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# Educational Weekly

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THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 3RD, 1885.

Number 36.

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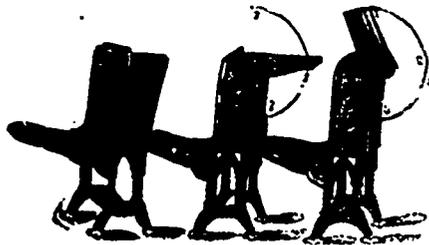
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JOHN E. BRYANT, M.A., *Editor.*  
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# The Educational Weekly.

TORONTO, SEPTEMBER 3, 1885.

PROFESSOR ALEXANDER BAIN, in his "Education as a Science," enumerates, before the commencement of the subject proper, several definitions of the word "education." Our readers are probably familiar with the more important of the various analyses, which have been made of the meaning of this word, and doubtless these analyses have opened their eyes to the profundity of the subject. A little thought on the aim of education, and a brief search for the best means to attain that aim, are sufficient to show us how intricate and involved a problem we have before us. To us it seems an insoluble problem, worthy the best thought of the best intellect. How best to prepare the most complex of animals for the most complex of environments might well puzzle the acutest thinker. And when such elements as the rational, æsthetic, and moral faculties are added, it seems almost a hopeless task to formulate even the first steps of the process of tuition.

IN an address delivered before the University of Harvard in the year 1883, by Mr. Charles Francis Adams, Jr., are some remarks on this twofold problem which struck us as singularly felicitous, and replete with common sense. Mr. Adams, it must be remembered, is a staunch opponent of a classical education. The classics he calls the "fetich of the college." Making allowances for this, the following quotations will be read with interest. He is speaking of the world into which he was about to enter, and of the methods his *alma mater* employed to fit him for that world. We quote at length:—

"When the men of my time graduated Franklin Pierce was President, the war in the Crimea was just over, and three years were yet to pass before Solferino would be fought. No united Germany and no united Italy existed. The railroad and the telegraph were in their infancy; neither nitro-glycerine nor the telephone had been discovered. The years since then have been fairly crammed with events. A new world has come into existence, and a world wholly unlike that of our fathers—unlike it in peace and unlike it in war. It is a world of great intellectual quickening, which has extended until it now touches a vastly larger number of men, in many more countries, than it ever touched before. Not only have the nations been rudely shaken up, but they have been drawn together; interdependent thought has been carried on, interacting agencies have been at work in widely separated countries and in different languages. The solidarity

of the peoples has been developed. Old professions have lost their prominence; new professions have arisen. Science has extended its domains, and is superseding authority with a rapidity which is bewildering. The artificial barriers—national, political, social, economical, religious, intellectual—are giving way in every direction, and the civilized races of the world are becoming one people, even if a highly discordant and quarrelsome people. The world as it is may be a very bad and a very vulgar world—insincere, democratic, disrespectful, dangerous, and altogether hopeless. I do not think it is; but with that somewhat comprehensive issue I have, here and now, nothing to do. However bad and hopeless, it is nevertheless the world in which our lot was cast, and in which we have had to live—a bustling, active, nervous world, and one very hard to keep up with. This much all will admit; while I think I may further add, that its most marked characteristic has been an intense mental and physical activity, which, working simultaneously in many tongues, has attempted much and questioned everything.

"Now as respects the college preparation we received to fit us to take part in this world's debate. As one goes on in life, especially modern life, I think it safe to say that a few conclusions are hammered into us by the hard logic of facts. As generally accepted among those conclusions, I think I may, without much fear of contradiction, enumerate such practical, common-sense, as well as commonplace precepts as that superficiality is dangerous as well as contemptible, in that it is apt to invite defeat; or, again, that what is worth doing at all is worth doing well; or, third, that when one is given work to do, it is well to prepare one's self for that specific work, and not to occupy one's time in acquiring information, no matter how innocent or elegant, or generally useful, which has no probable bearing on that work; or, finally—and this I regard as the greatest of all practical precepts—that every man should in life master some one thing, be it great or be it small, so that as respects that thing, he is the highest living authority; that one thing he should know thoroughly. How did Harvard College prepare me and my 92 classmates of the year 1856 for our work in a life in which we have had these homely precepts brought close to us? In answering the question it is not altogether easy to preserve one's gravity. The college fitted us for this active, bustling, hard-hitting, many-tongued world, caring nothing for authority and little for the past, but full of its living thought and living issues, in dealing with which there was no man who did not stand in pressing

and constant need of every possible preparation as respects knowledge and exactitude and thoroughness—the poor old college prepared us to play our parts in this world by compelling us, directly and indirectly, to devote the best part of our school lives to acquiring a confessedly superficial knowledge of two dead languages. But in pursuing Greek and Latin we had ignored our mother tongue."

These are the utterances of a man who, after thirty years' battling with the world, comes back to chide his *alma mater* for the plan she adopted in preparing him for that strife. We must be careful not to be carried away by Mr. Adams's idiosyncracies. The classical training which he so severely deprecates has produced men well-fitted to make their way in the world. This is indubitable. But, laying this aside, the dispassionate and thoughtful words which a clear-headed man addresses to the members of one of the first universities on this continent should be for us full of lessons. And these of Mr. Adams are so.

Of such lessons the eminently practical light in which the speaker regarded all educating processes is of great value. There is a breadth in his view that is truly refreshing. Education with him means something that will enable a man—not to translate a dead language; not to retain in his memory certain artificial systems; not to comprehend a difficult author; not even to acquire such technical knowledge as will be required in the ordinary businesses of life—but something that will enable a man to cope with his fellow-men in the struggle for existence; will enable him to view the affairs of life from every aspect, not from one only, and consequently to arrive at sounder judgments regarding them; will enable him not only to take his place behind the plough or the counter if need be, but also in the family circle, in the church, in the committee-room, in the legislature—in short, in any walk of life. Anything short of this Mr. Adams decries. A "narrow, scientific and technological education" is his abhorrence.

For ourselves, we must say that this bird's-eye view of education is most consonant with our own opinions. Education, we think, cannot be looked at from too high a plane. And to us there is nothing either visionary or impracticable in so looking at it. Too comprehensive a survey can never be taken of any single subject. If such view leaves out of sight details, it at least gives us clearer insight into the scope and function of the whole. Broader views are still sadly wanted in this the most complex of processes.

## Contemporary Thought.

THE truth of the matter is, the recent revival in education is due for the most part to the energy of thoughtful teachers who have brought to light the old truths of masters and have faithfully put in practice what others have been preaching about. It has come from the presenting of objects, material or physical, to the pupil's mind, the exciting of his curiosity, the directing of his observation, the fixing of his attention, and assisting him to know these objects, rather than to know about them. It has come from the study of literature rather than the study *about* literature; from the study of science rather than the definitions of science; and of language instead of grammar.—*Ohio Educational Weekly.*

If people do not learn German, French, and every other language now-a-days, it will not be for lack of "methods," opportunities, and text-books. The panting critic can hardly keep up with the steady stream of publications bearing on language-study. Two new books call attention again to the rival and conflicting methods of teaching modern languages. The drift is irresistible towards oral methods, conversational helps, and instruction by object-teaching. The profound impression which Pestalozzi, Froebel, and others have made on the teaching world by their kindergarten method—which is only another name for the "natural" method—is seen in the rapidity with which this method has been utilized by Sauveur and others in the higher grades of teaching.—*Critic.*

THE *Critic*, in its critique of Froebel's "Education of Man," translated by Josephine Jarvis, (New York: A. Lovell & Co.) writes as follows:—"Every enthusiast delights in being surpassed by his pupils. Froebel himself, whose system is acknowledged the best that has been originated for the education of the young child, would rejoice to know that his methods have been adopted and extended to a degree that makes most of the recent text-books on kindergarten ideas far more helpful than his own. His own book is now chiefly valuable as a curiosity, to show how the ideas originated which have been developed till the kindergarten, in its general tendency, is acknowledged the best possible system yet for the growing child. The error of Froebel's book is the one slight error which is noticeable throughout the system, viz., an over-abundance of what we hardly know whether to call profundity or simplicity, but which is certainly too profound simplicity. There is a great deal which, with all respect for this excellent method, we can but pronounce extremely silly; such as the elaborate philosophy as to a mother's unconscious reasoning for the benefit of the child every time she murmurs, 'Now, bite your little finger!' or, 'Where is the bow-wow?' A little of the good old-fashioned neglect is by no means amiss even in modern improvements on the old systems; and the mother who stops to think, every time she puts on her baby's stocking, what she had better say to him about it, will find in time that she is developing an unmitigated prig."

WE hear much now-a-days about the "natural method" of learning languages, and the phrase is explained as meaning the method by which a child

learns. Is the method natural to the child necessarily natural to the man or woman, or indeed to the youth of fairly developed mind? It is natural for a child to creep. Shall the man, therefore, give up using only two legs, and take to locomotion on all fours? It is natural for a child to learn imitatively, at its mother's knee. Must the man, therefore, follow the same way, clinging close to the same famous educational appliance? Is it not an absurdity, in education and everywhere else, to say that the methods natural in the nursery are also natural for adults?

EVERY age and every country has of necessity its own special culture and curriculum of studies. Education is relative only. Some people speak as if they thought a fixed, ideal course of study possible. Nothing is more visionary. What suits one state of society does not suit another. What meets the demands of one age will be entirely behind and insufficient in another. The trouble with most higher institutes of learning is, that they do not recognize a progress in education. They are hoary with ancient thought, method and practices. Their teachers, with some eminent exceptions, are men who work in ruts and are controlled by precedent and ancient authorities. They think that Euclid knew more than Newton, and Aristotle more than Francis Bacon or Herbert Spencer. Their work is overlaid with dead formalities, and lies apart from the living moving world of to-day. It is a well-known fact that young men educated under this system once out of school are unfitted for life's duties. Their first work is to train themselves anew for practical life. Such monastic culture will not last—cannot last. The great demand of the age is for a more practical education, and the authorities are beginning to heed it. Industrial schools and special schools and optional studies are coming up everywhere in obedience to this demand. Educators begin to recognize the fact that they must adapt their schools to the necessities of those who are to be educated just as a merchant studies to know what goods are in demand among his customers. A stock of goods that would suit New York City would not suit the average East Tennessee village. In the same way people of different circumstances cannot profitably be educated exactly alike.—*From a paper read before the Tennessee State Teachers' Association at Jonesboro, August 5th, 1885, by Prof. T. C. Karns, Carson College, Tenn.*

WHEN a "higher education" is demanded for any class of persons—as women—it means that it has become desirable to train their faculties for more difficult work than that traditionally assigned to them, and also that it is desirable to enable them to get more enjoyment out of any work that they do. The necessary correlative of the possession of powers is the opportunity for their exercise. The existence of a larger class of effectively educated women must increase their demand for a larger share in that part of the world's work which requires trained intelligence. Of this, literature and other art is one and only one portion. The work of the professions, of the upper regions of industry, commerce, and finance, the work of scientific and of political life, is the work appropriate to the intelligences which have proved themselves equal to a course of training at once complex and severe. A person destined to receive a superior education

is expected to develop more vigorous mental force, to have a larger mental horizon, to handle more complex masses of ideas, than another. From the beginning, therefore, he must not merely receive useful information, but be habituated to perform difficult mental operations, for only in this way can the sum of mental power be increased. The order, arrangement, and sequence of the ideas he acquires must be as carefully planned as is the selection of the ideas themselves, because upon this order and internal proportion his mental horizon depends. He must be trained in feats of sustained attention, and in the collocation and association of elementary ideas into complex combinations. Since ideas are abstractions from sense-perceptions, he must be exercised in the acquisition of accurate, rapid, far-reaching, and delicate sense perceptions, in their memorization, and in the representative imagination which may recall them at will, and be able to abstract from them, more or less remotely, ideas. Habits of rich association of ideas must be formed, and of pleasure in their contemplation. And very early must be offered to the child problems to be solved, either by purely mental exertion, or by that combined with manual labor.—*From "An Experiment in Primary Education," by Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi, in Popular Science Monthly for August.*

The decrying of grammar, in connection with the study of language, at present so common, we believe to be foolish and excessive, and sure before long to produce a reaction. For a mind mature, or approaching maturity, the natural method of studying a language is not by parrot-like imitation, but by looking into the why and wherefore of things, forming some idea of the philosophy which lies at the bottom, reaching a clear comprehension of the rational—in a word, in arriving at a knowledge of its grammar. All who know anything of education know the value of linguistic training as one of its processes, and what is linguistic training but training in grammar? Is it not the case that those who so find fault with the study of grammar would deprive us, if they could, of one of the best means for giving the mind grasp, keenness, power of discrimination? Suppose the student has before him a complicated English sentence which he is to render into German. He questions thus: Of these clauses, which are principal and which subordinate? Of the subordinate clauses, which are adjective and which adverbial? This "before"—am I to understand it as adverb, preposition, or conjunction? This "since"—does it require me to put the verb before the subject, or is it the "since" that throws the verb to the end of its clause? Have I in this verb which I must use a separable or inseparable prefix, and in the connection in which I must place it, is a separation (if the prefix be separable) necessary? These questions of grammar and such as these, which come up in the proper study of German, one cannot deal with without obtaining for the perspective and discriminating power of his mind a most helpful exercise. In putting English into German, as in our example, and in the converse process of putting German into English, with attention to the philosophy of the sentence, the much abused grammar is the basis of linguistic training, than which few things in education are more helpful. For minds mature, or approaching maturity—and such are the minds for the most part, who undertake the study of a foreign tongue among us—we believe that no method is natural which does not have a sharp look for grammatical foundations.—*Literary World.*

## Notes and Comments.

A NEW volume by Sir Henry Maine on *Popular Government* will consist of four essays, "The Progress of Popular Government," "The Nature of Democracy," "The Age of Progress," and "The Constitution of the United States."

OUR principal contributors this week are :—Dr. Hodgins, who continues the subject of "Auxiliary Educationists," with a paper upon Dr. Duncombe; Mr. J. O. Miller, whose essay upon Matthew Arnold is brought to a conclusion; and Mr. C. P. Simpson, whose paper upon "How to teach to read English" should have been read before the Ontario Teachers' Association.

A GLASGOW dame complains that at the local Board School they teach her daughter everything but needlework. The girl has passed in the fifth standard; but "she knows nothing about cutting-out, and to save her neck she could not make a button-hole." To which the *Globe* (London, Eng.) adds as a commentary: "The school-girl of the period probably scorns these 'low' accomplishments."

