, where a school had become thoroughly inefficient by defects in methods or by unwillingness to deal courageously with a system which required radical reform, have practically disappeared. I have again to report a large increase in the number of candidates presented for examination. It increased from 13,173 last year to 15,735 this

year, and the number of separate papers worked by these candidates was 48,027, as against 39,966 last year. Of these 20,118 papers represented 5,088 candidates from seventy higher class schools, and the remainder (27,909 papers worked by 10,647 candidates) were taken by pupils from 259 higher departments of State-aided schools and by pupil teachers. The work of issuing the certificates (nearly 20,000 in number) has now been completed. There has been a slight reduction in the proportion of passes obtained when all the subjects are reckoned. This result is not, however, surprising, when the large increase in the number of candidates is borne in mind; and although it has been our object not only to maintain, but, as far as possible, to raise, the standard of the examination, the result is not due to any marked or undue raising of the standard this year. It is impossible to resist the conclusion, which is confirmed by the reports received from several of the revisers, that candidates continue to be sent in who have not reached anything like the required standard, and that some school

managers and teachers have scarcely realized what that standard is. The decreased percentage of passes does not apply to all subjects alike. In English there has been an increase in the percentage of passes, the presentations being 10,085, in place of 8,704 last year. In German, with no very material increase in presentations, there has been a decrease in the percentage of passes. In French, with 26 per cent. of increase in presentations, the percentage of passes has fallen off by 6. The presentations in Greek decreased from 865 to 848; while the percentage of passes has risen from 54 to 64. In Latin, with an increased presentation, the percentage of passes has risen from 56 to 60. Apart from the percentage of passes, the reports received from all

those who have taken part in the revision show that there are some features of improvement accompanying the very large increase in the number of candidates. The examination has evidently commended itself to school authorities and teachers in Scotland, as is proved by the fact that all the higher class schools in Scotland, with a very small number of exceptions, present candidates for the certificate. As a result of this, it would appear that the candidates on the whole continue to rise to the standard, and that their industry is stimulated by the desire to gain what is an object of ambition. It is especially gratifying to find that general improvement is visible in what were formerly alluded to as weak points."  
—*Education.*

#### ENCOURAGE THE SCHOOL TEACHER.

THERE are many heart-sick school teachers in this city whose work would be lightened by a few words of appreciation from parents whose children have been the subjects of deep anxiety through the long term, and who have had the best care and training which the teachers are capable of imparting. Unfortunately there are few parents who ever give the matter sufficient thought to realize what they owe to the school teacher. One who leaves himself or herself open to censure is not long in getting it. In such cases the parents have a lively appreciation of their rights, and they are not slow in letting the dominie know what they think of him. It is pretty hard for him to swallow, but he takes his medicine quietly, as a rule, and that is the best thing to do. But parents who are quick to resent the exercise of undue authority by the teacher rarely, if ever, think of the infinite patience and forbearance that

is necessary in the training of children, and as a result they do not—as a rule—make allowance for the human nature in the teacher. They expect him to be infallible. Parents who cannot train two or three children in their homes have only condemnation for a teacher if he or she fails to manage sixty or seventy, and teach them the three R's whether they will or no. Another class of parents—and they form the majority—do not think of it. They would express their satisfaction if the teacher came to them, but it is too much trouble to go to the teacher or to write him a note.

If parents but knew the encouragement the men and women who teach would derive from a frank acknowledgment of the value of their services and an expression of gratitude for the patience exercised towards their children, thousands of them would hasten to thank those who have been faithful to their duty. It

would also inspire them to fresh exertions in behalf of those committed to their care.—*Evening News, Toronto.*

From the Board School up to the Mathematical Tripos, our educational system is overloaded with examina-

tions which develop little but the receptive faculties, frequently strain them to breaking point, and finally turn the unhappy student loose upon a world in which he has to forget most of what he has learned, or to relearn it in new forms and relations.

### THE MODERN WOMAN.

THE day when fragility of frame and lack of bodily health were considered the correct conditions of refined womanhood has happily passed. The fin-de-siecle young woman is a girl of fine physique. Like her brother, she has been trained in gymnasiums. She no longer laces herself with a bodice of steel, like the girl of a century ago. Nor is the wholesome, every-day girl of the present time addicted to the use of cordials and various other stimulants so commonly mentioned in the works of a century ago as the household remedies for fainting women. Much as we may prate of the good old days, and of the homely customs of our grandmothers, and talk of the herculean tasks they accomplished, it is wise to investigate critically exactly what their daily tasks were, and how they met them, before passing judgment as to their superiority over the women of to-day.

