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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL
MONTHLY

AND

SCHOOL CHRONICLE.

EDITED BY G. MERCER ADAM.

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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
AND SCHOOL CHRONICLE.

JANUARY, 1880.

THE UNIVERSITY QUESTION.

BY J. HOWARD HUNTER, M.A., BRANTFORD.

THE rapid development of our elementary and intermediate schools has rendered absolutely necessary some corresponding development of the Provincial University and of University College. This development should be not only material, but intellectual. The University endowment ought certainly to be increased: additional buildings are manifestly needed; the professors in University College are insufficient in number; the scientific professors are insufficiently assisted; and they are all insufficiently paid. With this enlargement of resources, the area of modern culture should also be enlarged; as new halls of learning arise, the outlook should be advanced, and we ought to get more comprehensive views of the "whole circle of knowledge." In University College, while the hands of the underpaid and overworked professors are strengthened, such internal reforms are also required as will rigorously exclude from quarters

within the College—if not indeed from the lecture-rooms—all but earnest students. Finally, to prevent our academical degrees in Ontario from losing all value or significance, we urgently need a University standard which *all* collegiate corporations should be required to employ for their academic weights and measures.

Most of the propositions above stated will probably be admitted without special enforcement or illustration. Even on the need of a general University standard there is apparently a fair degree of unanimity. The present condition of the University Question in the United States ought of itself to prove a sufficient warning. In 1877, there were enumerated in a statistical publication no less than 351 American "Universities and Colleges," which represents an increase of 32 per cent. in seven years. Large as this number is, we in Ontario are, proportionately to our population, well down the same "danger-

ous slope;" and, unless a halt is speedily called, we shall actually overtake our cousins in this headlong race. In the United States an ascending movement is already visible. The choicest minds among American graduates have been of late looking to the German Universities as the true seats of higher learning; and after completing their studies at Harvard and Yale, they have recommenced them at Heidelberg, Göttingen, Leipzig, or Berlin. American pride of nationality has already taken alarm at seeing the flower of its youth denationalized by several years' residence in foreign Universities, where the plastic mind acquires a tenacious film of new theories respecting government and society. Harvard and Yale have already instituted *post-graduate* courses of study, and higher Universities after the German exemplar are already springing up. The Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore is such a foundation; and the educational work now proceeding there is of the highest interest and importance. This institution aims to bring together students who are qualifying to prosecute original research in literature or science, and who desire knowledge either for its own sake or for its practical applications. To such students the new University offers the assistance and example of professors who enjoy acknowledged eminence as original investigators, and it publishes an annual *fasciculus* of results reached in each University department,—welcoming, however, also original monographs from eminent scholars throughout the United States. In such a hive of workers—many of the students being teachers of important schools—the *hazing* schoolboy, that increasing pest of American and Canadian Colleges, has evidently no occupation, and the dawdler and the roysterer find no audience for their instructive converse. Washington Irving conjectured

that the "loafer" *must* have been created just to keep up the ancient order of idleness; but, not even as an antiquarian curiosity, is it proposed at Baltimore to tolerate the College loafer. In its main features, and even in some details,—*e.g.*, the philological *Seminarium*—the Baltimore University seeks to reproduce the best points of the German Universities; which, if tried by their results, must be admitted to be the best in the world. We in Ontario would do well to keep our eye on this most important new departure. It is idle to nurture ourselves on the traditions of the old British Universities. Some of the most distinguished sons of Oxford and Cambridge are now most strenuously contending for organic and radical reforms. As one of these reformers forcibly expresses it,—nowadays, an institution cannot remain "unmolested for years or generations after it has ceased to put forth any blossom, or to perfect any fruit;" "it is not sufficient to be respectable and harmless." As the University Act of 1853 declares, our Provincial University was modelled on the University of London, which is certainly the most progressive and the most prosperous of British Universities; but, for many years, 'his ideal has been sadly confused wit' traditions of Dublin, as Dublin was in the festal boy-hood of Charley O'Malley. And as the University and Collegiate functions of Trinity College, Dublin, are combined in the same management, so in Ontario the functions of the Provincial University and of University College, though entirely distinct and easily distinguishable, have hitherto always fallen into a hopeless tangle. This has in the result proved a very serious matter. The impartiality of a University thus identified with one particular teaching body has been distrusted; and the various churches have, one after the other, demanded

and obtained of the Legislature independent University powers. Even, however, in the present anomalous state of affairs, the Senate of Toronto University largely controls the whole educational policy of this Province. Whether any branch of instruction is neglected in our Colleges and schools, or is effectively and productively taught, must largely be governed by the question how that branch is *honoured* in the University curriculum. It is thus of vast consequence to this country that the statutes of the University Senate represent the results of the most recent research and the most improved educational methods. This can be most readily attained in just the same way that the statutes of our Legislative bodies are kept up with the requirements of the time—that is, by publicity of discussion, by close criticism within the deliberative body itself, and by the outside criticism of persons whose training, or whose studious pursuits or professional employments afford them special insight into the questions discussed. If our House of Assembly sat with closed doors, excluded the press, published no journals, no statutes, no sessional papers, what would our representative system of government be worth? Yet here we have in this University Senate an Educational Parliament elected by qualified voters to represent various Educational constituencies; holding its meetings without public notice, at uncertain intervals and dates, and generally not in the University buildings at all; excluding the public and the press, publishing no statutes, or minutes or documents, other than a decennial or quinquennial curriculum. In mere forms of procedure the Provincial Government should certainly have no occasion to interfere. In this particular aspect of the University Question all requisite legislation is already on the statute book; a very moderate degree of respect for the electors should suffi-

ciently direct the Senate without the necessity for Ministerial pressure. There is no enactment requiring the Legislature itself to throw open its galleries to the public, or its records to the press; these are by common consent admitted to be necessary results flowing from the representative composition of the Assembly. It will not be seriously said that the University Senate, while either in general session or in committee, discusses questions more momentous than does the Legislature itself, whence the Senate borrows its powers? On the principle that the greater includes the less, the University Act of the Assembly must contain all that the Senate has since evolved from its provisions, and *probably a good deal more!* Nor can the Senate possibly discuss questions more personal in their complexion. In all our Legislatures—Imperial as well as Colonial—the personal attributes of the members themselves are often dissected with unlimited range of inquiry, and portrayed with unqualified ease of expression!

There is an express enactment requiring the Senate to “annually report to the Lieutenant-Governor, at such time as he may appoint, on the general state, progress and prospects of the University, and upon all matters touching the same, with such suggestions as they think proper to make, . . . and copies of such annual reports shall be laid before the Legislative Assembly at the then next session thereof.” (16 Vict., Cap. 89, s. 26; Revised Statutes, Cap. 210, s. 50.)

Now, in this clause is supplied a valuable opportunity of annually presenting the wants of the University; of rallying around it all the cultivated minds of the Province; of powerfully influencing academic and public opinion towards great educational reforms. It demands no great practical sagacity to see all this. An Annual

Report should now be forthcoming for each of the twenty-five years that have passed. During this quarter-century literary and scientific research has been more daring and more successful than in any whole century of the elder time. The intellectual activity and productiveness of the German Universities have been truly astounding. A mere enumeration of the brilliant names that, through these years, have given lustre to Berlin and Leipzig would be equivalent to reprinting a long catalogue of the ultimate authorities for nearly all the theological and philological research, and for much of the scientific and historical information that we possess. In our own language, during the same period, many of the very finest minds have anxiously discussed and most strenuously advocated a more philosophic and a more rational system of education; and new foundations have everywhere throughout England been created for the express object of carrying into practice the modern ideal of fruitful instruction. The errors of the old way have been vigorously assailed by Macaulay, Gladstone, Lowe, Grant-Duff, Farrar, Matthew Arnold; by Whewell, Faraday, Herschel, De Morgan, Herbert Spencer, Tyndall, Huxley, Lubbock, Lyon Playfair, and a host of others, whose competency cannot be questioned. Now, amid the tremendous upheavals of these latter days, which have rudely shaken to their base even the revered foundations that were laid deepest down in English history, and amid the wonderful achievements of German Universities, could our University Senate discover nothing for the benefit of their institution worth suggesting to Parliament and the country? From an educated body like the Senate—inclining among its membership many practised writers—may fairly have been expected a brilliant series of Annual Reports that would have mir-

rored this rapid onset of new ideas, that would faithfully have reflected the steady advance of higher education; that would have resolved into a clear and luminous image even the more remote and nebulous questions in University training. The formative influence of such Reports would have proved as salutary as Humboldt's expositions of his University projects at Berlin.