THE last issue of Mr. Quaritch's catalogues deals with the history, ethnology, and philology of America. Among the rarities included are several Aztec painted records; copies of Lord Kingsborough's *Antiquities of Mexico* and of Audubon's *Birds of America*; a large number of MSS., treating of the early Spanish settlements, from the collection of the late Don J. F. Ramirez; and a series of autograph letters of American statesmen between 1796 and 1821.

THAT curiously-named book, "Letters from Hell," edited by the well known George MacDonald, has reached its eighth thousand. The *Church Times* says of it: "The work may be regarded from different points of view—as a work of fiction, as a study of one part of the problem of future existence, or as a little treatise in ethics; but the verdict in any case will be the same, and the readers who may feel least disposed to allow the book to affect their lives and work will, without doubt, acknowledge its intrinsic worth."

PROF. DAVID MASSON'S just published lectures on *Carlyle, Personally and in his Writings*, are classified by Mr. William Wallace in the *Academy* as "one of the most important of recent contributions to the now formidable literature which has for its object the vindication of Carlyle's memory, if not the rehabilitation of Carlyle's character." The temporary shadow cast over Carlyle by the "Reminiscences" and by Mr. Froude's biography is fast disappearing. That Carlyle was a great man few now attempt to deny. That this will be universally acknowledged is certain. Already there are evidences that this is not far off.

Of such evidence, Prof. Masson's book is not a small one.

FOR those teachers who take a delight in instructing their pupils upon the current topics of the day, or who make use of these as pegs upon which to hang lessons connected with the subjects of the text-book, the accounts of the fearful ravages that cholera has recently been making in Spain and smallpox in Montreal will be admirably suited. The origin of zymotic diseases; the germ theory of disease; the value of sanitation; the difference between an endemic and an epidemic; the meaning of the words *bacterium*, *bacillus*, spore, vaccination, infection, contagion; the names of Jenner, Lister, Koch, *et al.*;—these and many other topics will interest our children much, and they are topics of which they should learn something as early in life as possible.

As an example of that deep-seated feeling of conservatism little known upon this side of the Atlantic, the following from the *London Globe* is interesting reading. It might afford also matter for some historical and philosophical questions for our higher forms:—"A complaint is made by the *Daily Telegraph* that the beefeaters at the Tower, having, in 1858, been deprived of their breeches and stockings and put into trowsers, are now threatened by the Lord Chamberlain with an alteration in the form and decoration of their hats. On this head it is urged that 'if the beefeater's hat be suffered to fall off into the devouring maw of time, nothing of the kind will be sacred hereafter. Doggett's coat and badge, the beadle's staff, the verger's cassock, and the bag-wigs of the Lord Mayor's running footmen will all vanish into space, and 'leave not a rack behind.' A grave responsibility rests upon Lord Lathom. It lies with him to restore the ancient and picturesque hat of the Henries to the bereaved and disconsolate head of the beefeaters, or he may obstinately stand by the novel and incongruous chapeau, chosen, it is to be hoped, in a moment of unaccustomed weakness. On the one hand, we behold the Genii of Archaeology and Æstheticism embracing the time-honored beefeater's hat; and, on the other hand, a wavering Lord Chamberlain balancing the 'new departure' on the top of his wand. If it be not too late, let us hope that even now good sense and good taste may prevail."

THE *Athenæum* informs us that Mr. Percy Greg is preparing a two-volume *History of the United States, from the Foundation of Virginia to the Reconstruction of the United States*. From the same authority we learn that "Under the title of *The Light of Asia and the Light of the World*, an American writer, Mr. S. H. Kellogg, is about to publish, through Messrs. Macmillan & Co., a comparative study of Buddhism and Christianity, with the avowed object of correcting

what he deems the erroneous impression of the relations between the two religions which has been created by some recent publications." Mr. Kellogg is a member of the faculty of the Western Theological Seminary, Allegheny, Pa., and was formerly a missionary in India. This increasing interest in Buddhism is a peculiarly interesting phase of modern thought in the Old World. We are becoming very catholic in these days. And it is not to be wondered at. Perhaps the first impetus in this direction was made by the Tübingen school of criticism. Then we have the Hibbert lectures, the Croall lectures, the Bampton lectures. We have Renan, and Seeley, and Greg, and Frederick Harrison, and Dr. Congreve, and Herbert Spencer, and lastly, Dr. Drummond, not to mention Huxley and Tyndall and that *ultra* class. We have, too, Max Müller translating we forget how many Sanskrit books for us. We have Edwin Arnold depicting the creed of Nirvana in its most fascinating aspects. With all these influences who can assume astonishment at—shall we call it catholicity?

We have referred in the opening columns of this issue to Mr. Charles Francis Adams's view of the aim of education. It is interesting to know that another high authority has given expression to not dissimilar theories on the same subject. Professor Jevons in his "Methods of Social Reform" refers to the subject in a paper on "Cram" previously published in *Mind*. He sums up the problem by holding that the ultimate object of education is "success in life." But Professor Jevons has his idiosyncracies also; one of which is a defence of "cram," but he makes a distinction between what he calls "good cram" and "bad cram." A reviewer soon after the appearance of the volume took Professor Jevons to task in admirable manner. The following passages are worthy of being reproduced:—"We do not deny that such a course of study and examination as Professor Jevons advocates may be useful for the acquisition of technical knowledge and for cultivating the technical faculties of the mind. Hence the applicability of the examination test in the case of government clerks, whose work is almost entirely of a technical character. But the very fact that it is thus applicable in their case raises a presumption against it as a means of general education, the object of which is not the acquisition of technical skill, but the elevation of the mind and character. The main purpose of education is not to promote success in life, but to raise the standard of life itself; and this object can be attained only by those higher studies which call forth the powers of reason, moral feeling, and artistic taste. Even in professional education, our aim ought rather to be usefulness in life than mere success, and we have great distrust of all theories of education that put success in the first place."

## Literature and Science.

### YOUTH AND CALM.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

BUT ah ! though peace indeed is here,  
And ease from shame and rest from fear,  
Though nothing can disarm now  
The smoothness of that limpid brow,  
Yet is a calm like this in truth  
The crowning end of life and youth ?  
And when this boon rewards the dead  
Are all debts paid, has all been said ?  
And is the heart of youth so light,  
Its step so firm, its eye so bright,  
Because on its hot brow there blows  
A wind of promise and repose  
From the far grave to which it goes ?  
Because it has the hope to come  
One day to harbor in the tomb ?  
Ah no ! the bliss youth dreams is one  
For daylight and the cheerful sun,  
For feeling nerves and living breath,  
Youth dreams a bliss on this side death.  
It dreams a rest, if not more deep,  
More grateful than this marble sleep.  
It hears a voice within it tell—  
"Calm's not life's crown, but calm is well,"  
'Tis all perhaps, which man acquires,  
But 'tis not what our youth desires.

NOTE.—This poem will be read with interest in connexion with Mr. Miller's paper on Matthew Arnold. "Youth and Calm," the *Spectator* (in an article which bears the appearance of coming from the well known editor-in-chief himself, Mr. Richard Holt Hutton, already known as an admirer and expositor of Mr. Arnold's poems) in a recent issue says, "contains the very heart of elegy. It is an early poem (and we take leave to print it as it was first published, and not as it has been re-edited by its author), and one in which the elegiac tone is not perhaps hit with the perfect felicity of later years; but still it has the very life of the poet in it, and marks as distinctly as Goethe's early songs marked, the region in which the verse of the poet who produced it was destined to excite."

### THE GOLDEN FLEECE.

[From Nathaniel Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales."  
(Continued from previous issue.)

"If you doubt, if you are in the least afraid," said the princess, looking him in the face by the dim starlight, "you had better never have been born than go a step nigher to the bulls."

But Jason had set his heart steadfastly on getting the Golden Fleece; and I positively doubt whether he would have gone back without it, even had he been certain of finding himself turned into a red-hot cinder, or a handful of white ashes, the instant he made a step farther. He therefore let go Medea's hand, and walked boldly forward in the direction whither she had pointed. At some distance before him he perceived four streams of fiery vapor, regularly appearing, and again vanishing, after dimly lighting up the surrounding obscurity. These were caused by the breath of the brazen bulls, which was quietly stealing out of their four nostrils, as they lay chewing the cud.

At the first two or three steps which Jason made, the four fiery streams appeared to gush out somewhat more plentifully; for the two brazen bulls had heard his foot-tramp, and were lifting up their noses to snuff the air. He went a little farther, and by the way in which the red vapor now spouted forth, he judged that the creatures had got upon their feet. Now he could see glowing sparks, and vivid jets of flame. At the next step, each of the bulls made the pasture echo with a terrible roar, while the burning breath, which they thus belched forth, lit up the whole field with a momentary flash. One other stride did bold Jason make; and suddenly, as a streak of lightning, on came these fiery animals, roaring like thunder, and sending out sheets of white flame, which so lighted up the scene that the young man could discern every object more distinctly than by daylight. Most distinctly of all he saw the two horrible creatures galloping right down upon him, their brazen hoofs rattling and ringing over the ground, and their tails sticking up stiffly into the air. Their breath scorched the herbage before them. So intensely hot was it, indeed, that it caught a dry tree, under which Jason was now standing, and set it all in a light blaze. But as for Jason himself (thanks to Medea's enchanted ointment), the white flame curled around his body without injuring him a jot.

Greatly encouraged at finding himself not yet turned into a cinder, the young man awaited the attack of the bulls. Just as the brazen brutes fancied themselves sure of tossing him into the air, he caught one of them by the horn, and the other by the tail, and held them in a gripe like that of an iron vice, one with his right hand, the other with his left.

It was now easy to yoke the bulls, and to harness them to the plough, which had lain rusting on the ground for a great many years gone by; so long was it before anybody could be found capable of ploughing that piece of land. Jason, I suppose, had been taught how to draw a furrow by the good old Chiron. At any rate, our hero succeeded perfectly well in breaking up the green sward; and, by the time that the moon was a quarter of her journey up the sky, the ploughed field lay before him, a large tract of black earth, ready to be sown with the dragon's teeth. So Jason scattered them broadcast, and took his stand on the edge of the field, anxious to see what would happen next.

"Must we wait long for harvest-time?" he inquired of Medea, who was now standing by his side.

"Whether sooner or later, it will be sure to come," answered the princess. "A crop of armed men never fails to spring up, when the dragon's teeth have been sown."

The moon was now high aloft in the

heavens, and threw its bright beams over the ploughed field, where as yet there was nothing to be seen. Any farmer, on viewing it, would have said that Jason must wait weeks before the green blades would peep from among the sods, and whole months before the yellow grain would be ripened for the sickle. But by-and-by, all over the field, there was something that glistened in the moonbeams, like sparkling drops of dew. These bright objects sprouted higher, and proved to be the steel heads of spears. Then there was a dazzling gleam from a vast number of polished brass helmets, beneath which, as they grew farther out of the soil, appeared the dark and bearded visages of warriors, struggling to free themselves from the imprisoning earth. The first look that they gave at the upper world was a glare of wrath and defiance. Next were seen their bright breastplates; in every right hand there was a sword or spear, and on each left arm a shield; and when this strange crop of warriors had but half grown out of the earth, they struggled—such was their impatience of restraint—and, as it were, tore themselves up by the roots. Wherever a dragon's tooth had fallen, there stood a man armed for battle. They made a clang with their swords against their shields, and eyed one another fiercely; for they had come into this beautiful world, and into the peaceful moonlight, full of rage and stormy passions, and ready to take the life of ever human brother, in recompense for the boon of their own existence.

For a while, the warriors stood flourishing their weapons, clashing their swords against their shields, and boiling over with the red-hot thirst for battle. Then they began to shout—"Show us the enemy!" "Lead us to the charge!" "Death or victory!" "Come on, brave comrades!" "Conquer or die!" and a hundred other outcries, such as men always shout forth on a battle-field, and which these dragon-people seemed to have at their tongues' ends. At last the front rank caught sight of Jason, who, beholding the flash of so many weapons in the moonlight, had thought it best to draw his sword. In a moment all the sons of the dragon's teeth appeared to take Jason for an enemy, and crying with one voice, "Guard the Golden Fleece!" they ran at him with uplifted swords and protruded spears. Jason knew that it would be impossible to withstand this bloodthirsty battalion with his single arm, but determined, since there was nothing better to be done, to die as valiantly as if he himself had sprung from a dragon's tooth.

Medea, however, bade him snatch up a stone from the ground.

"Throw it among them quickly!" cried she. "It is the only way to save yourself."

The armed men were now so nigh that Jason could discern the fire flashing out of

their enraged eyes, when he let fly the stone, and saw it strike the helmet of a tall warrior, who was rushing upon him with his blade aloft. The stone glanced from this man's helmet to the shield of his nearest comrade, and thence flew right into the angry face of another, hitting him smartly between the eyes. Each of the three who had been struck by the stone took it for granted that his next neighbor had given him a blow; and instead of running any farther towards Jason, they began to fight among themselves. The confusion spread through the host, so that it seemed scarcely a moment before they were all hacking, hewing, and stabbing at one another, lopping off arms, heads, and legs, and doing such memorable deeds that Jason was filled with immense admiration; although, at the same time, he could not help laughing to behold these mighty men punishing each other for an offence which he himself had committed. In an incredibly short space of time (almost as short, indeed, as it had taken them to grow up), all but one of the heroes of the dragon's teeth were stretched lifeless on the field. The last survivor, the bravest and strongest of the whole, had just force enough to wave his crimson sword over his head, and give a shout of exultation, crying, "Victory! Victory! Immortal fame!" when he himself fell down, and lay quietly among his slain brethren.

And there was the end of the army that had sprouted from the dragon's teeth. That fierce and feverish fight was the only enjoyment which they had tasted on this beautiful earth.

"Let them sleep in the bed of honor," said the Princess Medea, with a sly smile at Jason. "The world will always have simpletons enough, just like them, fighting and dying for they know not what, and fancying that posterity will take the trouble to put laurel wreaths on their rusty and battered helmets. Could you help smiling, Prince Jason, to see the self-conceit of that last fellow, just as he tumbled down?"

"It made me very sad," answered Jason very gravely. "And to tell you the truth, princess, the Golden Fleece does not appear so well worth the winning, after what I have here beheld."