But great as the intellectual advance has been, it is in no way commensurate with the advance in physical health. The athletic young woman is as much a product of modern society as the college-bred girl. With the broadening of the intellect there has naturally come a demand for strong physical health, to meet the demands of study. Fainting is virtually an old-fashioned disease. It is almost as rare for a woman to faint to-day as it is for a man. Yet in olden times it was considered the proper thing for a woman to faint at

any shocking occurrence, and even on most trivial occasions. The presence of a mouse, a run-away accident, the news of a tragedy, the death of a friend, one and all were occasions when, according to novelists, the average woman dropped into a swoon, and the crisis was left to the care of their masculine protectors or of the maid-servants of the time, who were fortunately superior to this weakness. The young lady of feeble appetite and of a languid courage and pallid cheeks was the ideal of fashion.

The ridicule of literature and the advance of common sense has long ago dispelled the illusion that ill-health was synonymous with refinement. We are beginning to have the true idea of the matter, and to look upon the presence of pallor, languid manners, and feeble appetite as indications of disease, and therefore repulsive. The young women of to-day affect nearly all the athletic exercise of their brothers. They enjoy boating, long country tramps, driving, skating, and all out-door exercises.

It has been proved by statistics that the children of college-bred women stand a better chance of surviving the ills of infancy than those of others. This is undoubtedly largely the result of the more intelligent care that the child of the educated woman receives, but it is also due to the strong physical health of the athletic woman.

The wisest people of the present day

believe that the highest intellectual development of the individual must be consonant with his highest physical condition—not that we must crucify the flesh in order to give scope to the life of the intellect and the spirit. Modern Christianity is a vital and a practical force, not a sentiment. The deaconess of the nineteenth century, which is the highest type we have of the pale æsthetic sisterhoods of mediæval ages, is a woman of classic education, trained in the gymnasium as well as in household cares and hospi-

tal duties, who brings the breadth of her culture and the gentleness of her womankind to her Christian work. Charity with her is not merely a graceful ornament, but a practical work, which calls forth all the powers of her nature. She is so trained physically that she does not faint or fail when duty calls her. The same courage and strength are needed in the family, and the mother who faints in emergencies has no place in the present age of usefulness.—*New York Tribune.*

#### ENGLISH UNIVERSAL.

**T**HE *Educational News* presents the following facts and figures concerning the English language: "Three centuries ago it was employed by less than 3,000,000 people; to-day it is spoken by over 115,000,000 people in all parts of the globe, and is constantly increasing, both as to population and territory. At present it is distributed as follows: United States, 65,000,000; British Islands, 38,000,000; Canada, exclusive of French Canadians, 4,000,000; West Indies, British Guiana, etc., 1,500,000; Australasia, 4,000,000; South Africa, India and other colonies, 2,500,000. This includes only those whose mother-tongue is English, no account being taken of the vast number who speak English, but who have another tongue. The increase of English speakers is calculated to be fully 2,000,000 annually. No other language of modern times has made such rapid progress. Three hundred years ago the 3,000,000 people who spoke English resided principally on the British Isles. Now it is spoken more or less in nearly every country on the face of the earth.

"The principal languages which compete with English, not consider-

ing such as Chinese and Hindostanee, are French, Spanish, Russian and German. French is practically stationary as regards the number of its adherents; Spanish is largely spoken in South America and the southern part of North America, but it owes its prominence to the colonizing genius of its speakers; where German is introduced it rapidly gives way to the native tongue. Russian, like the German, has little influence upon the Western civilization. It is a remarkable fact that while the English in their colonies and offshoots have absorbed millions of aliens, there is no record of any great body of English speakers having become absorbed by any other race. In the United States there are millions of Germans and other foreigners who have become merged with the English in a single generation, they losing even their family names; and the children in many cases do not understand their parents' language. In Canada, however, the French-speaking population in Quebec is increasing faster than the English-speaking. This is not because the French element absorbs the English, but because it crowds it out. While the French is seldom absorbed by any other tongue, it is

almost always absorbed by the English.

"The English has practically driven the French out of Egypt, and it is rapidly driving the Dutch out of Africa. This has been accomplished in Egypt within a dozen years. The change in Africa is being effected with even greater rapidity. As the English-speaking settlers rush into the new country, the Dutch and other languages, which are rarely to be met with, drop into the backwoods and are finally lost."

To appreciate what a gain of even a few hundred miles means, let us look at the records made during the past 300 years, as compiled by General Greely, and with Dr. Nansen's added :

## EASTERN HEMISPHERE.

Year.	Explorer.	Latitude.
1594.	William Barents .....	77° 20'
1596.	Ryp and Heemskerck .....	79° 49'
1607.	Henry Hudson .....	80° 23'
1773.	J. C. Phipps .....	80° 48'
1806.	William Scoresby .....	81° 30'
1827.	W. E. Parry .....	82° 45'
1868.	Nordenskjold and O'er .....	81° 42'
1874.	Weyprecht and Payr .....	82° 05'
1895.	Dr. Nansen .....	86° 15'

## WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

Year.	Explorer.	Latitude.
1587.	John Davis .....	72° 12'
1607.	Henry Hudson .....	73°
1616.	William Baffin .....	77° 45'
1852.	E. A. Inglefield .....	78° 21'
1854.	E. K. Kane .....	80° 10'
1870.	C. F. Hall .....	82° 11'
1871.	C. F. Hall .....	82° 07'
1875.	G. S. Nares .....	83° 48'
1876.	G. S. Nares .....	83° 20'
1882.	A. W. Greely .....	85° 24'