When Wilhelm von Humboldt, seventy years ago, was laying the lines of the University that was to be launched at Berlin, he boldly took Prussia into his fullest confidence; and, calling to his aid the eloquent pens of Fichte and Schleiermacher, he made his profound views perfectly comprehensible to the meanest intellect in the kingdom. Hence, from the very start, the people regarded the new University as part of themselves; they gladly gave their entire sympathy, and whatever assistance was asked: the University of Berlin thus became not only a cradle of learning, but an inexhaustible reservoir of national energy. Napoleon and his dynasty thus have had ample cause to repent the ruthless severance from Prussia of Halle, the old Collegiate centre. The University of Berlin has faithfully reflected the popular fears and aspirations; hence its immense influence and success. On two memorable occasions it led the nation's uprising against foreign aggression; it now represents the nation's resistance to a despotic government at home. At this moment, the most active defenders of constitutional freedom in the Reichstag are among the most distinguished professors in the University of Berlin. Where an institution thus bursts from the sheath of national life, its evolution and growth are natural and vigorous. With us in Ontario it has most unfortunately occurred that the governing body of the University have uniformly shewn a disposition to with-

draw their proceedings from public observation, and even from academic opinion; they have never taken into their confidence the people, or even the University graduates; and they have maintained an unbroken silence as to their educational policy. On one deplorable occasion they were ranged in direct hostility to the people and to their representatives in Parliament. In the struggle for religious equality the University actually became the champion for the party of intolerance. The natural result followed. The Charter of 1828, under which the University had made itself obnoxious, was snuffed out after much sputtering, and only a brief, feeble, sooty illumination; and the Chair of Divinity was kicked over in the dark. Now, even before the days of the Charter, a scheme was adopted by which the graduates should largely control the policy of the projected University; and, under the Representation Act of 1820 (Statutes of Canada, 60 George III., cap. 2), they were, by anticipation, actually assigned a special member in Parliament who would explain and defend their views. When assembled in convocation, the graduates were to enjoy all the powers of the Convocation of Oxford University (Charter, 1828). The convocation scheme runs through George the Fourth's charter, through the first University Act (1837), and through the Baldwin Act (1849 and 1850-1). There is an obvious necessity for a Convocation in such a University system as ours. All experience has shewn that the general tendency of University corporations is towards lifeless routine; or, when reforms are urged, towards reactionary intrigue. Men as they grow old naturally resent such advances of knowledge as jostle their traditions, or depreciate their scholastic wares. They have no relish for undertaking the newer studies themselves; they keenly contest any

educational movement that displaces their own pet subjects or pet views from their former "coigne of vantage." A familiar illustration is supplied in the extreme acrimony excited by the first introduction of Greek into English schools. The representative of educational reaction now resists even the partial displacement of Greek by Modern Languages or Natural Science, with the same earnestness and heat as his lineal ancestor, three centuries and a half ago, abused Erasmus for introducing Greek. In our University system the frank and open discussion of academical questions by the graduates was designed to prepare the way for progressive enactments in the Senate. But in spite of the plainest provisions of law, this design has hitherto been completely frustrated by a party of reaction within the governing body who have always succeeded by the simple process of withdrawing their proceedings from every opportunity of public observation or criticism. Throughout the various phases of the legislation designed to counteract this result, University management has always, by this simple secrecy of proceedings, been gradually worked back into the hands of a small local coterie. The Hincks University Act of 1853, as we have seen, expressly demanded of the Senate an annual exposition of its policy, and its proposed academical measures. This obligation is still in full force. During the twenty-five years that have passed, how many such reports has the senate presented to Parliament? Has it presented one? If so, will some one obligingly tell us where it is to be found?

Mr. Crooks' Act of 1873 was evidently drawn with extreme care, and the highest expectations were naturally raised by the representative character given to the reorganized senate. Under this Act the present composition is as follows:—Chancellor (elected by convocation), 1; Vice-Chancellor (elected

by senate), 1; Minister of Education, 1; President of University College, 1; elected representatives of Law Society, Toronto School of Medicine, Trinity College School of Medicine, Albert College, Belleville, Woodstock Literary Institute, High School Masters,—for each constituency one representative,—6; Principal of Upper Canada College, 1; representatives elected by University College Council, 2; representatives elected by the convocation of graduates, 15; ex-Chancellor, 1; ex-Vice-Chancellors, 4; nominated by Lieutenant-Governor, 9. Total, 42. The convocation of graduates is convenable by the Senate; but, on the requisition of twenty-five members, convocation has an independent power of assembling, and of discussing the special question for which the meeting was called. The graduates assembled in convocation enjoy the following among other powers, which are specially designated in the Act: “(2) the power of discussing any matter whatsoever relating to the University, and of declaring the opinion of convocation in any such matter; (3) the power of taking into consideration all questions affecting the well-being and prosperity of the University, and of making representations from time to time on such questions to the Senate of the said University, who shall consider the same and return to convocation their conclusions thereon; (4) the power of discussing, upon such terms as the Senate shall propose, the affiliation of any college or school with the said University.” Now here were salutary provisions for keeping currents of fresh thought and intellectual activity constantly flowing through the Senate, and for the healthy agitation of its surface by breezes of academic opinion. Let us see how far the spirit of these reforms has been observed. The minutes of the University Senate for 1877 and 1878 were last session called

for by the House of Assembly, and were brought down. From the minutes it is learned that the Senate of the Provincial University does not usually assemble in the Senate Chamber of the University, but at Upper Canada College. During the two years, 1877 and 1878, only one meeting is designated in the minutes as having been convened at the official place of assembly. The usual hour of meeting is eight p.m.,—only two deviations from this practice being recorded. Twenty-three meetings transacted business in 1877, with an average attendance of twelve members at each meeting. In 1878, the number of meetings fell to one-half; the average attendance of members declined to ten; and, on two occasions, there was but the bare quorum of five members present. At these two meetings, nevertheless, the results of two matriculation examinations were received and finally determined. As the University of Toronto is, by its legal definition, an exclusively examining corporation, it may be inferred how the active interest of the Senate has declined in the discharge of even its chief functions. The same occurred in 1877. At a meeting of five members the examiners’ report on the matriculation candidates was considered, and apparently disposed of. It will be remembered that the Senate consists of forty-two members. The largest attendance on any occasion during the two years was on Tuesday, 5th June, 1877, when nineteen members assembled to handle the heated question of medical affiliation. On this occasion there evidently was a real field-night, and a heavy artillery duel all along the whole line. These minutes of Senate, though not exhilarating literature, afford much tempting material for criticism. I shall, however, confine myself to a brief notice of the important business that was *expedited* on the four nights, the

18th May, the 22nd May, the 23rd May, and the 28th May, 1877. The whole of the new curriculum was discussed and disposed of in the two middle nights, with portions of the two others. On the first of these part nights, the Senate discussed and disposed also of two important measures that were suggested by Dr. Fyfe of Woodstock: the holding of examinations at affiliated Colleges, and the substitution of numbers for names on the papers of students under examination. The second part night disposed of the entire question of the higher education of women; it also decided the subjects of examination for the new scholarship founded and endowed by the munificence of the Hon. Edward Blake.

Now take the two great questions that were here so swiftly decided, the intermediate and higher education of our sons and of our daughters,—were these two questions of so little consequence to the country that they were settled in less time than would have been devoted to the preliminary argument on two trivial issues in a court of law? In these brief hours, without convocation or the constituencies being apprised of the vastly important measures that were passing, the University Senate decided, it may be, according to the usual practice, for ten or fifteen years to come, the studies that shall be pursued, and the studies that shall be neglected in our High Schools and our Colleges. Printed copies of the proposed statutes were not supplied even to the members of the Senate, which would have afforded them some opportunity for reflection and criticism. The draft of the statutes was simply read aloud from the manuscript, and adopted with or without amendment. Now convocation was created, as we saw a little ago, for the special purpose of discussing such measures, and the constituencies of University electors

were surely intended to consult with and instruct their representatives in the Senate. Consultation and discussion are, of course, impossible where secrecy of proceedings is jealously maintained. Suppose the Minister of Education were some evening in the Assembly, while it was sitting with closed doors, to read from a manuscript a recast of the entire school-system and this were adopted at his reading, and the first public announcement of the revised system were made through the distribution of the statutes of the Session, what a violent outcry would instantly ensue! If the Minister's administration of school affairs commands general confidence, while the University Senate is exciting almost universal distrust, it is simply owing to the difference of procedure. If the slightest modification of the school law is projected, the draft-bill is scattered broad-cast among the constituencies, public discussion is invited, the opinions of practised educationists are carefully weighed. The school-bill in its final form really represents the deliberate judgment of an educated people.

The general absence of non-resident members throughout the entire proceedings of the two years is very marked. With the exception of Mr. Gibson (Hamilton), non-resident members have not often sacrificed—as they are now, it seems, expected to do—their convenience and comfort to attend at eight p.m. in Toronto, a brief meeting of the University Senate. Members thus residing at a distance must defray their own expenses, and it will strike every one as exceedingly discourteous in the Senate to place their meetings at such an hour as must commit many of the non-resident members to the loss of two days, with proportionate inconvenience and expense. The Senate have made it rather a costly process to come to their meetings; and, after travelling one or two hundred

miles, the non-resident member may after all witness an adjournment for want of a quorum. While this systematic discouragement of outside membership is permitted, how idle it is to invite the smaller Universities throughout the Province to surrender their charters and throw themselves on the honour of Toronto University! Until the Senate treats its present constituencies with some degree of respect, the addition of other constituencies may reasonably be postponed. If the Senate does not consult the University Convocation, is it in the least degree probable that it would take into consideration the councils of the smaller Universities? There are said to be some new aspirants for University charters who will presently make themselves heard. Where will this confusion and mischief end? No one at all acquainted with the facts can doubt that if Mr. Crooks' University Act had been carried out by the Senate in the true spirit of its representative provisions, the present formidable difficulties would never have arisen. Though the Act has been but six years in force, the important clauses relating to convocation have already been rendered by the Senate as obsolete as are the early Canadian enactments against bears and wolves.