"You will think differently in the morning," said Medea. "True, the Golden Fleece may not be so valuable as you have thought it; but then there is nothing better in the world; and one must needs have an object, you know. Come! Your night's work has been well performed; and to-morrow you can inform King Æetes that the first part of your allotted task is fulfilled."

Agreeably to Medea's advice, Jason went betimes in the morning to the palace of King Æetes. Entering the presence-chamber, he stood at the foot of the throne, and made a low obeisance.

"Your eyes look heavy, Prince Jason," observed the king; "you appear to have spent a sleepless night. I hope you have been considering the matter a little more wisely, and have concluded not to get yourself scorched to a cinder, in attempting to tame my brazen-lunged bulls."

"That is already accomplished, may it please your majesty," replied Jason. "The bulls have been tamed and yoked; the field has been ploughed; the dragon's teeth have been sown broadcast; the crop of armed warriors has sprung up, and they have slain one another, to the last man. And now I solicit your majesty's permission to encounter the dragon, that I may take down the Golden Fleece from the tree, and depart, with my nine-and-forty comrades."

King Æetes scowled, and looked very angry and excessively disturbed; for he knew that, in accordance with his kingly promise, he ought now to permit Jason to win the Fleece, if his courage and skill should enable him to do so. But, since the young man had met with such good luck in the matter of the brazen bulls and the dragon's teeth, the king feared that he would be equally successful in slaying the dragon. And therefore, though he would gladly have seen Jason devoured by the ravenous beast, he was resolved not to run any further risk of losing his beloved Fleece.

"You never would have succeeded in this business, young man," said he, "if my undutiful daughter, Medea, had not helped you with her enchantments. Had you acted fairly, you would have been, at this instant, a black cinder, or a handful of white ashes. I forbid you, on pain of death, to make any more attempts to get the Golden Fleece. To speak my mind plainly, you shall never set eyes on so much as one of its glistening locks."

Jason left the king's presence in great sorrow and anger. He could think of nothing better to be done than to summon together his forty-nine brave Argonauts, march at once to the grove of Mars, slay the dragon, take possession of the Golden Fleece, get on board the Argo, and spread all sail for Iolchos. The success of this scheme depended, it is true, on the doubtful point whether all the fifty heroes might not be snapped up, at so many mouthfuls, by the dragon. But, as Jason was hastening down the palace-steps, the Princess Medea called after him, and beckoned him to return. Her black eyes shone upon him with such a keen intelligence, that he felt as if there were a serpent peeping out of them; and although she had done him so much service only the night before, he was by no means very certain that she would not do him an equally great mischief before sunset.

"What says King Æetes, my royal and upright father?" inquired Medea, slightly

smiling. "Will he give you the Golden Fleece, without any further risk or trouble?"

"On the contrary," answered Jason, "he is very angry with me for taming the brazen bulls and sowing the dragon's teeth. And he forbids me to make any more attempts, and positively refuses to give up the Golden Fleece, whether I slay the dragon or no."

"Yes, Jason," said the princess, "and I can tell you more. Unless you set sail from Colchis before to-morrow's sunrise, the king means to burn your fifty-oared galley, and put yourself and your forty-nine brave comrades to the sword. But be of good courage. The Golden Fleece you shall have, if it lies within the power of my enchantments to get it for you. Wait for me here an hour before midnight."

At the appointed hour, you might again have seen Prince Jason and the Princess Medea, side by side, stealing through the streets of Colchis, on their way to the sacred grove, in the centre of which the Golden Fleece was suspended to a tree. While they were crossing the pasture-ground, the brazen bulls came towards Jason, lowing, nodding their heads, and thrusting forth their snouts, which, as other cattle do, they loved to have rubbed and caressed by a friendly hand. Their fierce nature was thoroughly tamed; and, with their fierceness, the two furnaces in their stomachs had likewise been extinguished; and now, instead of emitting jets of flame and streams of sulphurous vapor they breathed the very sweetest of cow-breath.

After kindly patting the bulls, Jason followed Medea into the grove of Mars, where the great oak-trees, that had been growing for centuries, threw so thick a shade that the moonbeams struggled vainly to find their way through it. Only here and there a glimmer fell upon the half-strewn earth, or now and then a breeze stirred the boughs aside, and gave Jason a glimpse of the sky, lest, in that deep obscurity, he might forget that there was one, overhead. At length, when they had gone farther and farther into the heart of the duskiess, Medea squeezed Jason's hand.

"Look yonder," she whispered. "Do you see it?"

Gleaming among the venerable oaks, there was a radiance, not like the moonbeams, but rather resembling the golden glory of the setting sun. It proceeded from an object, which appeared to be suspended at about a man's height from the ground, a little farther within the wood.

"What is it?" asked Jason.

"Have you come so far to seek it," exclaimed Medea, "and do you not recognize the meed of all your toils and perils, when it glitters before your eyes? It is the Golden Fleece."

(To be continued.)

## Educational Opinion.

### AUXILIARY EDUCATIONISTS.

NO. VI.

III.—CHARLES DUNCOMBE, ESQ., M.D.

2.—His Parliamentary Efforts to Promote Education.

FOR the remaining four years during which Dr. Duncombe was a member of the Legislature, his efforts to promote the cause of education were unceasing. With the exception of Mr. Burwell, (also a member,) who devoted himself almost entirely to the interests of education in the House, none excelled Dr. Duncombe in his zeal for the cause of public education. His efforts were chiefly directed to awaken an interest amongst his fellow members in the subject generally, and especially on behalf of the education of the deaf and dumb, in asylums for the insane, in prison discipline and similar matters. At length his efforts in the session of 1835—just fifty years ago—culminated in the appointment, by resolution of the House of Assembly, of Doctors Charles Duncombe, Thomas D. Morrison and William Bruce, Commissioners, to enquire, amongst other things, into "the system and management of schools and colleges" in the United States and elsewhere. Two of these commissioners deputed their colleague, Dr. Duncombe, to "go on a journey to the United States, or elsewhere, to obtain such information as is desired by a resolution" of the House of Assembly in that behalf. Six hundred dollars were granted by the House to defray the expenses of this enquiry.

Late in 1835 Dr. Duncombe went on his mission of enquiry to the United States, and visited literary institutions in the Western, Middle, Eastern and some of the Southern States of the Union. He also obtained detailed information as to education in England, France and Prussia, and embodied the result in an elaborate report of nearly sixty pages and an appendix of one hundred and sixty pages. To this report he annexed the draft of a School Bill, extending to twenty-two pages, with a variety of forms and instructions appended. The whole document embraced two hundred and sixty pages of printed matter. The report is minute and exhaustive in its treatment of the subject in hand, although somewhat discursive and speculative in many parts. It is, nevertheless, in the light of to-day, both interesting and instructive. It presents a vivid picture, and not a very flattering one, of the condition of education in the United States and in Europe. Its discussions of special subjects—such as female education, classical studies, the management of colleges and universities, etc., etc.—are fair and enlightened, and, on the whole, intelligent and practical in their character.

It is clear that the Legislative Council

of the day, as was usual on all school questions, did not sympathize with Dr. Duncombe in his zeal for popular education. The Bill which he had so carefully prepared, although adopted by the House of Assembly by a vote of 35 to 10, failed to receive the sanction of the Council. His proposition to increase the common school grant from \$22,600 to \$80,000 per annum was considered too great a step in advance and was not therefore pressed to a vote in the House of Assembly. He, however, got two influential committees appointed to deal with the questions of public education and school lands. These committees were subsequently united and enlarged. They did good service and kept public interest awakened as to the value of the important subjects entrusted to them.

The report, be it remembered, speaks of events and educational facts of fifty years ago. They are of special interest to us of to-day, since they form the background, so to speak, of our own educational history and progress. I shall make a few extracts. Dr. Duncombe says:—

"The first principles of the system recommended in this report with regard to common schools, schools for the education of the poorer classes, and for the education of teachers (or the normal schools) made their appearance almost simultaneously in Great Britain and on the Continent, as appears by the voluminous reports of Lord Brougham . . . and by Mr. Dick's very able and splendid report upon the common schools . . . of Scotland, and by M. Cousin's reports of the schools in Prussia and Germany, and Bulver's observations upon education as a prevention of crime in France. . . . The glimmering of this beacon light was soon seen across the ocean, and lighted up a similar flame in the United States. Commissioner after commissioner was sent to Scotland and to England by the authority of their State Legislatures to light their lamps at the fountain of science, that the whole continent of America might be ignited by the flame."

Dr. Duncombe's observations in regard to the state of education in the United States are interesting, as by contrast they illustrate the remarkable progress made in that country during the last half century in the matter of public education. He says:—

"In the United States, where they devote much time and expense towards the promotion of literature, they are equally destitute of a system of national education with ourselves; and although by their greater exertion to import the improvements made in Great Britain and on the Continent, and their numerous attempts at systematizing these modern modes of education . . . they have placed themselves in advance of us in their common school system. Yet, after all, their schools seemed to me to be good schools on bad or imperfect systems; they seem groping in the dark, no instruction in the past to guide the future, no beacon light, no council of wise men to guide them, more than we have, upon the subject of common schools. Our schools want in character, they want respectability, they want permanency in their character and in their support. . . . It should be so arranged that all the inhabitants should contribute something towards the [maintenance of the school fund], and all those who are benefited directly by it should pay, in proportion to such benefit, a small sum, but quite enough to interest them in the prudent expenditure of their share of the school moneys."

The objection to a liberal education being too freely given for the benefit of the learned professions seems to have been urged even in these days. Dr. Duncombe answers it in the following language:—

"It has been supposed that there are too many in the learned professions already, and that, therefore, there are too many who obtain a liberal education. But this opinion is founded upon two errors: One is, that every liberally educated man must be above manual labor, and must, therefore, enter one of the learned professions; and the other is, that all who do enter these professions do it, and have a right to do it, from personal and family interests, and not for the public good—whereas a liberal education ought not to unfit a man, whether in his physical constitution or his feelings, for active business in any honest employment; and neither ought men who enter any of the learned professions to excuse themselves from labor and privation for the good of the world. There is a great and pernicious error on this subject."

The question of free education is thus discussed by Dr. Duncombe:—

"Nothing is more important in the formation of an enterprising character than to let the youth early learn his own powers; and in order to this, he must be put upon his own resources, and must understand, if he is ever [to be] anything, he must make himself, and that he has within himself all the means for his own advancement. It is not desirable, therefore, that institutions should be so richly endowed as to furnish the means of education free of expense to those who are of an age to help themselves; nor is it desirable that any man, or any society of men, should furnish an entirely gratuitous education to the youth of the Province. All the necessary advantages for educating himself ought to be put within the reach of the young man, and if, with these advantages, he cannot do much towards it he is not worthy of an education."

After discussing several other topics in his report, Dr. Duncombe made a striking forecast of the educational future of Upper Canada. He said:—"Was there ever a more auspicious period than the present for literary reform? If I rightly understand the signs of the times, we stand upon the threshold of a new dispensation in the science of education, and especially in the history of common schools, colleges and universities in this Province. The flattering prospects of our being permitted legally to dispose of the school lands of this Province, so long dormant—the sale and appropriation of the clergy reserves for the purposes of education, and, above all, by our having control of the other natural resources of the Province, we shall be enabled to provide respectably and permanently for the support of literary institutions in every part of the Province, while by remodelling the charter of King's College, so as to adapt the institution to the present state of the science of education, and the wishes and wants of the people of this Province. . . . With such charming prospects before us, with what alacrity and delight can we approach the subject of education to make liberal, permanent and efficient provision for the education of all the youth of Upper Canada, to cause 'the blind to see, the deaf to hear and the dumb to speak,' and, above all, to make certain and extensive provision for the support of schools for teachers and tutoresses." . . .

It is sad to think that to the writer of these cheering, hopeful words, the future so vividly pictured by him became suddenly darkened, and the pleasant hopes in which he then indulged were never realized by him or by many of those who, half a century ago, were like him so active in promoting the great cause of popular and collegiate education in this Province. Within one year Dr. Duncombe was a "proscribed rebel," as were many others who with him saw as in a vision the future which, fifty years ago, he pictured for Upper Canada.

*George Hopkins*

#### A NEW DEPARTURE IN TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

I HAVE little to say upon the subject as far as it concerns the upper grades of the Grammar School and the High School. Those maps may be used which are liberally furnished with information, provided rational instruction has preceded in the lower schools. Teachers of higher grades have just cause for complaint. Their pupils have not acquired a knowledge of geography as they should have done. The memory (evidently the faculty upon which we have to rely most in teaching geography) retains willingly only that which has gone through reason and understanding. Whatever the mind does not grasp is difficult to remember. Not everything to be learned can be understood, however, still, we may make it palatable and digestible by connecting with it incidents of interest. So for instance, a child who hears the laughable story which led to the naming of Cape Finisterre, and the trivial reason for the naming of Cape Cod, or Cape Farewell, or Cape Verd, etc., will not easily forget these names. All this is so self-evident, that I feel as if I paid small compensation to you by repeating it. But I do it to point out the utter absurdity of learning geography from the printed text. Here are a few tid-bits of information as found in some geographies.

"Zenith and Nadir are two Arabic words imparting their own signification." (How lucid!) "Land is either level or diversified by elevations or depressions." (How wonderfully clear to children this must be!) "Commerce exists in the exchange of commodities." (Is it possible?) "North America, lying in three zones, and traversed by lofty mountain ranges, is marked by astounding varieties of climate and productions." (Will not this cause mental dyspepsia?) "Extensive forests of deciduous trees cover this section." "Indian mounds of an unknown antiquity are found in Georgia." Verily, we cannot thank kind Providence enough for having gifted the human memory with the happy faculty of throwing off what has not gone

through the mill of reason and understanding. What a frightful waste of energy is there in schools where such unpalatable and indigestible matter is set before the pupils who are told to "study" their geography lesson.

I cannot refrain from quoting Goethe; the temptation is too great. We find in Goetz von Berlichingen the following conversation: Goetz, Lord of Faxthausen, returns home, and meets his son Carl. Carl.—"Good morning, father." Goetz (kisses him).—"Good morning, boy; how have you all spent your time?" Carl.—"Well, good father, Auntie says I was right good." Goetz.—"Indeed?" Carl.—"I have learned a great deal." Goetz.—"Indeed?" Carl.—"Shall I tell you the story of the good boy?" Goetz.—"After dinner, not now." Carl.—"I know something else." Goetz.—"What may that be?" Carl.—"Faxthausen is the name of a village and castle on the river Faxt, belonging to the Lord of Berlichingen for the last 200 years." Goetz.—"Do you know the Lord of Berlichingen?" (Carl looks at him in mute astonishment.) Goetz (aside).—"The boy has become so learned that he does not know his own father. (To the boy) To whom does Faxthausen belong?" Carl (reciting).—"Faxthausen is the name of a village and castle on the river Faxt—" Goetz.—"I did not ask for that. (Aside) I knew all the paths, roads and fords before I knew the name of river, castle and village."