When this table is examined carefully, it will be seen that Dr. Nansen's feat is little short of stupendous. As far back as 1596 the latitude of 80 had been approached, and four centuries gained only about as many degrees as Nansen has gained over the best of his predecessors. The expedition of Lieut. Greely gained only three miles over that of Nares, yet it was regarded as a stupendous feat, and no one has approached it for 14 years. Now Dr. Nansen at one effort goes nearly 200 miles farther north, and has left only 226 miles between the limit of exploration and the pole. Who shall say now that the North Pole will never be reached?—*Springfield Republican*.

## NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

The following embodies the opinion of The Synod of the Church of England in Canada on the subject of religious instruction in the schools: 1. (a) That it is essential, both for the community and the children, that there should be religious instruction in the primary schools. (b) That a half hour each school day, and, if possible, the first half hour, should be given to such religious instruction. (c) That reasonable arrangements should be made for such religious instruction being given by the clergy, or their deputies, to the children of their own communion, or by the teacher in case of communions agreeable to

this. (d) That when the above cannot be carried out, we shall rejoice at the introduction into the "school course of studies" of such religious instruction as shall include the teaching of: (1) Selections from the Old and New Testament, inclusive of the Lord's Prayer and the Ten Commandments; and (2), if practicable, the Apostles' Creed.

2. (a) That the dioceses in which there are non-denominational universities be requested to report what measures be taken in order that the students belonging to the Church of England shall be under its care during their attendance at the university.

(b) That they be further requested to report whether the daily work of the university is begun with prayer.  
 (c) That similar information be supplied with regard to Normal and High schools.

3. That it is most desirable that an educational fund be established, to be raised in such manner as the Synod may determine, for the educational work of the Church, the said fund to be managed and distributed by the General Synod.—*Evangelical Churchman,*

VALUE OF PHYSIOLOGICAL EXPERIMENT.—Man's first duty is to those of his own species. If wild beasts endanger the life of his wife or child, it becomes his duty to kill them by any means in his power, let the suffering be what it must. This is man's first step in the conquest of any country. And when he has rid the earth of the fierce carnivora, it becomes his duty to kill such members of the herbivora as will enable the rest to obtain food and enjoy life. This surplus man has always utilized for food and clothing. All this, however, is but his first step. He must tend herds and till the soil to support as many as possible of his own species. Even then his work is but just begun. If disease threaten the life of his child, is his duty any different? Certainly not. It is as much his duty to exterminate the disease as to destroy the wild beast. To subdue the earth, "and have dominion over . . . every living thing that moveth upon the earth," was one of God's first and highest commands to man; and it includes microbes as well as lions and tigers. At just this point we are met with the argument that there is no moral proportion between the amount of suffering caused by vivisection and the advantage gained. "Suppose it is capable of proof," says Lord Coleridge, "that by put-

ting to death with hideous torment three thousand horses you could find out the real nature of some feverish symptom, I should say, without the least hesitation that it would be unlawful to torture the horses." Accepting the proportion as stated, we will have: Torture of three thousand horses is to knowledge of real nature of feverish symptom as power gained by such knowledge is to prevention of death annually from splenic fever, we will say, of many millions of cattle, horses, and sheep, and thousands of men in Europe. There is no very exact "proportion" between end and means, but Nature is too generous to insist on exact "proportions" when men study her laws aright. The difficulty with good people who reason out this "proportion" is that they fail to grasp the stupendous size of the problems involved, the whole world over, and through all time. France alone is estimated to lose sheep to the value of four million dollars annually from splenic fever, and in one district, Beauce, one hundred and eighty-seven thousand sheep are killed annually by it. In Russia, during 1857, it was reported that one hundred thousand horses perished from the disease. In other epidemics the losses within small districts reach tens of thousands, and in one a thousand people caught the disease and perished.—*Prof. C. F. Hodge, in September Popular Science Monthly.*

It was considered in the ancient world something derogatory to receive pay for teaching. Teaching was considered a privilege, and the lot of the teacher was half divine in its elevation; to teach for hire was to degrade the teacher's office. As a matter of fact, the teacher of children occupies a position almost prophetic or priestly. This is especially the case when he does his duty in fostering "the religious feeling" among his pu-