In this Act of 1873, it was distinctly assumed, and indeed it was explained in Parliament, that in the next University curriculum there would be a proper recognition of modern science; and, accordingly, the 7th section of the Act provided for the convocation-rights of *Bachelors and Doctors of Science*. This new curriculum has appeared; but in spite of some strenuous representations that were made in the Senate, the promised recognition of science *has been refused*. The matriculation, which profoundly affects all our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes is framed in conspicuous con-

tempt of all advanced ideas of higher education. The curriculum of 1879 is, in several particulars, more antiquated than the late curriculum of 1864; and it is vastly more antiquated than that of twenty-five years ago. A quarter of a century back, the matriculation of the Provincial University recognized the claims of modern science and of contemporary history; fifteen years ago, contemporary history had still survived, though modern science had been throttled; but in 1879, it is rendered useless for students at matriculation, or subsequently, to extend their historical studies beyond the death of George the Third. This is no oversight; it was deliberately so decided. The curriculum committee's report, as recommended by the Vice-Chancellor (Hon. Chief Justice Moss), assigned for the examination of matriculants the period of history from Queen Anne to George IV.; but an amendment was pressed and carried changing the period so as to read "William III. to George III." This is quite in the key of our early chroniclers, who spent so much time yawning over threadbare legend and mildewed gossip that they hardly ever reached the life and action of their own day. Another question out of a score that offer themselves! Can any one defend the inconsistency of admitting into the curriculum the contemporary literature of France and Germany, while carefully excluding the English literature of our own day? Sir Walter Scott appears to be the most recent English author that, at any stage of a student's career, it is "proper form" for him to acquire. If Heine and Victor Hugo have sufficiently ripened in German and French literature, are Tennyson and Browning still too crude and immature for standard English literature?

As was observed at the outset, the present unsatisfactory administration of the Senate is due not to any defect

in the University Act, or to any fault in the Ministry, but to the persistent efforts of a party of reaction within the Senate itself, who resist publicity of discussion, discourage the attendance of non-resident members, and strenuously oppose an adequate recognition of modern knowledge.

The remedies are tolerably obvious. Two sessions, each of a week, would probably dispatch all the business of the Senate in any year. These sessions being held from day to day, could, without much expense or inconvenience, be attended by non-resident members. The Senate should hold its sessions with open doors in the Convocation Hall of the University; and it should encourage and welcome the presence of its constitu-

ents and of the members of the press. It should furnish an annual announcement of its educational policy, as required by the statute. The official minutes of its meetings should be supplied to the special journals devoted to Education, and members' notices of motion may very suitably be made public through the same channels. For the transaction of simple routine business between the sessions permanent committees could readily be arranged. These are ordinary details, not beyond the ingenuity of any voluntary organization in the Province. The single difficulty in the whole matter is the indisposition of the Senate. Legislation should not be required, but it may once more be found necessary.

THE wild folly that anybody can teach school, has not yet been thoroughly eliminated from the thought and practices of our people. Indeed we fear that the hard times of the past few years have had a tendency to make our people forget, in a measure, the trite and truthful saying, "A poor teacher is dear at any price." We contend for more scholarship, more learning, more intellectual discipline, more culture, more breadth, and life and power in the body of our teachers. The high and grave responsibilities of the profession must have recognition and acknowledgment. We must not expect the services of men and women of teaching power and ability for an inconsiderate compensation. It requires time and money to fit one to become a *true teacher*, and it is the quintessence of meanness to refuse to pay the full value of the labours of such a teacher. The teacher's platform must be attainable only through gates as straight and ways as narrow as those that lead to the pulpit, the bar, the office of the physician, and the editor's chair, for the science and art of instruction demand talents, capacities, knowledge and culture as great, if not greater, than are exacted by any other calling in the world. The teacher's salary must be commensurate with the income of the professional and business man if we expect to keep men of equal ability and learning in our profession. Now, that better

times are dawning upon us, let our people at once raise the wages of our poorly paid teachers. Iron, coal, wheat, in fact every commodity, has recently advanced in price, so have wages of all kinds, and it is but right that teachers demand wages that will in some measure be a compensation for their services. We do not deny that there are scores of teachers (or persons trying to teach) who are receiving far more than their services are worth, in fact, we know of teachers who are a positive injury, a curse to the children they train. But these *canker worms* must be got rid of in an entirely different way than by lowering teachers' wages. In truth this plan only gives us a greater number of this class and so securely fastens them upon us, that there is no such thing as shaking them off. The raising of the standard of qualifications and of teachers' wages is decidedly the best plan for all concerned. See to it that you have good teachers or none. Let every parent give this matter his careful and personal attention, because there is nothing of greater importance. See to it that you have a good teacher to teach your school and see to it that he is well paid. If you have a poor teacher, take immediate steps to be rid of him. Put up with anything under heaven rather than an incompetent, careless, and indolent teacher.—*The Normal Teacher.*

AN INAUGURAL ADDRESS ON EDUCATION.*

BY PROF. GOLDWIN SMITH, M.A.

YOU will not expect me to sing the praises of education. Education has no longer any enemies, and, therefore it needs no defenders. If a prejudice lingers in some secluded nooks, it lingers only like the snow in the hollows, soon to melt beneath the advancing sun. I did hear the other day of a gentleman farmer who thanked heaven that he had not been left long at school, for, if he had been, he should have got ideas. A Spanish priest, or a statesman of the Spanish school, may dislike knowledge because it banishes superstition; but nobody in a country like ours can fancy that superstition is in any respect worth preserving, or doubt that a society in any degree founded upon it would be in a most unsound and perilous condition. We need not overestimate the value of merely intellectual training, or ascribe to it powers of magically conjuring away the faults of men or communities which it does not really possess. Character, I fully admit, not intellect, is the chief thing to be considered. Character is the main source both of our usefulness and of our happiness in this life, and the sole earthly ground of any hopes we may have beyond. Character is the only thing belonging to us which

is not utterly swallowed up and lost in the vastness of the material universe, or which we can imagine to have in it the germ of immortality. But there is no opposition between character and intellect. Without a certain measure of intellect, no character but that of a monk or a fakir can exist. Without a certain degree of culture, we shall hardly, as a general rule, have those sensibilities which are essential to moral beauty. In a political point of view, whatever may be the case under a despotism, general education is the vital necessity of a free State. "We must educate our masters" were the words that leaped from the lips of a Conservative but keen-sighted statesman as soon as the Reform Bill of 1867 had passed. The phrase is needlessly harsh. Our object is that nobody should be master or servant, in a political sense; but that all should be coequal members of a community having the good of all for its end and rule. But though the phrase is harsh, the truth is momentous, and the governing classes have shewn that they feel it to be so. I do not think it possible for any one acquainted with American society not to be convinced of the immense political value of popular education. We

* [By the courtesy of Mr. Goldwin Smith we are permitted to give publicity in our pages to the following address delivered by that gentleman as President, for the year 1877-8, of the Salt Schools, Shipley, England. These Schools are called by the name, and dedicated to the memory, of Sir Titus Salt, whose munificence not only found expression in founding them, but in creating the almost Utopian town of Saltaire—an industrial village formed of the homes of the work-people employed by that philanthropic Baronet and worthy merchant prince.—ED. C. E. M.]

may find flaws in the American school system, which varies very much in point of excellence in different districts; but we can hardly form any opinion but one as to the character of the general result. Knowledge will not supply the place of public any more than of private honour or duty; it will not make men patriots; it may sometimes make selfishness more formidable to the State and increase the powers of bad men for evil. We have had too many proofs in the United States themselves that it is not an infallible safeguard against corruption; though, let me remark, in countries noted for popular ignorance, such as Spain and Turkey, to say nothing of our own country under the régime of the last century, political corruption is ten times worse than it is in the United States. But knowledge and the intelligence developed in acquiring it do give you a people capable of understanding the public interests, and of solving aright any question in which the public interests are concerned when fairly brought before their minds. The more you see of American politics, the more you will learn to trust the national intelligence and to rely on the power of the community to save itself from actual disaster, even when it has gone dangerously near the brink. Apart from any ultra-democratic sympathies, few can doubt that, in the political progress of humanity, the hour of popular government has arrived; that the principle of order henceforth must be general self-guidance, not the pressure of external force; and in embarking on a political sea not exempt from storms, it is something to be assured by American experience that one anchor will hold.

I should waste your time then if I were to descant on the benefits of education; I should be guilty of presumption if I were to lecture you on the management of schools. There must be many present who under-

stand that subject better than I do; especially the head master whom the Governors have just selected, upon strong evidence of his merits, and who is entering on his career with the best omens, and the head mistress who has already presided for a year with the greatest success.