Now I do not mean to accuse the teachers of to-day of teaching with such results as Goethe here describes it to have been done in the Middle Ages. But I mean to state, that we are constantly subjected to the temptation to thus teach geography, as long as we have text-books. What can a teacher mean, when assigning a lesson in such a book? What else, than to commit verbally to memory such and such a page. That this is literally true, is seen the next day, when he "hears his classes." He conducts recitations. What is a recitation? Webster and Worcester say: "A recitation is a repetition of something committed to memory."

Now I certainly do not denounce recitations in geography, or in any other study, for I want my pupils to frequently repeat what they have learned, but I expect and require them to do it in their own words. A definition wrought out in the mind of the child by his own self-activity, even if it do not cover the entirety of the subject, is vastly better than one committed from the printed page.

To sum up: The ideal method in the lower grades, of course, is to let the children make the acquaintance of Mother Nature herself. That being out of the question in many cases, we can imitate her, and mold those objects which will give the primary notions and ideas absolutely necessary for the subsequent abstract instruction. When these primary ideas are well established, when the child

has become acquainted with the position of the schoolhouse, yard and neighborhood, with the cardinal points, with the city and its vicinity, with the river or the lake, as the case may be, when he has gained some definite ideas of distance, when he is able to comprehend the relation between reality and its representation, then such practice-maps as I have described, both relief and flat-surfaced maps, and in absence of these, the black-board, may be used. We must remember that "a good teacher is known from the intensity of attention with which the pupils follow his instruction, and from the amount of crayon he uses." And as to text-books—let them be atlases, containing no text whatever. The maps should be elementary maps, not overstocked with data and lettering of all kinds, tending to blur the child's image of the respective country or section. Let these maps be accompanied by illustrations of cities, landscapes, vegetable productions, animals, modes of communications, and occupations, buildings, etc., etc. *But do away with the terrible temptation to make the pupils thoughtless prattlers.*—L. R. Klem, at the Ohio Teachers' Association.

#### FIRST-CLASS CERTIFICATES.

THE following candidates have passed the first-class examinations held at Toronto and Ottawa, July, 1885:—

##### NON-PROFESSIONAL.

Grade C.—Jennie Louise Cuzner, David A. Nesbitt, Allan C. Smith, Alex. Wheny, Guv. Ambrose Andrews, Albert Barber, Martha Bobby, Herbert H. Burgess, Harry Rosely, Thos. James Collins, Elizabeth J. Cox, James B. Davidson, Chas. S. Falconer, Lewis K. Fallis, Thos. D. Guardhouse, Fannie L. Gillespie, Albert E. Jewett, Jesse b. Kaiser, Edwin Loftus, Wm. E. Long, Edwin Longman, Jesse McRae, Wilson S. Morden, James W. Morgan, James Norris, Henry R. A. O'Malley, Sidney Philip, John Ritchie, Samuel B. Sinclair, Wilson R. Smith, Fred L. Sawyer, Joseph A. Snell, James R. Stuart, David R. Weir, David J. Wright, Robert B. Watson, David Young.

Grade B.—George Baird, sen., Neil W. Campbell, William W. Ireland, Hugh S. McLean, David Robb, Robert R. Row.

Grade A.—William H. Harlton, William Irwin, Joseph A. Snell.

##### PROFESSIONAL.

Elizabeth J. Cox, John Ritchie, Samuel B. Sinclair, Catharine Pilson, Robert C. Rose, Thos. A. Craig, Thos. Swift, Henry Bewell, David A. Burgess, Harold Clark, Alex. C. Casselman, Walter H. Davis, Amelia Harris, Allen Hutchinson, David H. Lent, Alfred Orr, Alvin Orton, Sylvester Moyer, John G. McKechnie, Samuel R. Reynolds, Thos. W. Standing, Wilson Taylor, David M. Walker, Edward W. Bruce, Robt. J. Sangster.

TORONTO:

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1885.

## MUTUAL ASSISTANCE.

SCHOOLMASTERS and schoolmistresses have by this time once more met together for another long term of teaching. They have come back, the majority of them let us hope, with brains cleared, spirits brightened, health improved, and ambition strengthened. They are looking forward with anticipations of pleasure to the work before them. They are hoping to achieve more than ever before they have been able to achieve. They are thinking of how strenuously they will do all in their power to preserve the good feeling existing between each other and between them and their pupils. It is a laudable and an encouraging spirit. It will not be out of place here to enquire how these praiseworthy sentiments evoked by the pleasures and recreations of the vacation can be most easily continued and enhanced.

Teachers have much in common. Few lines of life permit of such intimate intercourse amongst the members of one calling as that of teaching. But of this so fruitful a source of friendship, teachers rarely make the best use. A five minutes' conversation at recess, perhaps a short walk after school hours, added to an occasional evening spent in each other's company—often this is all that most teachers see of each other. Lawyers will meet together weekly to discuss knotty legal questions, physicians attend regularly medical associations, and to the clergy various means are open of seeing and conversing with each other at regular intervals. The schoolmaster alone, as far as social intercourse is concerned, seems to stand alone. This is a pity, more than a pity. So many are the advantages of bringing mind in contact with mind, that we should imagine the schoolmaster—whose intellectual faculties so often stand in need of being sharpened (do we not all at times feel this?)—would of all others contrive to invent means by which this should be possible.

The obstacles to such intercourse we know are not small. There are the differences of social rank, of tastes, of ages, of temperaments, of mental and domestic habits—all these are more or less obstacles to the regular meeting together of schoolmasters and mistresses. There

is the feeling of inertia after the day's labors are ended. There is the necessity of glancing over or preparing the next day's lessons. There is the quiet game of whist or the more enticing curling match. There is that book from the Mechanics' Institute still unfinished. Above all, there are wife and children at home. Yes; these are all obstacles. But—they are not insurmountable ones. The whist and the curling may be forgone once in a while. The book can be renewed. On Friday evening there are no lessons, and on Saturday evening perhaps the husband is as well out of the house. In brief, the benefits that accrue from mixing with one's fellow teachers for the express purpose of indulging in some sensible conversation are or ought to be sufficiently great to lead one to give up this or that pleasure or gaiety, and remove this or that impediment.

The value and reality of these benefits are not, we imagine, open to dispute. It is to intellectual men above all others that such a source of benefit is discoverable. It is in the biographies of intellectual men that we see such stress laid upon literary clubs, talented friends, intellectual companionships, serious conversations. We have salient examples of this on all sides too numerous to mention. How much did Byron owe to Shelley's daily visits when they found themselves together in Italy? How much did the late Earl of Beaconsfield owe to the society of the father of the present Lord Lytton? But even to begin to cite instances is out of the question.

The society of teachers amongst themselves, then, in which the conversation shall be on topics unconnected with the weather or politics, is, we must grant, an object worthy of much sacrifice.

Seeing this, should we not each of us individually do what we can to bring it about? If so, how? This is a question to be answered differently by every teacher in every school. It is impossible to lay down any general rules by which to guide our actions in this matter. *Sociableness* is of so brittle a nature that any the slightest attempt to alter its form is apt to bring about its total destruction. Men and women will not be dictated to as to whom they will associate with or as to the manner in which that association shall be brought about. This perhaps is the chief obstacle against which those who attempt

to create a better order of things will find they are obliged to contend. It is none the less our duty to contend against it. This brittleness is after all a mere matter of prejudice: an incrustation deposited by vanity or envy. Nevertheless, it prevents, as we have said, any general rules being laid down by which to make easier this attempt to bring about the sensible intercourse of teachers.

It will not, it is hoped, be considered egotistical if we here call to mind a plan by which we once attempted to make the best possible use of our friends' talents in a sociable way. It was that each member of the compact was to jot down on paper in the form of a question any little difficulty which he encountered in his week's reading or thinking. It was hoped that by means of the different bents of the members of the compact what was unintelligible to one might be explained by another. The purely literary man would have his metaphysical difficulties removed by the philosopher; both would bring physical or mathematical problems to the mathematician; and the two latter would go for information on artistic principles to the first. There would be an interchange of information. Each would aid the other. An all sidedness would obtain. One was elected a sort of "*custos rotulorum*" in order that the questions and such answers as were written might be preserved.

Does this seem to our readers a purely visionary and impracticable scheme? Not altogether, we think. All of us probably have seen the rise and fall of "literary societies," "reading clubs," "Shakespeare clubs," "polymathical circles," and such like. How many of these soon become little else but an excuse for small talk and a substantial supper? The great thing is to get people together who are enthusiastic about what they have come together for. And enthusiasm is a producible and augmentable factor. And the best way to produce and augment it is—not to wait till it makes its appearance, but to encourage its birth and to foster its growth by forcibly putting aside all that hinders these.

With these suggestions we may safely leave the subject in our readers' hands. But a hint in the form of a query is perhaps permissible. *Might we not look to the headmaster to take the initiative in such matters?*

## OUR EXCHANGES.

THE *Magazine of Art* for September is an interesting number. The frontispiece is from Alma Tadema's "Who is it?" "The Dart" is illustrated with three beautiful engravings. The "Poem and Picture" is entitled, "On Calais Sands," and is the joint production of A. Lang and Seymour Lucas. The article on a comparatively light topic is Richard Heath's "Female Head-gear: Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries." The article of most value to educators is Harry V. Barnett's "Drawing in Elementary Schools." The writer is in great dread lest, now that drawing is incorporated in the English code, it will not be the proper sort of drawing that will be taught. He is afraid, too, that the teachers of drawing will not be masters who are *en rapport* with their pupils, who will not be in sympathy with them, will have no personal interest in them. He objects to specialists as drawing masters. "Drawing," Mr. Barnett says, "if its effects are to be lasting, must be practised day by day, just as reading, writing, and arithmetic are practised. But your special teacher appears on the scene only for an hour or two twice a week at the most." And so on. Mr. Barnett's views on the value of drawing to the elementary school pupil are worth quoting:—

"It is now generally agreed that the systematic and compulsory teaching of drawing to young children is a very beneficial part of their preparation for the practical work of life. If, having learned at school to describe things with a pencil, they afterwards enter those trades in which a knowledge of drawing is necessary, they find their initial difficulties very much lightened, they are ready to begin practical work at once, instead of having first to learn the A B C. And if, on the other hand, the business they take up does not demand a knowledge of drawing, then, it is argued, they have lost nothing by being taught it, because it is, apart from its special utility in various handicrafts, a good general training for the mind: you cannot draw even a very little without observing and thinking, for which, I believe, no one is ever the worse. Many people seem to suppose that the chief object of teaching drawing to children is to make them great artists. This is a fine old crusted British superstition, handed down from the days of dismal ignorance and vague ambition. It would be just as reasonable to suppose that the chief object we have in teaching everybody to read and write is to make everybody a man of letters. Drawing is in this sense one of the things which it is useful to be able to practise, and is in some trades a part of elementary knowledge even more necessary than reading or writing."

The *New York School Journal* maintains its reputation in the number before us. It opens with an article on the late General Grant, culling from his life useful lessons for teachers. Amongst its editorial notes is one advocating the formation of a "Correspondence Class." Each class is to be divided into grades, grades into circles, and each circle to have a secretary. We will give the proposition in full in a future issue.

The *Canadian Science Monthly* is a little periodical which deserves encouragement. The contents for the last number we are possessed of are as follows:—Notes on the Birds of Manitoba, Asphalt, Cranberry Sports, Tests for Tin Ore, The Home of the Pitcher Plant, etc. There is abundant scope for scientific research throughout the length and breadth of this Dominion of ours, and a purely Canadian monthly magazine devoted to science ought, one would think, to be the proper vehicle for the spread of information upon scientific topics.

## BOOK REVIEW.

*Obiter Dicta*. New York: John B. Alden, 1885. 115 pp.

This is a series of short essays on "Carlyle," "On the Alleged Obscurity of Mr. Browning's Poetry," "Truth Hunting," "Actors," "A Rogue's Memoirs," "The *Via Media*," and "Falstaff." *Obiter Dicta* is decidedly characteristic of the thought of to-day and of the form which the expression of thought takes on. There is a ring of Matthew Arnold about it—in this typicalness of modern ways we mean. The writer (his name, we believe, is A. Birrell) says what he has to say in so *piquant*, spicy, even, we may say, pungent a way, that whether we agree with him or not we read him with gusto. It is as though we treated ourselves to food about the quality of which we were undecided, but which was dished up with such delicious dressing that each morsel was exquisitely relished. This is one trait which is of the essence of to-day, of a to-day which eschews Barrow, Hooker, Jeremy Taylor, and such like weighty writers of prose. Mr. Birrell has read everything modern, too, and he polishes off whole philosophies in a single phrase. He touches lightly on the gravest topics, as if he were a little *blasé* and thought that you, his reader, ought to be so too. Even when he has a deep, brilliant, and good thought to give you (and he has many of them) he gives it you with a sort of shrug of the shoulders. He is a little sarcastic now and then, but is sarcastic only as a thorough man of the world would be—only with such persons and objects as no one can say are beneath his notice. To give an example:—

"Our first duty, then, is to consider Mr. Browning in his whole scope and range, or, in a word, generally. This is a task of such dimensions and difficulty as, in the language of joint-stock prospectuses, "to transcend individual enterprise," and consequently, as we all know, a company has been recently floated, or a society established, having Mr. Browning for its principal object. It has a president, two secretaries, male and female, and a treasurer. You pay a guinea, and you become a member. A suitable reduction is, I believe, made in the unlikely event of all the members of one family flocking to be enrolled. The existence of this society is a great relief, for it enables us to deal with our unwieldy theme in a light-hearted manner, and to refer those who have a passion for solid information and profound philosophy to the printed transactions of this learned society, which, lest we should forget all about it, we at once do."

But *Obiter Dicta* has been so often quoted that we must refrain. Everybody should read it.

## Table Talk.

A NEW monthly magazine, to be called *Hibernia*, is announced. It is intended "to allow fair discussion of all subjects interesting to Irish readers."