pils. The solemn responsibilities of the school teacher place him so nearly in a level with the clergy that at the last meeting of convocation a resolution was passed, after being warmly supported by Canon Lowe, Provost of the famous Woodward schools, to the effect that teachers of boys should be encouraged to take Holy Orders. We are not inclined to narrow the teaching profession by suggesting that none but clergymen should have the charge of schools; it is probable that most teachers act in their sphere with the same unselfish devotion which the clerical calling demands; but we do believe that mercenary motives should not be the only motives in the managers and officers of boarding and day schools, and that all such members of the profession should consider that the highest reward of their labours must lie in the good they do for the Church as well as the State. The highest work can never be done from the lowest motive, hence the reason why the best Athenians were more influenced by the teaching of Socrates than by the teaching of Gorgias. The teacher's profession requires something like a consecration of life to render it fully operative for good. It requires constant patience and self-control to "be tender to dulness as to every form of poverty." It requires enthusiasm unquenchable, hope that often seems visionary, love that is often called upon for many little sacrifices and sometimes for great sacrifices in teaching and training the young, the weak, the ignorant. Yet there is abundant reward in this as in every lofty profession. The teacher is a power for good or a power for evil; he has the best opportunities for diffusing over many minds his own convictions, and for comparing and multiplying in power of usefulness stores of his own knowledge. Greatest of all his opportunities is that of teaching to the young by his

word and example the love of what is high and holy. If this opportunity be neglected, the object of a teacher's life is missed, and he has built his work, not on the rock of truth and stability, but on the sand of human willfulness, weakness, and error.—*The Churchman.*

A lady who had unusual success in country schools was once employed to take charge of a Cleveland school which two successive teachers had failed to control. Nothing was said to her respecting the condition of the school, and she took charge of it, anticipating a pleasant experience in teaching in the city. At noon she returned to her boarding place in tears, and said to her brother that she could do nothing with the boys, and had made up her mind to resign and go back into the country. "I have done my best to interest the boys," she added, "and they have simply run over me. Boys have gone head-first out of the windows this morning and back again, whistling at me." "Do not think of resigning, Mary," said the brother, "but go back and put your school in order and give the boys a lesson in prompt obedience. Ask them to rise quietly at the beck of your hand. If a boy fails to respond, attend to him." "Shall I whip?" asked the troubled teacher. "Whip? Yes, if necessary," said the brother, "and I will furnish the whips. Your school is in rebellion." She sighed, but took the whips furnished, and returned to her school to try the experiment. She came back at the close of school with a look of victory on her face. "Well, Mary," said the brother, "what kind of a school did you have this afternoon?" "I had an excellent school," she replied, "the last hour." "What of the first hour?" said the brother. "I do not like to say." "Did you whip?" "Whip? I whipped a half-dozen boys the first twenty



minutes, but they toed the mark after that. I am going to have a beautiful school." That lady taught in the schools of Cleveland until she went to her reward, and she never whipped another pupil. It is a good many years since the writer gave the above advice, but he would give it to-day under like circumstances.—*E. E. White.*

THE DEPTH OF THE SEA.—Small boys often ask their parents, "How deep is the sea?" The answer depends entirely upon the sea. The following table, compiled by one who has investigated, may help one to the solution of one of the small boy's problems. Average depth in yards: Pacific, 4,252; Atlantic, 4,026; Indian, 3,653; Antarctic, 3,000; Arctic, 1,690; Mediterranean, 1,476; Irish, 240; English Channel, 110; Adriatic, 45; Baltic, 43.—*Harper's Round Table.*

THE BIBLE.—Hall Caine attributes his success in literature, in part, to the fact that he has always been a great reader of the Bible. Robert Harborough Sherrard, in an interesting sketch of the author of "The Manxman," in *McClure's Magazine*, quotes him as saying: "I think that I know my Bible as few literary men

know it. There is no book in the world like it, and the finest novels ever written fall far short in interest of the stories it tells."

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.—Said Bishop Spaulding before the N.E.A.: "I have noticed that we are proud of our school-buildings. I do not care about that. I want to know what kind of life is fostered there. I say that many of these factory-like structures thwart the cause of education. I say the little country school-house, discolored, and no larger than a dry goods box, is a better place for education than the barracks of our city school life. The nearer we get to nature the closer we get to truth. City life is decadent, and it would die out if it were not constantly augmented from the country. I tell you how to educate city children is a serious problem. We wear out the teachers and make a herd rather than an aggregation of individuals." And again: "We shall never get the best schools until we get the best talent, and we shall never get the best talent until we can offer better inducements. It is wise to turn our attention to the professional improvement of the teachers. But let us also work for better inducements and more independence." And the Bishop is right.—*The Popular Educator.*

### FIRST PLACES

The truth which draws  
Through all things upwards; that a two-fold world  
Must go to a perfect cosmos.

Natural things  
And spiritual,—who separates those two  
In art, in morals, or the social drift  
Tears up the bond of nature and brings death,  
Paints futile pictures, writes unreal verse,  
Leads vulgar days, deals ignorantly with men,  
Is wrong, in short, at all points.

—ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING.

## EDITORIAL NOTES.

## LABOR.

The late difficulty experienced by the authorities of the Canadian Pacific Railway concerns school-teachers of Canada very much. The prime origin of the difficulty was that the train despatchers or telegraphers refused to recognize the subordinate managers of the line. In the interest of the public and for the more ready and convenient transaction of business, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company has found, what men have in all ages found, that there must be an orderly way of attending to the affairs of the "line." Hence, if any one of the men employed should wish to point out what appears to him to be a grievance he first states his difficulty to the superintendent of the division in which he is working.