In looking at the school buildings, the apparatus, the sanitary arrangements, one is struck with the immense stride that has been made since the early days of popular education, when Erasmus depicted the hapless pedagogue in a close and fetid room, wearily listening to the tasks of pupils whose only aid to learning was his rod. Teaching is still hard, and often weary work; in justice to the teacher it should be remembered that it is so. Learning is not play, and cannot be made so. But as the railroad is to the packhorse, so both for the teacher and pupil, is the school of the present day to the school of four hundred years ago. Nay, I suspect, the accommodation and apparatus even of our most expensive schools, as they were not half-a-century ago, would seem wretched, compared with those of a popular school to-day. And perhaps these improvements may only be the earnest of still greater improvements of all kinds to come. Some of our best intellect is now given to these subjects, and we may expect the fruits daily more and more to appear.

The improvement of the material apparatus is the symbol of an equal or even greater improvement in the course of instruction. The list of subjects for the Salt Schools comprises mathematics, English grammar, composition and literature, history, geography (physical and political), natural science, political economy, drawing, class singing and harmony, with one or more of the following languages—Greek, Latin, French, and German. No one can find fault with the liberality of such a programme,

which gives to the new subjects, physical science and modern languages, the place we all now feel to be due to them. It moves the envious regret of one who was educated under the old system at a school where nothing was taught but Greek and Latin. At the same time, nobody ought to complain, because by the retention of Greek and Latin, at least as optional studies, the connection between the old and the new system is preserved. We cannot at once break with the past in the case of education, any more than in other cases. Education, like things in general, is in a state of transition, which wisdom will smooth, not render it more abrupt. The advocates of a sudden and complete change of the school and University course in the interest of Science seem a little un-mindful of their own doctrine of gradual evolution. Old studies may be rationalised and liberalised without being discarded. We may give up the weary and barren grinding at Greek and Latin grammar, the useless torture, as it is in ordinary cases, of Greek and Latin composition, without giving up Greek and Latin. To Greek I do not cling; I was always willing to give it up as a compulsory study, even at the Universities, because it seemed to me that few students gained a sufficient mastery of it to repay them for the drudgery of learning the rudiments. But I do cling to Latin, of which a respectable knowledge is more easily attained. It is far superior to any modern language for the purposes of linguistic training; and, besides itself enfolding great treasures, it is the key to French, Italian, and Spanish. We are here dealing not merely with elementary, but with more advanced education; and therefore it is not out of place to remark that perhaps the highest fruit of education, after all, is intellectual power. Not that there is anything to prevent

knowledge and intellectual power from being acquired by the same study; but it is well to keep the double end in view. The power of sustained attention above all is invaluable; it should be carefully and systematically cultivated in a child; where it is wanting nothing satisfactory can be done. The Scotch, I take it, are indebted for their proverbial success in no small measure to the mental habits formed by the strict arithmetical drilling in their schools. Amidst the crowd of subjects, old and new, now pressing for admission to the school course, we have to be on our guard against attempting too much, and imparting a mere show of multifarious knowledge. The bad effects of such quackery will not be confined to the understanding; they will extend to the character as well. A little knowledge is not in itself a dangerous thing; it is better to know a little of a subject than to know nothing. But it is dangerous to think we know much when we know little or nothing.

By teaching singing and drawing you provide for the æsthetic part of our nature as well as for the literary and scientific. The total neglect of this kind of instruction was surely a great defect in our old school system. Germany shews us how important and how beneficial an element in national life and character music may be made. For the purpose of general education music has the advantage over drawing of being social, and of being more easily carried up to a satisfactory point. But drawing, independently of its value as an element of culture, may have a high industrial value, especially under the circumstances in which English industry is placed. At least, I cannot help thinking that England, to maintain her ascendancy, will have in some degree to adapt herself to changed conditions, so far, at least, as the trade with America and the Colonies is concerned. Those

communities will supply their own markets with the heavier and coarser goods ; it may be doubted whether even the reduction of the American tariff would make much difference in that respect. But for the finer articles—for everything into which cultivated taste enters, and which needs the stamp of cultivated taste to commend it—the new country will long look to the old.

While provision is made in your course for the mind, and for the whole mind, you do not overlook the body. The laws of health are to be taught, and power is given to make arrangements for teaching swimming and gymnastics. Perhaps we are apt to be rather sanguine in estimating the probable effects of a mere knowledge of the laws of health. Dives knows very well that high living is bad for his gout, yet Dives lives high. A mother knows very well that the sweetmeats for which her darling cries will disagree with it, and yet she gives it the sweetmeats. We have even heard of medical men very careful of the diet of their patients, but very careless about their own. Want of cleanliness and of sanitary precautions generally, springs quite as often from neglect as from ignorance. Still, a distinct and scientific perception of consequences may not be without effect. More certain is the effect of gymnastics, or, better than gymnastics, out-of-door sports, in producing health to boys. Moderate exercises of this kind will also be the best antidote to the insane athleticism which of late years has taken so strange a hold upon the nation. Formerly the body was often neglected, and the mind suffered from the weakness of its yoke-fellow. Now there is a violent rebound, and it seems to be thought the highest fruit of a long and expensive education to row nearly as well as a waterman, and to run half as fast as a horse. Time

and money are wasted on the cultivation of powers by which no man can make his bread, and which in a few years come to nothing ; a false standard of excellence is set up in our places of education ; and after all, according to the best authorities, permanent health is not secured.

These, however, are general remarks on education, a momentous, but a well-worn theme. There is a clause in your deed of foundation which claims special notice, because it is not only important but peculiar. The clause to which I refer is that excluding sectarian teaching and substituting for theology compensatory instruction of another kind. It runs thus :—“The teachers shall not endeavour to inculcate or controvert the doctrines of any sectarian religious creed, but shall strive to instil into the minds of the scholars such views and principles as will improve their habits, elevate their moral tone, and give them a true appreciation of those mutual obligations in all human relations, on which the welfare of mankind is based ; it being intended that the duty of providing distinctively theological instruction shall be left to the parents or guardians.” The mention of the religious question in connection with education at once reminds us of the age in which we live. It is an age surpassing in momentous change any previous period of history—we might almost say all previous history put together, at least since the coming of Christ. In political revolutions, in military conflicts of the most tremendous kind the last half-century has abounded ; but what are even these compared with the revolution which appears to be taking place in the fundamental beliefs of man ? In the age of the Reformation the political and social convulsions, the wars and insurrections were the consequences and the outward manifestations of the deeper movement which

was going on in the religious sphere. So it is at the present time; but the prospect of change now opened before us is even greater than that opened by the Reformation. The Reformation withdrew the authority of the Medieval church on which belief up to that time had rested, and it thereby gave a tremendous shock to religious faith and to society; but it left another authority, that of the canon of Scripture, undisturbed. Christendom still felt firm ground beneath its feet. There was an assignable limit to the disintegration of belief. But what assignable limit is there now? The rate at which disintegration is going on you may measure by looking back over the literature of the last twenty, nay of the last ten years. For my own part, having followed the discussion with as much attention and as open a mind as I could, while I admit that much is gone, irrevocably gone, of that which we learned at our mother's knee, I still hold fast the conviction that the religious instincts of man point true, that his spiritual nature is a reality, that his spiritual aspirations have an object, and that from the ashes of dogma and legend, religion will arise purified, renovated, reconciled with reason and with science, to exercise a more practical influence than ever over the life and hopes of man. But amidst our present doubts and divisions I see the impossibility of including theology among the subjects of a national education. Your difficulty with the teachers is as great as with the pupils or with the parents of the pupils. You cannot set a teacher to instil anything which he does not himself believe. If my reading of the situation is true, the day will come when in all our schools we shall again teach as the most precious and vital of all knowledge, the relations of man to God; at present, in schools destined as these are for the benefit of all religious

denominations alike, we shall probably have to be content with teaching the relations of man to man.

For teaching the relations of man to man, special provision is made in the clause which I have quoted. The teachers are directed "to instil into the minds of the pupils such views and principles as will give them a true appreciation of those mutual obligations in all human relations on which the welfare of mankind is based." No doubt these words have a definite meaning. There is reason to believe that social morality, at all events, is now capable of being taught more clearly and in a more efficacious manner than it has hitherto been. The very fact that the religious sanction has been weakened by criticism and doubt, has led inquirers to examine more closely the secular sanction of those duties on the fulfilment of which the existence of civil society depends. I do not myself profess to believe that they have yet discovered any new motive power sufficiently strong, in the case of ordinary men, to supply the place of religious hopes and fears. The service of humanity is the new motive power proposed; but in the first place you have to prove the unity of humanity, which at present remains a moot point, many men of science positively denying it; and, in the second place, you have to shew why humanity, in the absence of any spiritual bond or aim of the human race, should be sacred, and a rational object of self-sacrificing love. Still, I do not doubt that, by the aid of recent investigations, social duty, with the secular rewards of its performance and the secular penalties of its neglect, may be more practically and impressively presented even to the young. Those who possess the special gift—a rarer one than is commonly supposed—of writing school books, will find here a worthy field for their powers.