PROF. SCHERER'S "History of German Literature," which has had great success in Germany, is soon to appear in an English translation, revised and carried through the press by Prof. Max Müller.

PRINCE IBRAHIM HILMI, son of the ex-Khedive Ismail, will shortly publish through Trübner & Co., an exhaustive work on the literature of the

Soudan, ancient, mediæval, and modern. The bibliography will embrace printed books, periodicals, MSS., maps, drawings, etc.

THE *Scientific American* states that plush goods, and all articles dyed with aniline colors, faded from exposure to light, will look bright as ever after being sponged with chloroform. The commercial chloroform will answer the purpose very well, and is less expensive than the purified.

MRS. F. J. FARGUS, "Hugh Conway's" widow, has authorized Henry Holt & Co. to publish "A Family Affair" in this country. The novel has had a successful run in the *English Illustrated*. Mr. Fargus' English publishers are about to print a memoir of him, in which will be included several of his early and unpublished writings.

THE new special delivery by the Post Office Department is to be tried in New York; and, after it is inaugurated, one will only have to place a special ten-cent stamp on his letter in addition to the regular postage, and for this extra amount the epistle will be promptly delivered by special messenger. This messenger service will deliver letters at any hour between 7 a.m. and midnight.

THE *Literary World* (London) says that Mr. T. H. Darwin is making progress with the biography of his father. It is stated that the volume will contain an interesting account of Darwin's method of research, and will present a true picture of the great naturalist's home and daily life. Mr. Murray will publish the book, it is hoped, before the year is out.

VICTOR HUGO'S literary testament places all his manuscripts in the hands of his three friends, Paul Meurice, Auguste Vacquerie, and Ernest Lefevre, who are charged to publish his complete works and to arrange and edit carefully all fragmentary writings. The testator says: "This last category of works will, I think, form several volumes, and will be published under the title of *Océan*. Almost all that category was written during my exile. I restore to the sea what I received from her." A fund of one hundred thousand francs is set aside by Victor Hugo for the publication of his works. The publication of his letters is left to the discretion of the executors. The will, written throughout by Victor Hugo, is dated September 23, 1875.

THE numbers of the *Living Age* for July 18 and 25 contain The First Epoch in the Italian Renaissance, and a Visit to the Temple of Heaven at Peking, *London Quarterly*; Wyclif and the Bible, *Fortnightly*; The Irish Parliament of 1782, *Nineteenth Century*; Stuart Pretenders, *Scottish Review*; Bismarck as a Diplomatist, and the Russian Armament, *Temple Bar*; From "Reminiscences of My Life," by Mary Howitt, *Good Words*; The Matchmakers' Euclid, *Longmans*; A Brother of the Misericordia, and Bee and Ant Phenomena, *Chambers' Journal*; Music and Musicians, and Nature in London, *All the Year Round*; Eighth Centenary of Gregory VII., *Saturday Review*; Marmalade-Making, and the Civilization of Savages, *St. James' Gazette*; The Franco-Chinese Treaty and British Trade, *Economist*; Afloat with a Florida Sponger, *Field*; with instalments of "A House Divided Against Itself," "Fortune's Wheel," "Schwartz: a History," "A Passenger from Shanghai," and poetry.

## Special Papers.

### MATTHEW ARNOLD AS A MASTER OF STYLE.

#### II.

(Concluded from a previous issue.)

BUT Matthew Arnold's greatest power, as a prose writer, is his wonderful lucidity. His ease and gracefulness, his simplicity, his poetical tendency, his aestheticism are all remarkable, and constitute the charm of his writings; but the way in which they are subordinated to the subject matter, the theme of the work, exhibits his peculiar power; we constantly feel that each of these charms is, in its turn, used simply to illustrate and to further the lucidity of expression. They are the tools, so to speak, with which he works to produce this, the greatest of all effects. Herein is his strength as a writer. Other great prose writers, perhaps, impress us more strongly; but we find that they generally depend for this impression upon the use of rhetorical figures, or epigram, or startling constructions; we feel that the power of the thought is increased by these means, and that it needs them to make it so strong. But just the reverse is the case with Matthew Arnold. We find that the thought is stronger than the expression; that there is always reserve power; that all these charms of expression are but vehicles of the idea and serve simply to lay it before us as plainly and lucidly as possible; and so we come to feel that Mr. Arnold's work is always strong, often irresistible. Examples of this power are numerous in "Culture and Anarchy" and "Literature and Dogma." A good specimen, too long for quotation, is to be found at the close of the sixth chapter of the latter book. We have only space for the following from "Culture and Anarchy." He is describing the three great classes in England, which he calls *Barbarians*, *Philistines* and *Populace*. "As to the populace, who, whether he be Barbarian or Philistine, can look at them without sympathy, when he remembers how often every time that we snatch up a vehement opinion in ignorance and passion, every time that we long to crush an adversary by sheer violence, every time that we are envious, every time that we are brutal, every time that we adore mere power or success, every time that we add our voice to swell a blind clamor against some unpopular personage, every time that we trample savagely on the fallen he has found in his own bosom the eternal spirit of the populace, and there needs only a little help from circumstances to make it triumph in him untamably." That is strong writing; and yet it is not strong merely because of the power of words, or of the cast of the sentence; it is not strong on account of declamation, for there is no declamation. It is strong because we are placed in perfect sympathy with the thought; it is

so strong because these epithets are not directly pronounced against the Populace, but are put in the form of an irresistible appeal to our reason.

It is hard to point out extracts which particularly exemplify the lucidity of Mr. Arnold's writing; it is harder to find a sentence in which there is anything of obscurity. Over forty passages in the prose works have been marked which are models of clearness; but it is impossible to quote them all here. It may be said that the most numerous and best examples are to be found in "Literature and Dogma" and "Celtic Literature," the two greatest of the prose works. One or two excerpts from each must suffice. In speaking of the necessity of sound literary criticism of the New Testament records, he says: "This literary criticism, however, is extremely difficult. It calls into play the highest requisites for the study of letters:—great and wide acquaintance with the history of the human mind, knowledge of the manner in which men have thought, of their way of using words, and of what they meant by them, delicacy of perception and quick tact, and besides all these a favorable moment and the *Zeit-Geist*." Again, in discussing the difference between Protestantism and Catholicism, he says: "Protestantism has the method of Jesus with his secret left too much out of mind; Catholicism has his secret with his method left too much out of mind. Neither has his unerring balance, his intention, his *sweet reasonableness*. But both have hold of a great truth, and get from it a great power." Or take this from "Celtic Literature": "The sensibility of the Celt, if everything else were not sacrificed to it, is a beautiful and admirable force. For sensibility, the power of quick and strong perception and emotion, is one of the very prime constituents of genius, perhaps its most positive constituent; it is to the soul what good senses are to the body, the grand natural condition of successful activity. Sensibility gives genius its materials; one cannot have too much of it, if one can but keep its master and not be its slave. Do not let us wish that the Celt had had less sensibility, but that he had been more master of it." Or, last of all, from "Essays in Criticism": "I have said that poetry interprets in two ways, it interprets by expressing with magical felicity the physiognomy and movement of the outward world, and it interprets by expressing with inspired conviction, the ideas and laws of the inward world of man's moral and spiritual nature. In other words, poetry is interpretative both by having *natural magic* in it, and by having *moral profundity*." In fact, this feature of lucidity is seen in many different ways throughout Mr. Arnold's works. It is seen in the happiness of his illustrations, as, for example, the three Lord Shaftesburys in "Literature and Dogma"; it is seen in the titles of his books

and in the headings of the chapters, especially the chapters of the book just mentioned: it is seen in the numerical division of the chapters wherever the subject is of sufficient difficulty to require conciseness of treatment; and, above all, it is seen in the clear methodical way in which he invariably approaches his subject; how he takes up point by point, goes back and reiterates his main ideas in fresh wording for the sake of emphasis, and finally sums up. The chapter entitled "Sweetness and Light," in "Culture and Anarchy," is perhaps the best example of this. The summing up on page thirty-seven, is faultless: "The pursuit of perfection, then, is the pursuit of sweetness and light. He who works for sweetness and light, works to make reason and the will of God prevail. He who works for machinery, he who works for hatred, works only for confusion. Culture looks beyond machinery, culture hates hatred; culture has one great passion, the passion for sweetness and light. It has one even yet greater!—the passion for making them prevail." And so on, in the same rhythmical, heightened, modulated language.

But the limits of this paper are already reached, and some things must be left unsaid. It would be interesting to notice Mr. Arnold's satire, always gentle and playful, never harsh and caustic, never going beyond vivacity; it would be interesting to notice his peculiar habit of repeating words and phrases in the sentence, and the effect of this on his style; but we must pass on to notice very briefly his defects. And this it is difficult to do, because he is so far above the great mass of writers of the present day; indeed, there is perhaps, only one who may be said to be, in all respects, his equal. One of Mr. Arnold's defects seems to be that he lacks epigram and the power of expressing a thought with epigrammatic precision. But it was said before, in his praise, that he did not rely on epigram and startling constructions for his effectiveness. This is true; but it was pointed out that there the epigram gave importance to the thought, and was, therefore, not used so as to produce the highest effect. What is lacking in Mr. Arnold is nervous energy, and, since his diction is always subject to the thought, it is impossible for him to make use of epigrammatic expressions which would enliven and brighten up his work. This is Goldwin Smith's great strength as a writer—the power to express in nervous, energetic, highly-wrought language, strong, well-defined thought. Here we may fitly institute a comparison between these two masters of English prose. This, however, leads us to define literary style. It may be said that a good literary style consists in the adequate expression of the best thought of a well-trained, highly-cultured mind. This will, at any rate, do for our present purpose.

Now both these minds are well-trained, highly cultivated, both adequately express the best thought of which they are capable. The difference, therefore, between them is this:—Matthew Arnold has directed his best thought to matters which affect the inner life; he has developed the poetic tendency of his mind; he is, indeed, the apostle of culture. He is constantly striving after continuance, both of thought and expression. He seems to have in his style, as a result of his own aversion to controversy, which, as he says, results only in loss of temper and the truth sought after, a singular absence of strong words, that is, words expressive of strong deep feelings; his single aim seems to be for dignity and serenity. Goldwin Smith, on the other hand, has given his best thought to the outward influences of action and conduct in every-day life. It has been his duty to write on matters which affect the welfare of the community, and the tendency of his mind has been directed to history and political speculation. His style is one in which alertness and precision predominate, and it has become epigrammatic and incisive. Thus both writers are equally masters of style, in very different ways.

Another defect in Mr. Arnold's style is that his literary excellence is too evenly balanced, and runs too much on one level. This may seem a strange objection to take where that level is so high, so much above other men's level. Yet so it is; we find ourselves wishing that some parts were written not so well, so that the marked passages might stand out more clearly. The defect is in the man himself. We feel that there is too little real passion. If there were more we should have results much greater, great as are his literary achievements. As it is, it is hard to find a passage which grafts itself upon the mind, which stirs our emotions and fascinates us. Passages of great beauty there are and passages of eloquence, but not passages of transcendent beauty and eloquence. In his best work he rises to a certain height without effort; but beyond that point he seems unable to go. He is at his best when the predominant feeling is pathetic, as, for example, in the following:—"Poor Israel! poor *ancient* people! It was revealed to thee that righteousness is salvation. The question what righteousness is, was thy stumbling-stone. Seer of the vision of peace, that yet couldst not see the things which belong unto thy peace! With that blindness thy solitary pre eminence ended, and the new Israel, made up out of all nations and languages, took thy room. But, thy visitation complete, thy temple in ruins, thy reign over, thine office done, thy children dispersed, thy teeth drawn, thy shekels of silver and gold plundered, did there yet stay with thee any remembrance of the primitive intuition, simple and sublime, of the *Eternal that loveth righteousness?*"

If we were asked to express Matthew Arnold's characteristic as a writer in one word it would be this—*dignity*. The feeling one inwardly gets on perusing a book of his is—how judicious! There is nothing out of place, no grammatical blunders, no words but the best words, no indistinctness of thought, no carelessness of expression, everything fits into its place perfectly. These things in themselves would constitute but small title to high praise. But when they underlie noble and lofty thought; when the subject is felt to receive importance simply from his treatment of it, when it comes to us with a power which so affects us as to reach above and beyond criticism, then we say the man is a master, and we willingly accord him a place among the highest. To this place Matthew Arnold is fully entitled; he gains much and loses but little when compared with other great contemporary writers, and this is high praise in an age in which the English language has so nearly reached perfection. Whether his works contain the germ of life which will cause them to be read and enjoyed by posterity, as they are now, cannot be asserted confidently; but this may be said with confidence, they will continue to be admired as models of purity and the best literary style of the Victorian age. With such praise as this even Mr. Arnold may rest content.

J. O. MILLER.

#### HOW TO TEACH TO READ ENGLISH.

[This paper was to have been read before the recent Ontario Teachers' Convention held in Toronto.]

PROF. MEIKLEJOHN, of St. Andrew's University, says: "The problem of teaching children to read has, in my belief, never yet been fully faced or thoroughly solved. There is no similar problem in Germany; a somewhat similar, but not nearly so difficult, problem exists in France. But it is only in England, of all the countries in Europe, that we meet with the problem in a form of extreme difficulty; and the want of a solution that shall bring confidence with it in all our primary schools, makes itself still everywhere felt."

It may here be briefly stated that the whole difficulty complained of arises from the almost endless variety in the modes of representing our spoken words by their written and printed signs or letters.

It will thus be seen that the remedy lies in one of two directions:—1st. To spell our words as we pronounce them; or, 2nd, to pronounce them as we spell them, giving the same sound to the same letter without exception.

It may be safely assumed that the second mode is impracticable. No one has yet chosen this way of solving the problem.

The first mode, however, has been adopted by numerous philologists, who have, without exception, recognized the true solution of the difficulties to be in securing a phonetic base for the words of our language, that is, to spell all our words exactly as we pronounce them.

It is admitted by all that if such a phonetic base can be devised which would command universal assent the whole task in hand would be finished. In such case reading and spelling would come of themselves immediately upon such an alphabet being acquired by a pupil. One word would be no more difficult to him than another, and whoever could pronounce a word, could spell, read and write it correctly in the alphabet taught.

Phonetic alphabets have been devised by Isaac Pitman, the American Spelling Reform Association, Ellis, Sweet, Jones, Evans, Harley, Burns, Longley and many others, all having the same object in view, namely, to spell our words as we pronounce them.