This official considers the case and reports to headquarters on the matter complained of, giving in his report the facts, and his opinion, no doubt, on the merits of the case. The telegraphers ignored this routine of business, and went direct to headquarters. The chief officials of the company referred the men to their divisional superintendents; the telegraphers refused to do this and went out on strike. The question of grievances did not emerge at all; simply the question of order. The strike took place at nine o'clock on a Monday night.

The train despatchers left their very responsible positions without any warning to the company, and by so doing left trains running on the company's line from the Atlantic to the Pacific without any effective guidance, to the serious danger of loss to property, and to the no less serious danger to the lives of Her Majesty's subjects throughout the whole of Canada.

Let our readers think of the situation for a few minutes, and they will gradually realize the gravity of the case. The so-called "block system," adopted years ago by the company, was the guardian angel which watched over the lives of thousands of our fellow subjects on that Monday night in September, '96. We lightly pass by the loss of property, the ruin of the C.P.R.; the country, perhaps, might again recover the loss of property, but what about the lives of thousands of Canadians which would have been hurled from us as waste material by a most culpable act of men hitherto respected and trusted.

When did selfishness for self make such an exhibition? It is almost incredible, that such want of consideration could be shown for the most precious interests of others.

And this in civilized, Christian Canada, a part of our British Empire. We write the lines with regret. The reports which come to us since the strike took place rather deepen the shadow around the grievous crime than add the silver lining.

Three facts have been forced upon the attention of the responsible officials of the railway by this strike: (1) the number of good applicants for their work from all over America as far south as Kentucky; (2) the organized labor societies or brotherhoods among us are in the hands of similar societies in the United States of America; (3) the incredible lack of recognition of moral obligation shown by the men. Facts (2) and (3), especially (3), are the serious points for us to carefully consider, and, if possible, suggest a remedy.

The development of labor unions has been commented upon for generations, and as the earth becomes smaller, owing to the great increase

of facilities for transport, we rather think that the closer union of workmen is inevitable, and will have to be more seriously recognized than heretofore ; and will prove an advantage if the mass of men is thoroughly leavened with the life principles of society, one of which is : " As ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them likewise." On the same principle may be put thus :

" Freedom is the power by which men can do what does not interfere with the rights of another ; its basis is nature ; its standard is justice ; its protection is law ; its moral boundary is the maxim : ' Do not unto others what you do not wish they should do unto you.' "—*French Constitution* (1793).

#### EDUCATION AND CRIME.

The *Toronto Globe*, taking occasion from some remarks in a recent issue of *The Canada Presbyterian*, apparently deprecates the idea that the persistence and prevalence of crime are a standing reflection on our public school system, and apparently suggests the idea that the public schools cannot reasonably be expected to do more for the teaching of morality than they are doing. We say " apparently " in each case, for the article is so little decided in tone as to make one wonder why it was written, unless it was to emphasize *The Presbyterian's* remark, that " it makes thoughtful men uncomfortable to feel that they cannot emphatically deny the charge brought against our educational system, that it is morally a failure."

The number of teachers engaged in our public schools, both elementary and secondary—including Roman Catholic separate schools, which are also " public"—is about 10,000. There are no trustworthy data which go to show that the moral

training in the separate schools is either better or worse than the similar training in other state schools, and therefore it is quite legitimate to lump them altogether. We have no disposition to deny that the collective influence of these 10,000 teachers is morally very great, and that the resultant is in the right direction, but we do question most earnestly whether that influence is as great as it should be. A few statistics from reports of inspectors of prisons will not set this question at rest. In spite of some superficial signs of improvement, close observers of social conditions are able to allege, with a show of truth, that the state school system is morally a comparative failure.

We accept the *Globe's* implication, that systematic teaching of morals in the form of scholastic lessons is not the best way to mould character in the pupils. We accept also its explicit contention that the best way to secure moral training is to put children into the hands of teachers of the right sort whose own daily life will be an epistle known and read of all the pupils, and whose discipline will be permeated by principles so sound, and will be enforced by sanctions so reasonable yet inevitable, that a moral training of the most valuable kind will be the incidental result. We accept also its explanation of the failure of the system, so far as it is due to the replacement of veteran teachers who made school management a life-work, by young men and women who make it a stepping-stone to some other calling. We accept, lastly, its admission that this evil is to a large extent unavoidable in places where population is sparse and it is hard to make a living. But this does not end the matter. If there is a moral failure we are still bound not only to look for its causes, but to try to furnish a remedy for the admitted evil. What is most needed just now is full and frank discussion,

and not a cry of "peace, peace," where there is no peace. Administer no opiates to the public conscience in the form of glorification of our great educational system, but persistently dwell on its defects with a view to bringing about a better state of affairs.