With regard to the commercial relations of life especially, it would seem possible to do good and avert evil by clear and practical instruction. These labour wars, these strikes and lockings-out, which, at a very critical juncture, are imperilling the future of British industry, must arise from a misconception of interest on the one side or the other. No doubt temper and class-feeling play a part, at least when the conflict has begun. Still the root of the disagreement must be a misconception of interest; and that misconception could hardly occur if the plain facts as to our economical relations had been ingrained into both parties from their childhood. There is in this case hardly any conflict of motives; self-interest is the only thing to be considered; it is a question between enlightened self-interest and self-interest unenlightened. Clear perceptions, therefore, are likely in this case to produce right actions. A workman would hardly sacrifice many months' wages, and expose himself and his family to severe privations for the purpose of forcing the market for his labour, if he saw distinctly that the market could not be forced, and that the only result would be injury to his own trade. He would not have blind faith in the effect of putting the screw on his immediate employer, if the fact were clearly present to his mind that it was not his immediate employer, but the purchasing public, which really fixed the price to be paid for the goods, and therefore for the labour which produced them. Nor, on the other hand, would the landlords in 1846 have furiously resisted the repeal of the Corn Laws, and hunted down the statesmen who repealed them, had they seen, as they might have done, and as the better informed among them did, that cheaper food would develop manufactures, that the development of manufactures would greatly enrich the country;

and that the increase of wealth in the country would raise the value of land. Recent events in the United States shew us the perils of economical delusion, especially where the legislative power is in the hands of the masses, who may make a suicidal use of it; and we may at least hope to banish delusion by making our people familiar from childhood with economical fact.

History, again, is a study which, as I perhaps am specially bound to remind you, may play a useful part not only in the intellectual, but in the moral and social training of the young. The philosophy of history is of course beyond the range of children, even if there were any settled philosophy of history to teach, which, with deference to Mr. Buckle and others who fancy they have discovered the great secret, I venture to think at present there is not. Leading facts and dates you may teach; the young memory retains them with ease, and they form a framework which after-reading will fill up. But you might as well feed a child with sawdust as force it to swallow a dry epitome of history, such as some of our historical school-books have been. The ethical portions of history, the striking characters, the great deeds—all that cultivates right sympathies and awakens generous emotions—are the best fitted for the purposes of education. They must of course be connected by a thread of narrative. Goldsmith long held his place, in spite of his uncritical character, by telling his story well and impressing the imagination. However, our writers of school-books know all this, and they are producing works which will enable history to do all in its power towards forming the character of the young.

Fiction can hardly be introduced into the teaching of schools, unless it be in reading-books, where, perhaps, more room might be made for it. It

is needless to say how great is its power in forming the sentiments of children; far greater than that of moral precept. The teaching of "Sandford and Merton" was not very high, but the influence of the book was great. The teaching of Hans Andersen's tales is high, and their influence happily is great also.

Apart, however, from the instruction, the system and discipline of the school, if the system is good and the discipline well administered, are powerful instruments for the formation of character, especially the character of the citizen. They inculcate, at the most impressible age, and in the most effective manner, respect for authority and obedience to law. They form a daily training in order, punctuality, good behaviour, and regulated duty. In the case of the poor, even the material neatness and cleanliness of a good school, and its sanitary arrangements, are lessons in that which has been said to be next to godliness, and which is certainly very near to morality. More than this, it does not follow, because a school is not religious in its formal teaching, that it is not religious in its character. If the community to which the school belongs is religious, the religious spirit will pervade the school as it does everything else, as it does the social gathering or the place of business. No school-house door will shut it out. If Christianity is true, a Christian teacher will preach it, though not in the form of creeds and catechisms, yet in a more effective form by presenting to his pupils an example of Christian love of duty for its own sake, of Christian patience, gentleness, courtesy, forbearance, kindness to the infirmities of the weak. Before a word of the New Testament was written, and long before creeds or catechisms were composed, the Founder of Christianity taught his religion by his life.

It is only theology that we resign

to the parent and the clergyman, in whose hands we leave it with only a single remark; one which has a bearing on our discussions respecting the subjects of public education. Some people, especially those whom I may call political religionists, seem to think that though you do not believe a thing, or do not hold it as certain truth yourself, it may be a good thing to teach it as certain truth to the young. This is a Jesuitical policy, and surely, like all Jesuitism, it is a mistake. There are many things which must be withheld from the young; it would be wrong to disturb their minds prematurely with controversy or doubt; but surely it never can be right or wise to teach them anything but what you honestly believe yourself to be true. You defeat your own end; the child grows up, it hears what is said, reads what is written, thinks for itself, sees that a part of your teaching was false, mistrusts the whole, and becomes a general sceptic. Let us not forget that the Jesuits educated Voltaire. I say nothing of the effect of politic teaching of untruth on the teachers themselves. From the apparent conflict between science and religion, the religious world is at present in perplexity and distress; no one can help being aware of it; even an intelligent boy or girl, unless exceptionally secluded, must begin to be conscious of it. But our only hope of extrication lies in steadfast, single-minded and thorough-going loyalty to truth. The God whom we worship must be the God of truth, and the only way to Him must be the way of truth. Education is no exception. A child ought to be taught above all things that truth is sacred; and when he comes to look back upon his education he ought to feel that truth has been held sacred in his case.

There is one more clause in the deed of foundation calling for special notice, though I am not in a position

to deal as I should desire with the matter to which it relates. I refer to the clause empowering the governors, if they think fit, wholly or partially to combine the boys' and girls' departments of the schools. I need not tell you that to educate boys and girls together is the common—I believe I may say it is the universal—practice in the public schools of the United States; and had I foreseen that I should have occasion to speak of the subject here, I might have observed the results of the system more closely than I have done. As it is, I can only state impressions. The convenience of the system is obvious, especially in a new country; it enables you to economize in buildings and apparatus, perhaps to some extent in the staff, though a due proportion ought in every case to be preserved between the number of the teachers and that of the pupils. Nor have I ever heard or observed that the system led to anything bad. On the other hand, I never heard or observed that it led to anything particularly good. Those who can afford to send their children to private schools generally, I believe, prefer the separation of the sexes. American women differ in character from English women, but there are various circumstances to which the difference may be ascribed, and I could not undertake without more careful inquiry to say, how much of it is due to the particular circumstance of mixed education. Still less would I venture to solve the question which type of female character is to be preferred. One whose taste has been formed in England is naturally disposed to say of English women that, in spite of the jeremiads one hears, we might go farther and fare worse. We are here dealing of course with the case of boys and girls at school, not of young men and women at a University. We therefore have not to consider, as in dealing with the

Universities, the destinations of the sexes in life, which, supposing them to be different, would require a corresponding difference in their final education; nor have we to consider the risk, as I suppose most persons would admit it to be, of throwing together all the young gentlemen and all the young ladies of the country in a university city at a distance from their homes. I cannot help thinking, however, that with regard to the whole question, one, at least, of the grounds for desiring the change is in some degree fallacious. Great results are expected from the beneficial interaction of the sexes. The interaction of the sexes is of unspeakable value; but it depends upon the retention by each sex of its distinct mental characteristics. Obliterate the distinct characteristics, or greatly reduce them by a common education, and the beneficial interaction will hardly remain the same. As I said, I am merely stating impressions. There is no danger in the experiment, and the result of the experiment must decide.

In speaking of the effects of education in the United States, I ought to have added that it did not end with the school, but was continued in after life. It is continued by lectures, institutes, and public libraries, besides a very active press and the stimulating influences of a highly political community. The benefits of merely elementary education, with nothing to sustain it afterwards, may be easily overrated; I fear they are very limited in the case of our country-people, who often give up reading entirely and lose the power of writing altogether. Here you have the means of keeping up education in your Institute, which is maintained on a most liberal footing, and appears to be doing its work well.

I said that it would be presumptuous in me to speak of the organiza-

tion of schools. It would be still greater presumption to attempt to instruct your staff of teachers in their duties. They know as well as I do, and better than I do, the essentials of good discipline; the necessity of making only reasonable rules, and enforcing them steadily when made; of distinguishing between unwillingness and inability to learn, and never treating involuntary dulness as though it were culpable idleness; of punishing, where punishment is unavoidable, deliberately and without anger; of always preserving your self-respect, that you may always be respected by your pupils. To be sparing as well as deliberate in punishment is the obvious dictate of wisdom, as well as of kindness. With regard to rewards, at least those of a competitive character, there are differences of opinion among those better qualified to judge than I am. In the case of children, it seems difficult not to think that there is some danger in a lavish use of the stimulus of emulation. It can hardly fail sometimes to breed selfishness and envy in the little breasts. Two things at all events may safely be said: first, that duty, where it will avail, is a better motive than emulation; and secondly, that care should be taken never to let a child be cast down or feel itself put aside and degraded merely because cleverer children win the prize. Perhaps we are apt to expect and exact rather too much from our ordinary teachers, and the teacher may be discouraged at finding himself or herself unable to come up to the ideal. Arnolds are rare even in the highest grades of the profession. To few can it be given to mould, as Arnold did, the characters of pupils by personal influence. But to all it is given to administer faithfully and patiently a well-ordered system, and the teacher who does this may be sure that, though his path

of duty be a lowly one, and his trials not few, he is doing the best of work for the community and laying up in store for himself all the happiness which the retrospect of such work can give. Especially is this so at a time when, feeling that some of the bonds which held society together in more primitive times have failed, we are looking to national education with increased interest as one of the great organizing forces, and the main source of rational allegiance for the future. But we must not forget that the teacher has a fair chance of success only when the home co-operates with the school. Delegate to the schoolmaster as much authority as you will, you cannot make over to him the special influence of the parent, or enable him fully to counteract the parent's influence when it is evil. What is best and what is worst in a child's character will still have their source in its home. Happy, if I may trust the results of my own observation, is the child whose parents having a good day-school within reach, are able to give it at once the advantages of school and home; the means of instruction and the stimulus of the class, which can only be found in a school, and at the same time the daily preservation of those gentler affections which are too apt to be chilled and deadened, to the permanent injury of the child's character, by long removal from home.