Edwin Leigh has devised a system of teaching the sounds of our printed letters to pupils, which he has had laid down upon charts for the schoolroom, and various readers have been published upon it. Pitman has also had his system introduced into some public schools in England, but serious objections have been made to both these modes, the chief of which to Pitman's is that it changes the mode of spelling, and to both systems that they introduce new forms of letters and necessitate the unlearning by pupils in after years what has been taught them about the sounds of vowel signs when taking their first lessons.

What is required is a system that will not introduce any new forms of letters, or change the spelling; and, consequently, will not require pupils to unlearn anything taught them—a system that can be applied to writing or script as well as to printed letters, and lastly, one that can easily be brought to the comprehension of the young mind just beginning to obtain its first perceptions through the medium of books. It is evident that that system which best provides these several advantages is what is much needed in all our infant schools.

Such an alphabet the writer of this paper professes to have devised. One which embraces every word in the dictionary, placing them all upon a purely phonetic base without adding, striking out, or altering a letter. By it any sentence in English can be marked into pure phonotypy, so that a child taught in the alphabet would at once read such sentence at sight.

The alphabet possesses only our twenty-six letters, and gives, without fail, their true sound in every word. These letters are taught by pictures only, or key-words only, or by both combined, thus making possible

the acquisition of our language by the easiest mode, that of object teaching.

An adult who is somewhat of a scholar can acquire this alphabet of eighty-five letter-spaces, representing fifty-three sounds, in half an hour.

It is impracticable to set out the alphabet in this paper, but it may be said that the six vowels are arranged in regular numbered squares or divisions, each square bearing a certain mark, which applies to all the vowels of the square under each number. With each vowel is associated a picture and also a key-word. The name of the picture and the key-word both contain the sound of the vowel marked with the sign of that square or division.

To illustrate: Take the vowel *a*. This vowel is set down on this tablet as the third class vowel-sign, and fills each square of the nine divisions—the first division is designated by a long mark over the *a*; the second by an arrow-head; third is unmarked; the fourth has a bar and a dot over it; the fifth, two dots over the letter; the sixth, two dots under the letter; the seventh, one dot over; the eighth, a semicircle over; and the ninth, one dot over. It will thus be seen that nine sounds of *a* are given on the tablet. *A* has other sounds, but they are so exceptional that they are designated under the small list of "Expedients" which accompany the tablet.

The pictures representing these nine sounds of *a* are as follows, commencing with the long and ending with its shortest sound:—Ape, hawk, swallow, cart, bear, ass, fox, cat, elephant; and the key-words corresponding to each are, respectively:—Rake, all, father's farm, bearing, grass, what's that, company.

The name of each picture appears under it so that the child is taught to spell, read and write the names as it progresses through the vowel sounds.

It may be added that in acquiring the vowel tablet, the pupil has learned all the consonants except seven, namely:—*F* in "of"; *s* in "Asia"; *l* in "motion"; *x* in "exacting"; *x* in "Xantippe"; *ch* in "Christian"; and *g* in "gem."

The remaining vowels are treated in the same manner, so that by committing to memory six short sentences, the vowel sounds of our language are acquired together with the knowledge of what sounds we give to each vowel sign.

The consonants are disposed of in a similar manner, and are arranged in thirty-seven divisions, with their pictures and key-words; so that, by committing to memory a sentence consisting of thirty-seven words, the whole of the consonant signs and how we apply them are acquired.

In conclusion, it may be said that, aside from the object of learning to read and

write, the great advantages that would result from the teaching of such an alphabet to the young, in promoting and securing clear and correct pronunciation, cultivating elocutionary powers, musical taste and talent, and driving out all dialects except the one taught, would be secured, besides the gain of at least two years time to infants in their efforts to learn to read.

This alphabet is therefore submitted as containing the required solution of the problem of how to teach to read English.

C. P. SIMPSON.

## The Public School.

### ORAL, (i. e.) EARLY PRIMARY TEACHING.

AIM.—In preparing for a lesson, it is essential to see clearly the end to be attained; to fix the mental eye on a definite object, that the mental steps may be sure and direct. The teacher is therefore to consider first the aim, and secondly the best means of attaining it.

Every lesson should instruct the children, that is, it should carry to their minds and fix, some knowledge that was not there before. A real lesson, however, always trains, educates. It draws forth the powers of the mind to discover the knowledge, to seize it, to hold it, and to assimilate it; while by the exercise, the powers are strengthened and sharpened for future work.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE EDUCATIVE LESSON.—Take, for example, a lesson on the rivers of New England. The teacher throws up roughly with molding sand the surface of the region, calling particular attention to the high land. The children are led to examine very closely, and to look through the molding to the real surface, by reference to their own surroundings, and to note on slates or board, in simple language, what they see. They are then shown by familiar illustration, the character of the surface; that there are many depressions; that it is rocky, with a porous covering; that there is an abrupt break between the high and the coast land;—thus leading them to see for themselves that the rainfall does not run off quickly, but fills the depressions, and flows out from them in whatever direction the land dips; that it soaks in until it comes to the rock, following the dip of the rock, coming out at the lowest places and uniting there from many directions, and flowing off together in the direction of the slope of the land, thus forming many streams and rivers. These, they will be led to see, will soon wear through their earthy bottoms, and flow off over rocky beds, leaving at the junction of the high and the low lands a break, and that from the break they flow in a comparatively level bed

to the sea. They are then led to infer the main uses of the rivers.

The region is then placed upon board or slate, roughly, in both vertical and horizontal outline, and the molding and the outlines compared with the map. The children then point out on the molding the probable position and direction of flow of the rivers, and compare with the map. From the map, the names of the rivers are then obtained. These are fixed in memory by repetition, as the teacher or pupils point to the molding and map. The pupils are then required to point out the probable locations of manufactories, and the parts that are fitted for navigation, on both the molding and the map. In conclusion, the class are called upon to describe the position and uses of each, as it is pointed out.

In a lesson of this kind many powers of mind are employed: *imagination*, in picturing; *comparison*, *association*, and *inference* in reasoning as to the course of the water, location of manufacturing establishments, etc.; *language*, in the oral and written statement of the facts gained; and every power employed is disciplined by the exercise, and rendered more easy of control by the child's will.

Moreover, many new words are added to the child's vocabulary that will be of use in reading and language work, and geographically, a real picture, however imperfect, will be retained by the mind. Such is an example of an *educative* lesson.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE INSTRUCTIVE LESSON.—By the instruction method the same material may be dealt with, without any distinct aim at education, but simply with a view to instruct. The teacher employs mainly the map, and the children are called upon to notice the high and low land (in colors), the location of the high land, lakes, etc. From the map they are to see the direction of the high land, and of the rivers. The names of the main rivers having been learned from the map, the teacher explains their relative importance, uses, the location of manufacturing places, etc. This information is written upon slate and blackboard, and repeated until it is fixed in memory, and then with map, slate, and board work away, the pupils are questioned upon the information until the teacher is satisfied that it is producible on demand.

Such a lesson is of some advantage, but its main aim is evidently to put statements into the mind as if it were a vessel, rather than to lead the mind to seek and grasp knowledge for itself, as if it were a living thing. There is little exercise of the imagination, the map being studied more as the real thing, than as a means; there is no comparing or associating of unknown things with those already familiar, no inferring; and the language employed is meagre, and almost wholly supplied by the map, not

being an outgrowth of their own original thinking. Such a lesson is instructive, not educative.

It is to be noticed that both lessons give the same information, and require that it shall be impressed by repetition and questioning. But the educative lesson makes the information a means to training, not an end in itself. The demand of the age, of school systems, and of examinations, is generally the instructive lesson, for it gives facts which are producible on demand; while the educative lesson tends, in connection with its facts, to give training, which is only to a degree, producible on demand.

A member of Parliament, who was visiting a training school in England, had the difference between *training* and *instruction* explained thus: "The training teacher said, 'Sir, you perceive that the children are now reading part of the history of the oppression of the children of Israel in Egypt, and the next part of the chapter they are about to read is regarding their use of straw in making bricks, etc. Now, sir, I believe they do not know why straw was used, nor do they know whether the bricks in Egypt were dried in the sun or burned as in this country.' A few questions were put to the children, which proved that they did not know it, as the master supposed. The trainer then said to the member of Parliament, 'Were I to tell them, seeing they do not know, that would be *instructing*; but I shall not tell them, and I shall cause them to tell me the nature of the clay in Egypt compared with that in England, and whether the bricks were burned or dried there, and that will be *education*.'"

"The teacher repeated the fact that straw was used in making bricks in Egypt, as the children read from the Bible, but, of course, they were ignorant of the reason. He then brought out from them, by analogy, the difficulty of breaking a bunch of straw however thin—what the effect would be of layers of straw in parallel lines, being mixed with clay, while yet in a soft state, and afterwards dried—that the straw would render the bricks more tenacious, or at least less liable to break. He then brought out from the children that the bricks were not burned in Egypt, seeing, as they told him, that if so, the straw used would have been of no service, as in the process of burning the bricks, the straw would be reduced to ashes; that straw in this country would be of no use in making bricks, seeing that we burn them, and that we could not get them sufficiently dried in ordinary seasons by the sun, even in summer.

"From the nature of the climate of Egypt, with which they were familiar, it having been brought out in their geography lessons, they inferred that the bricks might be dried in the sun—also that the clay could not be

so firm, or solid, or tenacious as ours, since they required straw to strengthen it. They therefore thought that the clay in Egypt must be more sandy than ours, seeing that our bricklayers did not require straw to strengthen the bricks. Thus the mode of drying bricks in Egypt, and the nature of their clay compared with ours, was determined by *analogy* and *familiar illustration* without *telling*."

No primary teacher (and indeed no teacher) should be satisfied with the power and practice of loading that pack-horse of the mind—the memory—instead of training the mind. Every lesson should be made educative. To be able to do this the primary teacher needs to cultivate herself in several distinct lines.—*From the Indiana School Journal.*

## Educational Intelligence.

### AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

AMONG the subjects that came under discussion in connection with the Aberdeen meeting of the Highland and Agricultural Society one was the appointment to the vacant Chair of Agriculture in the University of Edinburgh. Hitherto, for some years past, the society has given a substantial annual subsidy towards making up the salary attached to the chair; and the question raised was whether the arrangement in force was the best possible, and how far the society did well in supporting it. In reply to questions put by several members, the Rev. Mr. Gillespie, Convener of the society's Special Committee on the matter of the Agricultural Chair, stated that the directors had intimated that they did not hold themselves bound to continue the subsidy; and that the patrons of the chair had been requested, if possible, to delay making an appointment until the Special Committee had recommended to the directors "some scheme for putting agricultural education on a wider, more comprehensive, and more satisfactory footing than it has hitherto been in Scotland." It did not appear that this request was likely to be conceded, nor did the Rev. Convener give any forecast of the kind of scheme that would be recommended on behalf of the Highland and Agricultural Society, beyond stating that Colonel Innes, of Learney, who, we know, has for long taken an intelligent interest in the matter, had laid a scheme before the committee. Now, if the question of agricultural education in Scotland is to be made to turn upon the appointment of one, or half-a-dozen, professors of agriculture, the net result will not, we are firmly convinced, amount to much more than a perpetuation of the existing state of matters under which the complaint has been that the chair of agriculture

does not serve its purpose to any appreciable extent. A professor of agriculture in connection with a university, like any other professor there, is, of course, expected to lecture on the more advanced phases of his subject; to deal with principles and hypotheses; not to indoctrinate the students who come under his care in the elements that lie at the foundation of all sound knowledge, general or special. And, other things apart, the fact that there has been no general system in operation throughout the country for instructing pupils in the elementary parts of agriculture, as a special subject, has been a main cause of the admitted failure of the Edinburgh chair of agriculture. There has been no sufficient body of students prepared by elementary study to take advantage of, and be fully benefited by his lectures, however good they might have been. And just as well send a lad who has not mastered the Greek alphabet to attend the Greek classes in a university as send a lad who has not mastered the recognized elements of agricultural chemistry, physiology, and so on, to attend a university professor of agriculture. This, of course, points directly to the importance of having agriculture as a special subject taught in the public schools in country districts. What is the best arrangement, and how far the direct interference of the Highland and Agricultural Society is necessary or desirable to promote this end we do not profess to say. As to the National Agricultural Society for Scotland, its influence ought undoubtedly to be prominently felt, directly or indirectly, in the matter. But meanwhile we have the scheme of the Science and Art Department, which has within the past few weeks been finding zealous and enlightened advocacy in this quarter at the hands of Mr. J. C. Buckmaster in connection with the public schools on the property of Lord Aberdeen, who in this respect is following the example set by Lord Dalhousie of encouraging the formation of special agricultural classes. The teaching sought to be promoted by the department is not of a theoretical character, but rather aims at giving sound elementary knowledge on the basis of ascertained facts, precisely the kind of primary instruction that is of solid value; and the encouragement given in the shape of bursaries of £5, £10, and even £20 value, ought to be ample, in conjunction with a reasonable measure of support from the Highland and Agricultural Society, applied to primary or secondary instruction as might be found expedient, to put the whole question of agricultural education in Scotland on an extended and thoroughly satisfactory footing. And it only needs that the farmers should get properly alive to the importance of having the question pushed forward on this line to ensure a full measure of practical success.—*Aberdeen Free Press.*

### CORRESPONDENCE CLASSES.

SOME time ago a subscriber suggested the formation of Correspondence Classes, and the more we think about the subject the more the idea seems to us to be a good one. A question often comes to a teacher that he cannot answer. If, under these circumstances, he had a dozen persons to whom he could send it, some one, doubtless, would be able to help him out. In a multitude of counsellors there is safety. The plan of working, in practically carrying out this idea, seems to us ought to be as follows:

Classes should be divided into Primary, Academic, and Advanced grades. Individuals desiring to join should specify to which division they wished to be assigned.

Circles in each of these grades should be organized, consisting of not more than ten members each. Each member of a circle would be notified of the names and addresses of all the other members. To each of these he would send his question. Each member of a circle, on receiving such a question, would attempt an answer, and send to all the other members his reply.

Each circle would have a secretary, who would send the question, when answered, to us for publication.

Any question sent by us for solution would be forwarded to the secretary of some circle, who would at once send it to each member of his circle for answer.

In this way a methodical and thorough system of receiving and answering questions could be arranged, productive of great good to the members of the class, and wider benefit to the many readers of the *Journal and Institute*. Send us your names, if you wish to join such a class, being sure to specify to which division of work you desire to be assigned.—*New York School Journal*.

### MANUAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS.

THE Board of Education of the Canton of Berne, Switzerland, some months ago, appointed a special commission to investigate the question, whether the introduction of manual training was desirable, and, if so, whether it should be in connection with the primary school, or the intermediate grade, or be independent of the schools; whether it should be introduced into the whole country, or only in certain sections or towns of the canton; and, finally, how instructions in the trades could be organized. The highly interesting report shows that the commission found a great quantity of rich and varied material at their disposal. They submitted the following propositions to the Board of Education: 1. Industrial training is to be encouraged in primary schools by means of drawing according to improved methods, and to this end more time should be devoted to this branch in the school programmes.

2. Instruction in handiwork is found to be advisable in order to prepare boys for practical life, and to awaken in them pleasure and capacity for practical work, and a taste for domestic life and diligence. 3. The effort should be made to introduce manual training into the city of Berne and the larger towns. This instruction shall not at first be given into the schools, but near them, and at a time which shall not interfere with them. It shall not be obligatory on the scholar's part. 4. The establishment of such institutions shall be left to the community, associations, or private individuals; the government shall undertake half the cost of instruction. 5. The State shall provide for the training of efficient, practical teachers in this branch. 6. In addition to manual instruction, the State shall support those institutions whose aim it is to train children in special lines of industry, such as schools for making toys, straw-work, baskets, lace, etc.

AN unusually large number of pupils were sent to the Fredericton High School this term and Examiner Mullin, on behalf of the Board of School Trustees, has been consulting with Mr. Parkin and the other teachers respecting the classification and work of the school this week.—*New Brunswick Reporter*, August 22nd.

MR. J. H. BROWN, late of the Deaf and Dumb Institute, Belleville, has been appointed principal of a similar institution at Wilkensburg, Pa. Mr. Brown enters on his duties there at once. The series of papers which he contributed to the *EDUCATIONAL WEEKLY* will be continued by him in the course of a very few weeks.

IT having been stated that Normal School students, Fredericton, were subject to insults by roughs on the corner of York and Queen Streets, the Police Magistrate has instructed his officers to protect the young ladies from annoyances there in the future. Sergt. Vandine will make short work of such characters.—*New Brunswick Reporter*, August 22nd.

THE following paragraphs from the report of the last meeting of the Guelph Board of Education will be suggestive:

"Mr. Murton said that there was one thing of importance which he wished to draw the attention of the Board to, and that was the question of having the pupils vaccinated. If he was not mistaken there was a clause in the School Act which compelled parents to have their children vaccinated or the teacher had the power of turning them out. The smallpox was travelling westward and it was well that all preparations in their power should be made to render the disease less virulent.

"Mr. Knowles did not think that there was any such clause in the School Act as Mr. Murton referred to.

"Mr. Peterson thought that the ground might be covered by the Public Health Act. He would look up the Acts.

"Moved by Mr. Peterson, seconded by Mr. Murton, that the parents and guardians of children proposing to attend the schools, and who have not been vaccinated, are notified to see that they are duly attended to beforehand. Carried."

### Correspondence.

#### ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of the *EDUCATIONAL WEEKLY*.

DEAR SIR,—I was much interested with the paper on Entrance Examinations in your issue of Aug. 20. The question is asked, "Should the entrance examination be placed at the end of the fifth class?" and by viewing various aspects of the question the writer decides that it should.

I heartily agree with the writer regarding his view of some of the late entrance papers, especially history. As to pupils who are "well advanced in algebra, geometry, book-keeping, etc.," being placed in the lowest forms on entering the high school, I do not think that is the case. It was not so with myself; I was placed in the third form and soon after promoted to the fourth. Two others were similarly dealt with at the same time. A friend who entered at the same was placed in the second and afterwards advanced to third form. I have in mind at present several such cases. Again, is it not better to allow a choice? I find that the Public School Section at the Ontario Association passed a resolution favoring the retention of fifth class in public schools. Now a public school teacher cannot in justice to the rest of the school pay as much attention to a fifth class as they would receive at a high school.

Then, suppose A, B, C and D are attending a public school, A and B are wealthy and choose to attend a high school where they will have better advantages. C and D can remain at home and finish their studies. I do not think any teacher acquainted with the circumstances of the case would discontinue a fifth class.

"The loss of home influence" is certainly an important element to consider, but, laying this aside, I think it is better to have the examination as it is. S. S.

IT is credibly reported that Miss Cleveland proposes to use a large share of the expected profits upon her book "in endowing chairs in certain educational institutions that have recently opened their doors to women on equal footing with men." This is a generous and a characteristic purpose of Miss Cleveland's, and we trust that the profits may be large, and that there may be no restriction upon her in the execution of her philanthropic design. But in endowing these professorships we hope she will rather limit their number than pinch their incomes. There is no more painful form of poverty than that which afflicts a very great proportion of our professors. Most persons who endow professorships, think they are doing a handsome thing if they provide for a professor a salary of \$2,500 or \$3,000. The munificence of such a foundation may be widely and warmly praised, but the occupant of the professorship often suffers bitterly. He has to live in a genteel manner, and most frequently the college is in an expensive town; and he has a family to support and educate. The consequence is that his life is a prolonged scene of painful effort and positive misery. To endow one professorship sufficiently is better than to set up fifty with a lasting provision of poverty and distress.—*New York Sun*.

## Departmental Regulations

### HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES.

#### ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS.

THE next Entrance Examination to High Schools and Collegiate Institutes will be held on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, December, 21st, 22nd, and 23rd, 1885.

The following is the limit of studies in the various subjects:

**READING.**—A general knowledge of the elements of vocal expression, with special reference to emphasis, inflection and pause. The reading, with proper expression, of any selection in the Reader authorized for Fourth Book Classes. The pupil should be taught to read *intelligently* as well as *intelligibly*.

**LITERATURE.**—The pupil should be taught to give for words or phrases, meanings which may be substituted therefor, without impairing the sense of the passage; to illustrate and show the appropriateness of important words or phrases; to distinguish between synonyms in common use; to paraphrase difficult passages so as to show the meaning clearly; to show the connection of the thoughts in any selected passage; to explain allusions; to write explanatory or descriptive notes on proper or other names; to show that he has studied the lessons thoughtfully, by being able to give an intelligent opinion on any subject treated of therein that comes within the range of his experience or comprehension; and especially to show that he has entered into the spirit of the passage, by being able to read it with proper expression. He should be exercised in quoting passages of special beauty from the selections prescribed, and to reproduce in his own words, the substance of any of these selections, or of any part thereof. He should also obtain some knowledge of the authors from whose works these selections have been made.

**ORTHOGRAPHY AND ORTHOEPY.**—The pronunciation, the syllabication, and spelling from dictation, of words in common use. The correction of words improperly spelt or pronounced. The distinctions between words in common use in regard to spelling, pronunciation, and meaning.

**WRITING.**—The proper formation of the small and the capital letters. The pupil will be expected to write neatly and legibly.

**GEOGRAPHY.**—The form and motions of the earth. The chief definitions as contained in the authorized text-book; divisions of the land and the water; circles on the globe; political divisions; natural phenomena. Maps of America, Europe, Asia and Africa. Maps of Canada and Ontario, including the railway systems. The products and the commercial relations of Canada.

**GRAMMAR.**—The sentence: its different forms. Words: their chief classes and inflections. Different grammatical values of the same word. The meanings of the chief grammatical terms. The grammatical values of phrases and of clauses. The nature of the clauses in easy compound and complex sentences. The government, the agreement, and the arrangement of words. The correction, with reasons therefor, of wrong forms of words

and of false syntax. The parsing of simple sentences. The analysis of easy sentences.

**COMPOSITION.**—The nature and the construction of different kinds of sentences. The combination of separate statements into sentences. The nature and the construction of paragraphs. The combination of separate statements into paragraphs. Variety of expression, with the following classes of exercises: Changing the voice of the verb; expanding a word or a phrase into a clause; contracting a clause into a word or a phrase; changing from direct into indirect narration, or the converse; transposition; changing the form of a sentence; expansion of given heads or hints into a composition; the contraction of passages; paraphrasing prose or easy poetry. The elements of punctuation. Short narratives or descriptions. Familiar letters.

**DRAWING.**—For the examination in December next, candidates in Drawing may submit to the examiners Books No. 2 or No. 3 of the Drawing Course for Public Schools. For June, 1886, No. 3, No. 4 or No. 5 will be accepted; after that date it is intended to take the numbers prescribed by the regulations for the 4th Class.

**HISTORY.**—Outlines of English history, as heretofore.

Examination papers will be set in literature from the different series of authorized readers as follows:

#### NEW ONTARIO READERS.—DECEMBER, 1885.

1. Tom Brown, pp. 17-22.
2. Boadicea, pp. 35-37.
3. The Fixed Stars, pp. 93-96
4. The Sky Lark, p. 99.
5. Ye Mariners of England, pp. 193-194.
6. The Heroine of Vercheres, pp. 201-204.
7. Marmion and Douglas, pp. 256-258.
8. After Death in Arabia, pp. 272-274.
9. The Capture of Quebec, pp. 233-239.

#### JUNE, 1886.

1. Boadicea, pp. 35-37.
2. The Truant, pp. 46-50.
3. The Fixed Stars, pp. 93-96.
4. Lochinvar, pp. 169-170.
5. A Christmas Carol, pp. 207-211.
6. Kiding Together, pp. 231-232.
7. Marmion and Douglas, pp. 256-258.
8. The Capture of Quebec, pp. 233-239.
9. The Ride from Ghent to Aix, pp. 285-287.

#### I.—SELECTIONS FROM ONTARIO READER.

1. The Stage Coach.—*Dickens*.
2. The Lark at the Idgings.—*Reade*.
3. The Geysers of Iceland.—*Dufferin*.
4. The Story of LeFevre.—*Sterne*.
5. The Skater and the Wolves.—*Whitehead*.
6. The Ocean.—*Byron*.
7. Autumn Woods.—*Bryant*.
8. Sir John Franklin.—*Punch*.
9. The Incident at Ratisbor.—*Browning*.
10. The Shipbuilders.—*Whittier*.
11. The Battle of the Baltic.—*Campbell*.
12. The Incident at Bruges.—*Wordsworth*.

#### 2.—SELECTIONS FROM ROYAL READER.

1. Stanzas from "The Princess," p. 13.—*Tennyson*.
2. The Unwritten History of our Forefathers.—*Mackenzie*.
3. The Sky Lark.—*Hogg*.

4. The Soldier's Dream.—*Campbell*
  5. Goldsmith.—*Thackeray*.
  6. The Charge at Waterloo.—*Scott*.
  7. Harold Skimpole.—*Dickens*.
  8. "He Giveth His Beloved Sleep."—*Browning*.
  9. The Black Hole of Calcutta.—*Macaulay*.
  10. Sunset Wings.—*Rossetti*.
  11. The Black Prince at Crecy.—*Stanley*.
  12. The Water Fairy.—*Swinburne*.
3. SELECTIONS FROM CANADIAN READER.
1. Ye Mariners of England.—*Campbell*.
  2. The Taking of Roxburgh Castle.—*Scott*.
  3. The Town Pump.—*Hawthorne*.
  4. The Cloud.—*Shelley*.
  5. The Sagacious Cadi—I. and II.—*Household Words*.
  6. The Canadian Boat Song.—*Moore*.
  7. Dare to do Right.—*Hughes*.
  8. The Death of Wellington.—*Disraeli*.
  9. The Psalm of Life.—*Longfellow*.
  10. The Eve of Quatre Bras.—*Byron*.
  11. The Burial of Sir John Moore.—*Wolfe*.

After the 1st January, 1886, the literature will be selected exclusively from the new Ontario Fourth Reader, which will then be the only authorized Fourth Book. The selections will be changed from year to year.

#### TIME-TABLE OF THE EXAMINATION.—DECEMBER 21, 1885.

- 9 a.m. to 10.25 a.m., Geography.  
 10.35 a.m. to 12 noon, History.  
 2 a.m. to 4 p.m., Literature.  
 DECEMBER 22, 1885.  
 9 a.m. to 11 a.m., Arithmetic.  
 11.10 a.m. to 12 noon, Orthography and Orthoepy.  
 2 p.m. to 4 p.m., Grammar.

#### DECEMBER 23, 1885.

- 9 a.m. to 10.45 a.m., Composition.  
 11 a.m. to 11.15 a.m., Writing.  
 11:15 a.m. to 12 noon, Drawing.  
 Reading to be taken on either day or on both days, at such hours as may best suit the convenience of the Examiners.

FROM the report of Inspector Dearness, of East Middlesex for the year 1884-5, we learn that the average expenditure per pupil for the school year shows an increase in every municipality but one. This is not owing entirely to an increase in the total expenditure, but it is owing largely to a falling off in the number registered. One of the causes of this decrease in the number registered is that fewer large pupils attend now. Seven years ago there were 466 in attendance of over the age of 17 years; last year the number was only 218. This the inspector regards as an indication that the schools are doing better work. The total number of pupils entered on the register was 8,610; the average attendance in the first half of the year was 4,415; in the second, 4,011. The average attendance was 49 per cent, while that of the whole Province was scarcely 44. The average salary paid male teachers in the villages and townships was \$449.86. The teachers hold half yearly uniform promotion examinations in order to secure a uniform standard of classification. The expense incurred for printing and mailing the papers is about \$50 per year.

## Examination Papers.

JULY EXAMINATIONS, 1885.

THIRD CLASS.

PHYSICS.

Examiner—J. C. GLASHAN.

1. Define: Matter, body, solid, liquid, gas.

What is meant by saying that ice, water and steam are three states of one and the same substance? What is the chief determining condition of each state?

2. Define 'mass,' 'volume' and 'density,' and state the relation that holds among them.

How is the mass of a body generally measured?

A body loses in weight as it is carried from a high to a low latitude; what effect has this on its mass? If the body were to increase in volume while it lost in weight through removal towards the equator, what would be the effect on its mass and what on its density?

3. Define 'force' and 'energy,' clearly distinguishing between them.

"If it requires a strong force to set a body in motion, it requires also a strong force to stop it." (Stewart, p. 4.) Show that this is not true.

If a body having a velocity of 60 feet per second be acted upon by no force whatever, what will be its velocity at the end of 5 seconds?

4. What is the cause of sound? By what experiments could you prove this?

5. "Rapidly mix some melting ice or snow and some salt together, the mixture is colder than melting ice." What is the reason of this?