The *Globe's* implied contention, that the Education Department has done its whole duty in the matter, by enjoining the teachers "to impress the lesson of right and wrong upon the children whenever the opportunity occurs," suggests a further remark. No close observer can deny that an all pervading educational ideal must have either a good or a bad moral effect, according as it is high and ennobling or unworthy and debasing. Now, probably without intention on the part of any one, the ideal most widespread and persistent among our teachers, pupils and parents, is that of passing a prescribed examination. The student in the university succeeds when, after passing a series of examinations, he gets his degree. The pupil in the secondary school succeeds if he passes one or more of a similar graded series. The pupil in the upper classes of the elementary school succeeds if he passes the entrance or leaving examination. The pupil in the lower classes succeeds if he passes an uniform promotion examination. If he fails to pass one of this long chain of examinations he has failed altogether, and his teacher is regarded by the tax-paying public as unfit for his place. No account is taken of moral character in this test of teacher and pupil; none can, in the nature of things, be taken.

It was not always so. There was a time in this Province when the work of teaching was done chiefly by men of experience; when the teacher had liberty to train his pupils for something else than an examination test; when

the pupil had leisure to imbibe culture by the way while going through a course of study that was quite flexible, and was largely controlled by the teacher; and when children remained in school, or came back to it from time to time, until they became young men and women, old enough to take up for themselves the battle of practical life. In those days there was time for systematic reading and study of the Bible, and it was read and studied in many a public school. There was time to become interested in the great men and women of history. There was time to become fond of good literature, and commit some of it to memory.

If the programme is too crowded for all this now, whose fault is it? Programmes are supposed to be framed to pupils and schools, and to be made rational and helpful. To say that real culture, including what is moral, is made difficult by an overcrowding of the school course, is as severe an indictment of the Education Department as could well be formulated. Is it true? If it is, then the work of educational reform must be commenced from above rather than from below.—*Canada Presbyterian.*

RASCALITY.—About a hundred years from now—it may be two hundred—the people will have learned that the person who possesses the power to mould youth aright is the greatest of all. To influence to a noble life—that is indeed great. Just now we are thinking of scholarship in the teacher and the pupil. Even now a good many are beginning to doubt the free school system. The halls of Congress and state legislatures are full of men who have what the free schools have done for them, and there is more rascality to the square acre than ever.—*Exchange.*

## SCHOOL WORK.

## EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

## ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS.

## HIGH SCHOOL ENTRANCE.

## SCIENCE.

*Editor:* J. B. TURNER, B.A.  
COLL. INST., HAMILTON.

The following are the papers in Botany for Forms I. and III. and Biology for Form IV., set at the recent Departmental Examinations. Two botanical specimens were submitted for each form examination, one for identification and the other for description. In Form IV. there was also a zoological specimen and a microscopical section. In this form the amount of practical work that is required in the biology is too great to admit of the candidates doing it as thoroughly as it is desirable it should be done.

## FORM I.

## BOTANY.

## A.

Identify with the aid of your text-book the plant submitted and assign it to the proper genus, species and order.

## B.

1. Give the botanical name of the submitted plant, and of the order to which it belongs.
2. Describe the stem and leaves of the plant submitted.
3. Describe the flower of the submitted plant, indicating by a diagram the relations of the floral parts.
4. Describe in (a) potato, (b) onion, (c) mandrake (or may-apple), the underground structures and classify

them under the headings: root, stem, leaf.

5. Describe the following fruits, indicating how and from what portions of the flower they are formed: (a) pear, (b) plum, (c) raspberry (d) may-apple, (e) rosehip, (f) huckleberry (or whortleberry).

## FORM III.

## BOTANY.

## A.

1. Identify with the aid of your text-books the plant submitted, and assign it to its proper family, genus and species.

## B.

1. Describe accurately the stem, leaves and flower of the plant submitted.

2. Define the terms cohesion and adhesion as used in reference to floral organs and illustrate by reference to Canadian examples.

3. Describe and compare the characteristic features of Gymnosperms and Angiosperms.

4. What are the essential features of the Ranunculaceæ? Illustrate your answer by Canadian types.

5. Give an account of the structure and mode of reproduction of Chara.

## FORM IV.

## BIOLOGY.

## A.

Identify with the aid of your text-books the plant submitted, and assign it to the proper family, genus and species.

## B.

1. Make a dissection of the animal submitted and compare it with a

fresh water mussel as regards shell, locomotor apparatus and respiratory organs.

2. Describe fully the plant submitted.

3. Compare as to structure the stems of the buttercup and maple.

4. Make a drawing of the submitted section and indicate thereon the names of the various parts.

### QUESTIONS ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY PRINCIPAL H. I. STRANG, COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, GODERICH.

#### FOR ENTRANCE.

1. Analyze the following simple sentences :

(a) *Apparently*, before leaving the parent hive every swarm of bees sends out exploring parties to look up the future home.