And now I have only to unite my best wishes with those of all my audience for the success of the Salt Schools. May this day be to them the beginning of a long and prosperous course. May they fulfil all the hopes of their founders, and yield to the efforts of their teachers a happy and abundant harvest. May they do honour to the name they bear, and give many a counterpart of Sir Titus Salt to industry, to England, and to mankind.

WORDSWORTH.*

BY MATTHEW ARNOLD, M.A.

WORDSWORTH has been in his grave for some thirty years, and certainly his lovers and admirers cannot flatter themselves that this great and steady light of glory as yet shines over him. He is not fully recognized at home; he is not recognized at all abroad. Yet I firmly believe that the poetical performance of Wordsworth is, after that of Shakspeare and Milton, of which all the world now recognizes the worth, undoubtedly the most considerable in our language from the Elizabethan age to the present time. Chaucer is anterior; and on other grounds, too, he cannot well be brought into the comparison. But taking the roll of our chief poetical names, besides Shakspeare and Milton, from the age of Elizabeth downwards, and going through it—Spencer, Dryden, Pope, Gray, Goldsmith, Cowper, Burns, Coleridge, Campbell, Moore, Byron, Shelley, Keats (I mention those only who are dead)—I think it certain that Wordsworth's name deserves to stand, and will finally stand, above them all. Several of the poets named have gifts and excellences which Wordsworth has not. But taking the performance of each as a whole, I say that Wordsworth seems to me to have left a body of poetical work superior in power, in interest, in the qualities which give enduring freshness, to that which any one of the others has left.

But this is not enough to say. I think it certain, further, that if we take the chief poetical names of the

Continent since the death of Molière, and, omitting Goethe, confront the remaining names with that of Wordsworth, the result is the same. Let us take Klopstock, Lessing, Schiller, Uhland, Ruckert, and Heine for Germany; Filicaja, Alfieri, Manzoni, and Leopardi for Italy; Racine, Boileau, Voltaire, Andre Chenier, Beranger, Lamartine, Musset, M. Victor Hugo (he has been so long celebrated that although he still lives I may be permitted to name him), for France. Several of these, again, have evidently gifts and excellences to which Wordsworth can make no pretension. But in real poetical achievement it seems to me indubitable that to Wordsworth here again belongs the palm. It seems to me that Wordsworth has left behind him a body of poetical work which wears, and will wear, better, on the whole, than the performance of any one of these personages, so far more brilliant and celebrated, most of them, than the homely poet of Rydal. Wordsworth's performance in poetry is, on the whole, in power, in interest, in the qualities which give enduring freshness, superior to theirs.

This is a high claim to make for Wordsworth. But if it is a just claim—if Wordsworth's place among the poets who have appeared in the last two or three centuries is after Shakspeare, Molière, Milton, Goethe, indeed, but before all the rest, then in time Wordsworth will have his due. We shall recognize him in his place,

* From "Poems of Wordsworth, chosen and edited by Matthew Arnold." London: Macmillan & Co; New York: Harper & Bros., 1879,

as we recognize Shakspeare and Milton; and not only we ourselves shall recognize him, but he will be recognized by Europe also. Meanwhile, those who recognize him already may do well, perhaps, to ask themselves whether there are not in the case of Wordsworth certain special obstacles which hinder or delay his due recognition by others, and whether these obstacles are not in some measure removable.

The *Excursion* and the *Prelude*, his poems of greatest bulk, are by no means Wordsworth's best work. His best work is in his shorter pieces, and many, indeed, are there of these which are of first-rate excellence. But in his seven volumes the pieces of high merit are mingled with a mass of pieces very inferior to them; so inferior to them that it seems wonderful how the same poet should have produced both. Shakspeare frequently has lines and passages in a strain quite false, and which are entirely unworthy of him. But one can imagine his smiling if one could meet him in the Elysian Fields and tell him so; smiling and replying that he knew it perfectly well himself, and what did it matter? But with Wordsworth the case is different. Work altogether inferior, work quite uninspired, flat, and dull, is produced by him with evident unconsciousness of its defects, and he presents it to us with the same faith and seriousness as his best work. Now a drama or an epic fill the mind, and one does not look beyond them; but in a collection of short pieces the impression made by one piece requires to be continued and sustained by the piece following. In reading Wordsworth the impression made by one of his fine pieces is too often dulled and spoiled by a very inferior piece coming after it.

Wordsworth composed verses during a space of some sixty years; and it is not much of an exaggeration to

say that within one single decade of those years, between 1798 and 1808, almost all his really first-rate work was produced. A mass of inferior work remains, work done before and after this golden prime, imbedding the first-rate work and clogging it, obstructing our approach to it, chilling, not unfrequently, the high-wrought mood with which we leave it. To be recognized far and wide as a great poet, to be possible and receivable as a classic, Wordsworth needs to be relieved of a great deal of the poetical baggage which now encumbers him. To administer this relief is indispensable, unless he is to continue to be a poet for the few only, a poet valued far below his real worth by the world.

There is another thing. Wordsworth classified his poems not according to any commonly received plan of arrangement, but according to a scheme of mental physiology. He has poems of the fancy, poems of the imagination, poems of sentiment and reflection, and so on. His categories are ingenious but far-fetched, and the result of his employment of them is unsatisfactory. Poems are separated one from another which possess a kinship of subject or of treatment far more vital and deep than the supposed unity of mental origin which was Wordsworth's reason for joining them with others.

The tact of the Greeks in matters of this kind was infallible. We may rely upon it that we shall not improve upon the classification adopted by the Greeks for kinds of poetry; that their categories of epic, dramatic, lyric, and so forth, have a natural propriety, and should be adhered to. It may sometimes seem doubtful to which of two categories a poem belongs; whether this or that poem is to be called, for instance, narrative or lyric, lyric or elegiac. But there is to be found in every good poem a strain, a predominant note, which determines

the poem as belonging to one of these kinds rather than the other ; and here is the best proof of the value of the classification, and of the advantage of adhering to it. Wordsworth's poems will never produce their due effect until they are freed from their present artificial arrangement, and grouped more naturally.

Naturally grouped, and disengaged, moreover, from the quantity of inferior work which now obscures them, the best poems of Wordsworth, I hear many people say, would indeed stand out in great beauty, but they would prove to be very few in number, scarcely more than half a dozen. I maintain, on the other hand, that what strikes me with admiration, what establishes in my opinion Wordsworth's superiority, is the great and ample body of powerful work which remains to him, even after all his inferior work has been cleared away. He gives us so much to rest upon, so much which communicates his spirit and engages ours !

This is of very great importance. If it were a comparison of single pieces, or of three or four pieces, by each poet, I do not say that Wordsworth would stand decisively above Gray, or Burns, or Keats, or Manzoni, or Heine. It is in his ampler body of powerful work that I find his superiority. His good work itself, his work which counts, is not all of it, of course, of equal value. Some kinds of poetry are in themselves lower kinds than others. The ballad kind is a lower kind ; the didactic kind, still more, is a lower kind. Poetry of this latter sort counts too, sometimes, by its biographical interest partly, not by its poetical interest pure and simple ; but then this can only be when the poet producing it has the power and importance of Wordsworth, a power and importance which he assuredly did not establish by such didactic poetry alone. Alto-

gether, it is, I say, by the great body of powerful and significant work which remains to him, after every reduction and deduction has been made, that Wordsworth's superiority is proved.

To exhibit this body of Wordsworth's best work, to clear away obstructions from around it, and to let it speak for itself, is what every lover of Wordsworth should desire. Until this has been done, Wordsworth, whom we, to whom he is dear, all of us know and feel to be so great a poet, has not had a fair chance before the world. When once it has been done, he will make his way best not by our advocacy of him, but by his own worth and power. We may safely leave him to make his way thus, we who believe that a superior worth and power in poetry finds in mankind a sense responsive to it and disposed at last to recognize it. Yet at the outset, before he has been duly known and recognized, we may do Wordsworth a service, perhaps, by indicating in what his superior power and worth will be found to consist, and in what it will not.