6. How can you magnify a near object? (Illustrate your explanation by a drawing.)

How can you magnify a distant object?

EUCLID.

Examiner—J. DEARNESS.

NOTE.—Symbols, except of operation, may be employed. Use capital letters on the diagrams. It is recommended that every step in the demonstration should begin on a new line.

1. What is a postulate?

The postulates permit or ask for the use of the ruler and compass; with what limitations?

To what class of "Propositions" do the 'axioms' and the 'postulates' respectively correspond?

2. "A theorem consists of the hypothesis and predicate, and requires demonstration." Explain this statement by reference to two propositions, one of them being "The greater side of every triangle is opposite to the greater angle." (I. 18.)

3. Draw a straight line at right angles to a given straight line from a point in the same. (I. 11.)

4. In the preceding, given the point at the end of the line, draw a line at right angles without producing the given line. (Apply I. 32.)

5. If from the ends of a side of a triangle there be drawn two straight lines to a point within the triangle, these shall be less than the other two sides of the triangle but shall contain a greater angle. (I. 21.)

6. In the preceding let ABC be the given triangle, D the given point within it, and AD, CD the lines drawn to D, show that the angle ADC is equal to the sum of the angles ABC, BAD and BCD.

7. The complements of the parallelograms which are about the diagonals of any parallelogram are equal to one another. (I. 43.)

8. If the square described upon one of the sides of a triangle be equal to the sum of the squares described upon the other two sides of it, the angle contained by these two sides is a right angle. (I. 48.)

9. Prove the correctness of these rules:

The area of a trapezoid is equal to half the product of its altitude by the sum of its parallel sides.

The area of a rhombus is equal to half the product of its diagonals.

10. If a perpendicular (AD) be drawn from the vertex (A) to the base (BC) of a triangle (or the base produced), then shall the sum of the squares on AB and DC be equal to the sum of the squares on AC and BD.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Examiner—JOHN SEATH, B.A.

1. Describe in your own words, the function of the adjective, explaining clearly the meanings of the terms "describing," "qualifying" and "limiting," and applying your description to the adjectives in the following: The man, five boys, good men, his kind father is dead.

2. Explain in your own words the terms "Government" and "Agreement," and illustrate by reference to *all* the governing and agreeing words in the following: If need be, thou shalt see thy master's efforts to win these laurels.

3. Rewrite the following statements, making such corrections as you consider necessary, and assigning your reasons therefor:

(a) When a superlative is used, the class between which the comparison is made and which is introduced by *of* should always include the thing compared: as, "Bismarck is the greatest of German statesmen," or "Bismarck is the greatest German statesman."

(b) The sign *to* should not be used for a full infinitive unless the verb in the same form can be supplied from the preceding part of the sentence: as, "You never wrote me: you ought to" is wrong, since it is incorrect to say, "You ought to wrote."

(c) The perfect infinitive is used when the act spoken of is regarded as completed before the time expressed by the governing verb: as, "I hoped to have gone before the meeting."

4. Distinguish the meanings of:

(a) 'If he go, I shall go,' and 'If he goes, I go.'

(b) 'I think so, I do think so, I am thinking so,' and 'I should think so.'

(c) 'He shall go, He will go,' and 'He is about to go.'

(d) 'I knew that he speaks the truth,' and 'I knew that he spoke the truth.'

(e) 'Who did it?' and 'Which did it?'

5. Classify and give the syntax of the italicized words in the following:

(a) He is a fool *to sit alone*.

(b) *Much* to my surprise, he forgave *them* their fault.

(c) He is too old *to play* the fool.

(d) My dream last *night* came true.

(e) The *daughter* of a hundred earls, You are not one *to be desired*.

6. Classify the propositions in the following, giving their relation.

Because half a dozen grasshoppers under a fern make the field ring with their importunate chink, while thousands of great cattle reposing beneath the shadow of the British oak, chew the cud and are silent, pray do not imagine that those who make the noise are the only inhabitants of the field—that, of course, they are many in number—or that, after all, they are other than the little, shrivelled, meagre, hopping—though loud and troublesome—insects of the hour.

7. (a) Translate into a phrase each of the following: Sheep-dog, wood-work, railway, steam-boat.

(b) Translate into a compound each of the following: As dark as coal, that can keep in water, surrounded by the sea, tearing asunder the heart.

8. Correct any errors in the following, giving your reason in each case:

(a) These pronouns are indeclinable and used in the singular only.

(b) He looks like his mother does, but he talks like his father.

(c) He was afraid he would be burned.

(d) The references will be found useful to the junior student, and enable him to obtain an insight into the subject.

(e) A second division of lands followed and the poet was not only deprived of his estate; but barely escaped with his life when fleeing from the onset of his enemies.

(f) Trusting that you will remember us, and write as often as you can spare time, and with best love (in which we all heartily join) remember me as ever, &c.

(g) There are many boys whose fathers mothers died when they were infants.

(h) Shall you be able to sell them boots?

(i) Of all my rash adventures past This frantic freak must prove the last.

(j) Nor frequent does the bright oar break The darkening mirror of the lake, Until the rocky isle they reach, And moor their shallop on the beach.

On the birthday anniversary of John G. Whittier, the pupils of the junior class of the Girls' High School, of Boston, sent him seventy-seven choice roses. The class is now engaged in the study of his works. In reply the poet sent the following:

"The sun of life is sinking low;  
Without, a winter's falling snow,  
Within, your summer roses fall,  
The heart of age your offering cheers,  
You count in flowers my many years—  
God bless you, one and all."

## SPECIMEN PAGE STORMONTH'S ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

## lizard

566

## lobster

form lye: adj. making a lixivium: lixiviating, imp.: lixiviated, pp.: adj. reduced to lixivium: lixiviation, n. -*ā'shūn*, the operation or process of extracting alkaline salts from ashes by pouring water on them, the water imbibing the salts: lixivium, n. -*ī-ūm*, the water which has been impregnated with alkaline salts from wood-ashes.

**lizard**, n. *lizard* [F. *lézard*; It. *lucerta*—from L. *lacerta*, a lizard], a general name for such animals of the reptile kind, as the chameleon, iguana, &c., which have tails and legs, and are covered with scales.

**Lizard Point**, *lizard point*, a cape in Cornwall, so called from having been a place of retirement for *lizards*, or persons afflicted with leprosy.

**llama**, n. *llama*, a priest; Buddha—see lama.

**llama**, n. *llama* [Peruvian], an animal of the camel kind, more lightly built, and without a hump, peculiar to S. Amer.

**llanos**, n. *llanos* [Sp.], the flat treeless plains which extend along the banks of the Orinoco, in S. Amer.

**Lloyd's**, n. *Lloyd's* [from *Lloyd's* Coffee-house, where rooms were set apart for the same purpose], a part of the Royal Exchange, London, set apart for brokers and others engaged in the insurance of ships, &c.: **Lloyd's List**, a daily sheet, chiefly containing shipping intelligence: **Lloyd's agents**, persons who act in various parts of the world for the committee of underwriters at Lloyd's, and who transmit all kinds of information connected with shipping, and discharge other duties in their interest: classed at Lloyd's, said of a ship whose character and seaworthiness are entered on Lloyd's Register, the highest class being registered as A 1.

**lo**, int. *lo* [AS. *la*], look; behold.

**loach** or **loche**, n. *loche* [F. *loche*; Sp. *loja*, a loach], a small river-fish found in clear streams.

**load**, n. *load* [AS. *hlud*, a load; *hladan*, to load; Icel. *hladi*, a heap; *hlada*, a barn: comp. Gael. *load*, a load, a burden: see *lade* 3], a burden; a cargo; that which is borne with inconvenience, difficulty, or pain; weight; pressure; a weight, or defined quantities of different commodities or bulky merchandise: v. to burden; to lay on or in for conveyance; to make heavy by something added; to charge, as a gun; to bestow or confer abundantly: **loading**, imp. burdening; charging, as a gun: n. a burden; a cargo: **load'ed**, pp. also **laden**, pp. *lād'n*: adj. charged with a load or cargo; burdened or oppressed, as with a load: **load'er**, n. -*ēr*, one who, or that which.—**Syn.** of 'load n.': freight; lading; amount; quantity; encumbrance.

**Note 1.**—'When we view an object already provided with a load, so as to fix our attention on its present condition rather than the process by which that condition was brought about, the object is *laden*; when we look at the process of *laying on a load*, rather than its effect of leaving another object *laden*, the participle is *loaded*.'—Latham. We say 'a *loaded* gun,' but 'a *laden* ship,' and '*laden* with death,' '*laden* with sorrow.'

**Note 2.**—**lot**, in the familiar expressions, 'what a lot of money,' 'what a lot of people,' in the sense of 'quantity or bulk,' is probably only a corruption of load. There may be also an etymological connection between load and lot, as there certainly is in sense, as in 'heavy is my lot'—see Dr C. Mackay.

**loadstone**, n. *loadstone* [AS. *lād*; Icel. *leid*, a way, a journey, and Eng. *stone*. Icel. *leidarstein*, a stone of the way or of conduct, a loadstone], an ore of iron possessing magnetic properties; the magnet: **load'star**, n. -*stār* [Icel. *leidarstarna*, a star of conduct], the pole-star; the leading or guiding star: properly spelt lodestone, lodestar.

**loaf**, n. *loaf* [AS. *hlaf*; Goth. *hlaihs*; Ger. *laib*; Icel. *hleifr*; Fin. *laipe*, bread, loaf], a mass or lump of baked bread; a conical mass of refined sugar: loaves, n. plu.

*loz*: loaves and fishes, material interests or worldly advancement sought under the high pretence of patriotic fervour or spiritual zeal.

**loaf**, v. *loaf* [Ger. *laufen*, to go to and fro, to haunt; Sp. *gallofear*, to saunter about and live upon alms; Gael. *lobh*, to rot: formerly an Americanism], to saunter about idly and lazily; to lounge about streets and corners instead of working honestly: **loaf'ing**, imp.: adj. wandering idly about; lounging lazily about the streets and public-houses: **loaf'ed**, pp. *loft*: **loafer**, n. [Gael. *lobhar*, a leper, a rotten scoundrel], an idle lounging; a vagrant; a lazy vagabond.

**loam**, n. *loam* [AS. *lam*; Dut. *leem*; Ger. *leim*, clay; L. *limus*, mud, clay: comp. Gael. *lom*, bare], a soil consisting of clay mixed with sand and vegetable mould: **loamy**, a. *loam'y*, consisting of loam; partaking of the nature of loam, or like it.

**loan**, n. *loan* [Icel. *lán*; Dan. *laan*, anything lent; Sw. *lana*, to lend; O.H.Ger. *lehhan*, a thing granted; Ger. *leihen*, to lend], anything given for temporary use, sum of money lent for a time at interest; grant of the use: v. to grant the use of for a time; to lend: **loan'ing**, imp.: **loan'ed**, pp. *loand*. **loan-monger**, a dealer in loans, a money-lender: **loan-office**, a place where small sums of money are lent at high interest to be repaid by instalments; a pawnbroking office.

**loan**, n. *loan* [Gael. *loan*, a meadow, a pasture], in Scot., a meadow; a lane; a quiet, shady, winding path: also **loaning**, n. *loaning*.

**loathe**, v. *lothe* [AS. *lath*, hateful, evil; Icel. *leidr*, loathed, disliked; Ger. *leid*, what is offensive to the feelings. F. *laid*, ugly], to regard with mingled hatred and disgust; to feel disgust at, as at food or drink: **loath**, a. *loth*, literally, filled with aversion—hence, unwilling; backward; reluctant: **loathing**, imp. *loth'ing*: n. disgust; nausea; aversion: loathed, pp. *loth'd*: **loath'er**, n. -*ēr*, one who feels disgust: **loath'ful**, a. -*fool*, disgusting; exciting abhorrence: **loath'ingly**, ad. -*ly*: **loathsome**, a. *loth'sam*, disgusting; hateful: **loath'somely**, ad. -*ly*: **loathsomeness**, n. -*ness*, the quality of exciting disgust or abhorrence.—**Syn.** of 'loathe': to abhor; abominate; detest; hate; nauseate.

**loaves**, n. *loaves*, the plu. of loaf, which see.

**lob**, v. *lob* [Icel. *lubbaz*, to loiter about; *lubb*, a shaggy dog with hanging ears: Dut. *loboor*, a dog or pig with hanging ears; W. *lubi*, a long lubber], in O.E., to hang down slack, dangling, or drooping; to let fall in a slovenly or lazy manner; to droop: n. a heavy, clumsy, or sluggish person; a clown; a clumsy, heavy worm—see *lobworm*: **lob'bing**, imp.: **lobbed**, pp. *lob'd*: to **lob along**, to walk lazily, as one fatigued.

**lobate**—see under lobe.

**lobby**, n. *lobby* [Ger. *laube*, an arbour—from *laub*, foliage: mid. L. *lobia*, an open portico], an ante-chamber or gallery; a hall or passage serving as a common entrance to different apartments.

**lobe**, n. *lobe* [F. *lobe*, a lobe—from Gr. *lobos*, the tip of the ear; It. *lobo-lit*, the part hanging down], a part or division of the lungs, liver, &c.; the lower soft part of the ear; in bot., a large division of a leaf, or of a seed—often applied to the divisions of the anther: **lobed**, a. *lob'd*, also **lobate**, a. *lob'at*, having lobes or divisions: **lobule**, n. *lob'ul*, a little lobe, or the subdivision of a lobe: **lob'ular**, a. -*ulār*, belonging to or affecting a lobe.

**Lobelia**, n. *lobelia* [said to be after *Lobel*, a botanist of King James I.], the name of an extensive genus of beautiful plants, Ord. *Lobeliaceæ*; Indian tobacco, used in medicine as an emetic, an expectorant, &c.: **lobelina**, n. *lobelina*, a volatile alkaloid found in *Lobelia inflata*.

**loblolly**, n. *loblolly* [OE. *lob*, something not having strength to support itself, v. to hang down, and Eng. *loll*], among seamen, gruel or spoon-meat—see *lob*.

**lobster**, n. *lobster* [AS. *lopustræ*; L. *locusta*, a lob-

*māte, māt, fār, lāte; mēte, mēt, hēr; pīne, pīn; nūte, nūt, mōve;*

"SURPASSES ALL ITS PREDECESSORS."—N. Y. TRIBUNE, March 13, 1885

# STORMONTH'S ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

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