(b) *Fastening* my eye on a particular flower I had no difficulty in walking *straight* to the spot.

(c) On one of the rocky islands *lying* before us in the channel, *there* is a lonely grave, marked by a plain granite slab and *surrounded* by a low, iron railing.

(d) To my great surprise not a boy was *to be seen* in the yard that morning.

(e) That *night*, from the castle-gate *went* down,

With silent, slow, and stealthy pace,

Two shadows, *mounted* on shadowy steeds,

*Taking* the narrow path.

2. Parse the italicized words in the foregoing sentences.

3. Write the third singular of each tense indicative active of the verb *see*.

4. Give all the participles of the verb from which *went* comes.

5. Give all the other inflections of the verb from which *lying* (c) comes.

6. Write all the infinitive forms of the verb from which *taking* comes.

7. Write sentences using *before* as an adverb, *flower* as a verb, *down* as a preposition, *future* as a noun, *night* as an adjective.

8. Write out the subordinate clauses in the following sentences in full, classify each, and give its relation :

(a) It will be difficult if not impossible to do that.

(b) You may take all you want of it.

(c) It looks better than ever.

(d) He had forgotten as usual to lock the door.

(e) It is quite likely he has never seen it.

9. Correct any errors, giving your reasons, in the following :

(a) The Board has appointed two delegates to represent them at the meeting.

(b) Hé could have answered it easy enough if he had wanted to.

(c) He answered all the questions that were put to him quite satisfactorily.

(d) I gave it to the man whom I supposed was acting as your agent.

(e) I am sorry that I will not have time to call for them.

### CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

In the September *Century* those who are interested in the "Career of Sonny" will be pleased to find that

Ruth McEnery Stuart tells of "Sonny's Diploma." There is something so charming about Sonny that

any story about him is good, that is, any story by the same author. Marcella herself may be too perfect to be real, but there can be no doubt about her surroundings, nor her friends. Reading such a history is a sensation. In the same number "An Open-Eved Conspiracy," by Howells, is continued, and a new story, "Prisoners of Conscience," by Amelia E. Barr, is begun. Even yet mention has not been made of all the important contributions and it is evident that those who are on the subscription list of the *Century* are being handsomely dealt with.

The November *St. Nicholas* will contain, among other contributions specially interesting to its readers, a new serial by John Bennett, a writer who has been giving evidence of a thorough acquaintance with the history of the past. The name of the story is "Master Skylark," and it deals with events in the time of Shakespeare, who, it seems, is to be one of the leading characters. Another serial, "The Last Three Soldiers," is by William H. Shelton.

One of the most interesting articles in the September *Review of Reviews* is entitled "John Brown in the Adirondacks," which has been written by Albert Shaw, on the occasion of the transfer of the John Brown farm to the State of New York. The rest of the magazine is largely given up to discussing the various phases of the money question and other problems with an especial bearing on the approaching election.

The September number of the *Table Talk* appears in a new and attractive cover. Among the articles will be found a valuable one on "The Pleasures of a Restricted Diet," by Miss Elizabeth Grinnell. The numerous departments will be found to contain the usual excellent assistance towards scientific housekeeping.

At the request of the Honorable the Minister of Education, four copies of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is sent to each Model School in Ontario for months of October, November and December.

The serial at present appearing in the *Macmillan's Magazine* is entitled "The Secret of Saint Florel." So far much cannot be said as to the secret, but the way that the writer takes about finding it is interesting and agreeable, and no doubt things will be found quite satisfactory in the end. "The Best Snake Story in the World" is, to say the least of it, an ambitious title, but in spite of it, perhaps because of it, the tale is a good one. "The Man Pepys" is also made the subject of an interesting article.

From Macmillan & Co. we have received through their Toronto agents, the Copp, Clark Co., the following books:

"Coverley Papers" from the *Spectator*, edited with an introduction and notes by K. Deighton. This favorite classic is presented in a shape suitable for use in schools. There is a short and pointed introduction, giving an account of the author and and of the inception of the essays. The notes are unusually full and accurate.

"Cowper's Shorter Poems," edited with an introduction and notes by W. T. Webb, of the Presidency College, Calcutta. Although intended for the school-room, this selection from Cowper's works contains most of his shorter poems, and we find along with such well-known verses as "John Gilpin," "Alexander Selkirk," and "Lines to my Mother's Picture," others less well-known, such as "The Cricket" and "The Pineapple and the Bee." Cowper's poems are full of that gentleness and truth of perception which is most beneficial in

any school-room, and when, as in the present edition, one who has a clear and wide knowledge of his personality and work, gives the reader the best assistance, a book is produced which is of value to any teacher of literature.

From the same firms we have also received "Indexing and Precip Writing for Civil Service Candidates," by T. Evan Jacob. In a lengthy and explicit introduction the candidate is prepared to work with the material which is to be found in the main part of the book. The exercises consist of questions set on papers for the civil service examinations, and form an admirable preparation in the subject.