Long ago, in speaking of Homer, I said that the noble and profound application of ideas to life is the most essential part of poetic greatness. I said that a great poet receives his distinctive character of superiority from his application, under the conditions immutably fixed by the laws of poetic beauty and poetic truth, from his application, I say, to his subject, whatever it may be, of the ideas

“On man, on nature, and on human life,”

which he has acquired for himself. The line quoted is Wordsworth's own ; and his superiority arises from his powerful use, in his best pieces, his powerful application to his subject, of ideas “on man, on nature, and on human life.”

Voltaire, with his signal acuteness, most truly remarked that “no

nation has treated in poetry moral ideas with more energy and depth than the English nation." And he adds: "There, it seems to me, is the great merit of the English poets." Voltaire does not mean, by "treating in poetry moral ideas," the composing moral and didactic poems — that brings us but a very little way in poetry. He means just the same thing as was meant when I spoke above "of the noble and profound application of ideas to life;" and he means the application of these ideas under the conditions fixed for us by the laws of poetic beauty and poetic truth. If it is said that to call these ideas *moral* ideas is to introduce a strong and injurious limitation, I answer that it is to do nothing of the kind, because moral ideas are really so main a part of human life. The question *how to live* is itself a moral idea; and it is the question which most interests every man, and with which, in some way or other, he is perpetually occupied. A large sense is of course to be given to the term *moral*. Whatever bears upon the question "how to live" comes under it.

"Nor love thy life, nor hate; but, what thou liv'st,
Live well; how long or short, permit to Heaven."

In those fine lines, Milton utters, as every one at once perceives, a moral idea. Yes, but so, too, when Keats consoles the forward-bending lover on the Grecian Urn, the lover arrested and presented in immortal relief by the sculptor's hand before he can kiss, with the line,

"Forever wilt thou love, and she be fair" —

he utters a moral idea. When Shakspeare says that "we are such stuff as dreams are made of, and our little life is rounded with a sleep," he utters a moral idea.

Voltaire was right in thinking that

the energetic and profound treatment of moral ideas, in this large sense, is what distinguishes the English poetry. He sincerely meant praise, not dispraise or hint of limitation; and they err who suppose that poetic limitation is a necessary consequence of the fact, the fact being granted as Voltaire states it. If what distinguishes the greatest poets is their powerful and profound application of ideas to life, which surely no good critic will deny, then to prefix to the term ideas here the term moral makes hardly any difference, because human life itself is in so preponderating a degree moral.

It is important, therefore, to hold fast to this: that poetry is at bottom a criticism of life; that the greatness of a poet lies in his powerful and beautiful application of ideas to life — to the question how to live. Morals are often treated in a narrow and false fashion, they are bound up with systems of thought and belief which have had their day, they are fallen into the hands of pedants and professional dealers, they grow tiresome to some of us. We find attraction, at times, even in a poetry of revolt against them; in a poetry which might take for its motto Omar Kheyam's words: "Let us make up in the tavern for the time which we have wasted in the mosque." Or we find attractions in a poetry indifferent to them, in a poetry where the contents may be what they will, but where the form is studied and exquisite. We delude ourselves in either case; and the best cure for our delusion is to let our minds rest upon that great and inexhaustible word *life*, until we learn to enter into its meaning. A poetry of revolt against moral ideas is a poetry of revolt against *life*; a poetry of indifference towards moral ideas is a poetry of indifference towards *life*.

Epictetus had a happy figure for things like the play of the senses, or literary form and finish, or argumenta-

tive ingenuity, in comparison with "the best and master thing" for us, as he called it, the concern how to live. Some people were afraid of them, he said, or they disliked and undervalued them. Such people were wrong; they were unthankful or cowardly. But the things might also be over-prized, and treated as final when they are not. They bear to life the relation which inns bear to home. "As if a man, journeying home, and finding a nice inn on the road, and liking it, were to stay forever at the inn! Man, thou hast forgotten thine object; thy journey was not *to* this, but *through* this. 'But this inn is taking.' And how many other inns, too, are taking, and how many fields and meadows! but as places of passage merely. You have an object, which is this; to get home, to do your duty to your family, friends, and fellow-countrymen, to attain inward freedom, serenity, happiness, contentment. Style takes your fancy, arguing takes your fancy, and you forget your home and want to make your abode with them and to stay with them, on the plea that they are taking. Who denies that they are taking? but as places of passage, as inns. And when I say this, you suppose me to be attacking the care for style, the care for argument. I am not; I attack the resting in them, the not looking to the end which is beyond them."

Now when we come across a poet like Theophile Gautier, we have a poet who has taken up his abode at an inn, and never got farther. There may be inducements to this or that one of us, at this or that moment, to find delight in him, to cleave to him; but after all, we do not change the truth about him—we only stay ourselves in his inn along with him. And when we come across a poet like Wordsworth, who sings,

"Of truth, of grandeur, beauty, love and hope,

And melancholy fear subdued by faith,
Of blessed consolations in distress,
Of moral strength and intellectual power,
Of joy in widest commonalty spread"—

then we have a poet intent on "the best and master thing," and who prosecutes his journey home. We say, for brevity's sake, that he deals with *life*, because he deals with that in which life really consists. This is what Voltaire means to praise in the English poets—this dealing with what is really life. But always it is the mark of the greatest poets that they deal with it; and to say that the English poets are remarkable for dealing with it, is only another way of saying, what is true, that in poetry the English genius has especially shewn its power.

Wordsworth deals with it, and his greatness lies in his dealing with it so powerfully. I have named a number of celebrated poets, above all of whom he, in my opinion, deserves to be placed. He is to be placed above poets like Voltaire, Dryden, Pope, Lessing, Schiller, because these famous personages, with a thousand gifts and merits, never, or scarcely ever, attain the distinctive accent and utterance of the high and genuine poets—

"Quique pii vates et Phœbo digna locuti"—

at all. Burns, Keats, Heine, not to speak of others in our list, have this accent; who can doubt it? And at the same time they have treasures of humour, felicity, passion, for which in Wordsworth we shall look in vain. Where, then, is Wordsworth's superiority? It is here: he deals with more of *life* than they do; he deals with *life*, as a whole, more powerfully.

No Wordsworthian will doubt this. Nay, the fervent Wordsworthian will add, as Mr. Leslie Stephen does, that Wordsworth's poetry is precious because his philosophy is sound; that his "ethical system is as distinctive

and capable of exposition as Bishop Butler's ;" that his poetry is informed by ideas which "fall spontaneously into a scientific system of thought." But we must be on our guard against the Wordsworthians, if we want to secure for Wordsworth his due rank as a poet. The Wordsworthians are apt to praise him for the wrong things, and to lay far too much stress upon what they call his philosophy. His poetry is the reality, his philosophy—so far, at least, as it may put on the form and habit of "a scientific system of thought," and the more that it puts them on—is the illusion. Perhaps we shall one day learn to make this proposition general, and to say: Poetry is the reality, philosophy the illusion. But in Wordsworth's case, at any rate, we cannot do him justice until we dismiss his formal philosophy.

The *Excursion* abounds with philosophy, and therefore the *Excursion* is to the Wordsworthian what it never can be to the disinterested lover of poetry—a satisfactory work. "Duty exists," says Wordsworth in the *Excursion*; and then he proceeds thus:

"Immutably survive,
For our support, the measures and the forms,
Which an abstract Intelligence supplies,
Whose kingdom is where time and space are
not."

And the Wordsworthian is delighted, and thinks that here is a sweet union of philosophy and poetry. But the disinterested lover of poetry will feel that the lines carry us really not a step farther than the proposition which they would interpret; that they are a tissue of elevated but abstract verbiage, alien to the very nature of poetry.

Or let us come direct to the centre of Wordsworth's philosophy, as "an ethical system, as distinctive and capable of systematical exposition as Bishop Butler's:"

"One adequate support
For the calamities of mortal life

Exists, one only;—an assured belief
That the procession of our fate, how'er
Sad or disturbed, is ordered by a Being
Of infinite benevolence and power;
Whose everlasting purposes embrace
All accidents, converting them to good."

That is doctrine such as we hear in church, too—religious and philosophic doctrine; and the attached Wordsworthian loves passages of such doctrine, and brings them forward in proof of his poet's excellence. But however true the doctrine may be, it has, as here presented, none of the characters of *poetic* truth, the kind of truth which we require from a poet, and in which Wordsworth is really strong.

Even the "imitations" of the famous Ode, those corner-stones of the supposed philosophic system of Wordsworth—the idea of the high instincts and affections coming out in childhood, testifying of a divine home recently left, and fading away as our life proceeds—this idea, of undeniable beauty as a play of fancy, has itself not the character of poetic truth of the best kind; it has no real solidity. The instinct of delight in Nature and her beauty had no doubt extraordinary strength in Wordsworth himself as a child. But to say that universally this instinct is mighty in childhood, and tends to die away afterwards, is to say what is extremely doubtful. In many people, perhaps with the majority of educated persons, the love of nature is nearly imperceptible at ten years old, but strong and operative at thirty. In general, we may say of these high instincts of early childhood, the base of the alleged systematic philosophy of Wordsworth, what Thucydides says of the early achievements of the Greek race: "It is impossible to speak with certainty of what is so remote; but from all that we can really investigate, I should say that they were no very great things."