"Chosen English Selections, from Wordsworth, Byron, Shelley, Lamb and Scott," by Adele Ellis. Of each of these five authors a short life is given, then a selection is made of a few of the more simple, yet at the same time the best, of their productions, and to these are added the editor's notes, which strive to give the meaning and distinctive literary effect of the passage rather than merely its grammatical or biographical significance.

"A First Sketch of English History," part II, 1307-1689, by E. J. Matthew, M.A., LL.B. A concise and carefully analysed account of this period of English history, the inner principles which explain events and outward circumstances which surround them, are given enough prominence to make the text-book interesting reading. The more recent style of heading the various paragraphs is followed, and frequent summaries are given of the important events in the preceding chapters.

We have also received through Messrs. Copp, Clark from Macmillan's two of the volumes of the "People's Edition of Tennyson's Poems," the first including "The Lover's Tale," "The Golden Supper," "To Alfred

Tennyson," and "The First Quarrel," and a second volume containing two of the Idylls, "Guinevere" and "The Passing of Arthur." The edition is one which will give satisfaction to lovers of Tennyson, following as it does, in many particulars, the Temple edition of Shakespeare, which elicited much favorable comment at the time of its first appearance.

The Copp, Clark Company has recently published the following books, which appear on the school curriculum of Ontario: "Le Voyage Autour de ma Chambre," and "Le Lepreux de la Cite D'Aoste," by De Maistre, with "La Grammaire" and "La Lettre Chargee of Labiche." These are edited with an introduction, notes and vocabulary, by F. H. Sykes, of the Western University of London, and E. J. McIntyre, of the St. Catharines Collegiate Institute. The same gentlemen have edited "Le Chien du Capitaine, of Enault," and "La Fee," by Feuillet. Both of these text-books are marked by the careful preparation and scholarship which is a characteristic of the editors' work. Exercises on the text are given in both books for work in the class-room, and clear explanations of most of the difficulties in translating will be found in the notes.

The same firm have issued within the last few weeks a "High School History of Greece and Rome," authorized by the Education Department, of which W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B., and John Henderson, M.A., are editors. This is a scholarly and carefully prepared text-book, the style of which, though necessarily condensed is still interesting and readable. Good maps, on which the course of the history may be traced, are one of the features of this addition to our school books.

"Select Poems," being the literature prescribed for the junior matriculation and junior leaving examina-



tions, edited with an introduction and notes, by W. J. Alexander, Ph.D. Copp, Clark Co. To any teacher of literature who is endeavoring to awaken in his pupils that appreciation of the beautiful in composition, which once called into existence will not soon disappear, this book will be of the greatest assistance. In the lives of the various authors treated will be found not merely the more important facts connected with their careers, but also a consideration of the characteristics of their work and its effect on the times in which they lived. The notes possess the fulness, accuracy and usefulness, which can be obtained only from a wide knowledge of literature and its more influential surroundings.

In Heath's Modern Language Series we have received "Aus Herz und Welt," edited and annotated by Dr. Bernhardt. The text consists of two short German stories, suited more especially to assist the student in acquiring an accurate knowledge of colloquial German. The notes are full, since this book is intended to be of use in that period when the student is passing from the use of a special vocabulary to that of annotated texts.

The American Book Company have recently issued "Krambambuli," edited by A. W. Spanhoofd, and "Die Vierzehn Nothelefer," by K. E. Sihler. These are both intended to provide interesting reading for the student of German.

"The Oswego Normal Method of Teaching Geography," by A. W. Farnham, C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse. The author has successfully prepared an exposition of the methods of teaching geography which are in use at the Oswego Normal School. The result is intended for the guidance of young teachers, and doubtless will be helpful to those who have not yet by practice and investigation found the

methods which will best suit their own gifts.

The same firm have also issued in the Standard Teachers' Library, "Uniform Question in Drawing," consisting of the questions and answers in drawing, given at the Uniform Examinations of the State of New York.

In Moffat's English Classics, "Samson Agonistes" has recently appeared. It is edited by Thomas Page, and is uniform with the other volumes which have been issued in this series. The notes are remarkably full, and valuable information will be found, included with the text on the relation of the play to Greek tragedy, on the language of the drama, etc.

Moffat's "Pupil Teachers' Course, Geography and History," division 3. Moffat & Paige, London. The part of the book which is devoted to geography treats of Africa; America, Australasia, Polynesia; it may be mentioned, however, that British North America and Australia will be found in another division of the same series. The history is brought down to the present day, that is, to 1896.

"Composite Geometrical Figures," by G. A. Andrews, Ginn & Co., Boston. This text-book is intended for reviews and for easy original work. The aim of the author has been to provide geometrical work, which will enable the pupil to overcome the idea that geometrical principles apply only to the figures which are selected in the text-books.

"Pets and Companions," a second reader, by J. H. Stickney. This is one of the study and story nature readers, issued by Ginn & Co., Boston, and is designed to interest children in their humbler companions, while at the same time first lessons are given in reading.