Finally, the "scientific system of thought" in Wordsworth gives us at last such poetry as this, which the devout Wordsworthian accepts :

"O for the coming of that glorious time
When, prizeing knowledge as her noblest
wealth
And best protection, this Imperial Realm,
While she exalts allegiance, shall admit
An obligation, on her part to *teach*
Them who are born to serve her and obey ;
Binding herself by statute to secure,
For all the children whom her soil main-
tains,
The rudiments of letters, and inform
The mind with moral and religious truth."

Wordsworth calls Voltaire dull, and surely the production of these un-Voltairian lines must have been imposed on him as a judgment. One can hear them being quoted at a Social Science Congress; one can call up the whole scene. A great room in one of our dismal provincial towns; dusty air and jaded afternoon daylight; benches full of men with bald heads, and women in spectacles; an orator lifting up his face from a manuscript written within and without to declaim these lines of Wordsworth; and in the soul of any poor child of nature who may have wandered in thither an unutterable sense of lamentation and mourning and woe.

"But turn we," as Wordsworth says, "from these bold, bad men," the haunters of Social Science Congresses. And let us be on our guard, too, against the exhibitors and extollers of a "scientific system of thought" in Wordsworth's poetry. The poetry will never be seen aright while they thus exhibit it. The cause of its greatness is simple, and may be told quite simply. Wordsworth's poetry is great because of the extraordinary power with which Wordsworth feels the joy offered to us in nature, the joy offered to us in the simple elementary affections and duties; and because of the extraordinary power with which, in case after case,

he shews us this joy, and renders it so as to make us share it.

The source of joy from which he thus draws is the truest and most unailing source of joy accessible to man. It is also accessible universally. Wordsworth brings us word, therefore, according to his own strong and characteristic line—he brings us word

"Of joy in wildest commonalty spread."

Here is an immense advantage for a poet. Wordsworth tells of what all seek, and tells of it at its truest and best source, and yet a source where all may go and draw for it.

Nevertheless, we are not to suppose that everything is precious which Wordsworth, standing even at this perennial and beautiful source, may give us. Wordsworthians are apt to talk as if it must be. They will speak with the same reverence of *The Sailor's Mother*, for example, as of *Lucy Gray*. They do their master harm by such lack of discrimination. *Lucy Gray* is a beautiful success; *The Sailor's Mother* is a failure. To give aright what he wishes to give, to interpret and render successfully, is not always within Wordsworth's own command. It is within no poet's command; here is the part of the Muse, the inspiration, the God, the "not ourselves." In Wordsworth's case, the accident—for so it may always be called—of inspiration is of peculiar importance. No poet, perhaps, is so evidently filled with a new and sacred energy when the inspiration is upon him; no poet, when it fails him, is so left "weaker as a breaking wave." I remember hearing him say that "Goethe's poetry was not inevitable enough." The remark is striking and true; no line in Goethe, as Goethe said himself, but its maker knew well how it came there. Wordsworth is right, Goethe's poetry is not inevitable; not inevitable enough. But Wordsworth's poetry, when he is at his best,

is inevitable, as inevitable as Nature herself. It might seem that Nature not only gave him the matter for his poem, but wrote his poem for him. He has no style. He was too conversant with Milton not to catch at times his master's manner, and he has fine Miltonic lines; but he has no assured poetic style of his own, like Milton. When he seeks to have a style he falls into ponderosity and pomposity. In the *Excursion* we have his style, as an artistic product of his own creation; and although Jeffrey completely failed to recognize Wordsworth's real greatness, he was yet not wrong in saying of the *Excursion*, as a work of poetic style, "This will never do." And yet magical as is that power, which Wordsworth has not, of assured and possessed poetic style, he has something which is an equivalent for it.

Every one who has any sense for these things feels the subtle turn, the heightening, which is given to a poet's verse by his genius for style. We can feel it in the

"After life's fitful fever, he sleeps well"

of Shakspeare; in the

"Though fall'n on evil days,

On evil days though fall'n, and evil tongues"

of Milton. It is the incomparable charm of Milton's power of poetic style which gives such worth to *Paradise Regained*, and makes a great poem of a work in which Milton's imagination does not soar high. Wordsworth has in constant possession, and at command, no style of this kind; but he had too poetic a nature, and had read the great poets too well, not to catch, as I have already remarked, something of it occasionally. We find it not only in his Miltonic lines—we find it in such a phrase as this, where the manner is his own, not Milton's:

"The fierce confederate storm
Of sorrow barricaded evermore
Within the walls of cities;"

although even here, perhaps, the power of style, which is undeniable, is more properly that of eloquent prose than the subtle heightening and change wrought by genuine poetic style. It is style, again, and the elevation given by style, which chiefly makes the effectiveness of *Laodameia*. Still, the right sort of verse to choose from Wordsworth, if we are to seize his true and most characteristic form of expression, is a line like this from *Michael*:

"And never lifted up a single stone."

There is nothing subtle in it, no heightening, no study of poetic style, strictly so called, at all; yet it is expression of the highest and most truly expressive kind.

Wordsworth owed much to Burns, and a style of perfect plainness, relying for effect solely on the weight and force of that which with entire fidelity it utters, Burns could shew him.

"The poor inhabitant below
Was quick to learn and wise to know,
And keenly felt the friendly glow
And softer flame;
But thoughtless follies laid him low
And stain'd his name."

Every one will be conscious of a likeness here to Wordsworth; and if Wordsworth did great things with this nobly plain manner, we must remember, what indeed he himself would always have been forward to acknowledge, that Burns used it before him.

Still Wordsworth's use of it has something unique and unmatchable. Nature herself seems, I say, to take the pen out of his hand, and to write for him with her own bare, sheer, penetrating power. This arises from two causes—from the profound sincerity with which Wordsworth feels his subject, and also from the profoundly sincere and natural character of his subject itself. He can and will treat such a subject with nothing but the most plain, first-hand, almost

austere naturalness. His expression may often be called bald, as, for instance, in the poem of *Resolution and Independence*; but it is bald as the bare mountain-tops are bald, with a baldness which is full of grandeur.

Wherever we meet with the successful balance, in Wordsworth, of profound truth of subject with profound truth of execution, he is unique. His best poems are those which most perfectly exhibit this balance. I have a warm admiration for *Laodamia* and for the great *Ode*; but if I am to tell the very truth, I find *Laodamia* not wholly free from something artificial, and the great *Ode* not wholly free from something declamatory. If I had to pick out poems of a kind most perfectly to shew Wordsworth's unique power, I should rather choose poems such as *Michael*, *The Fountain*, *The Highland Reaper*. And poems with the peculiar and unique beauty which

distinguishes these, Wordsworth produced in considerable number; besides very many other poems of which the worth although not so rear as the worth of these, is still exceedingly high.

On the whole, then, as I said at the beginning, not only is Wordsworth eminent by reason of the goodness of his best work, but he is eminent also by reason of the great body of good work which he has left to us. With the ancients I will not compare him. In many respects the ancients are far above us, and yet there is something that we demand which they can never give. Leaving the ancients, let us come to the poets and poetry of Christendom. Dante, Shakspeare, Molière, Milton, even Goethe, are altogether larger and more splendid luminaries in the poetical heaven than Wordsworth. But I know not where else, among the moderns, we are to find his superiors.

THE ANTIQUITY OF MAN.—Professor Mudge has presented some interesting evidence relating to the antiquity of man in an American scientific journal. He starts by assuming the correctness of the generally accepted opinion among geologists that man was on the earth at the close of the Glacial epoch, and endeavours to prove that the antiquity of the race cannot be taken at less than 200,000 years. After the Glacial epoch, American geologists have recognized, by their effects, three others—namely, the Champlain, the Terrace, and the Delta, all supposed to be of nearly equal length. His argument for estimating the duration of these epochs is as follows:—He takes the case of the Delta of the Mississippi, and notes the fact that for a distance of about 300 miles of this deposit there are to be observed buried forests of large trees, one over the other, with interspaces of sand. Ten distinct forest growths of this nature have been observed, which must have succeeded one another.—These trees are the bald cypress of the Southern States. Some have been observed over

25 feet in diameter, and one contained 5,700 annual rings. In some instances these huge trees have grown over the stumps of others equally large, and such instances occur in all, or nearly all, the ten forest beds. From these facts, Professor Mudge thinks it is not assuming too much to estimate the antiquity of each of these forest growths at 10,000 years, or 100,000 years for the ten forests. This estimate would not take into account the interval of time—which doubtless was very considerable—that elapsed between the ending of one forest and the beginning of another. "Such evidence," Professor Mudge concludes, "would be received in any court of law as sound and satisfactory. We do not see how such proof is to be discarded when applied to the antiquity of our race.—There is satisfactory evidence that man lived in the Champlain epoch. But the Terrace epoch, or the greater part of it, intervenes between the Champlain and Delta epochs, thus adding to my 100,000 years. If only as much time is given to both these epochs as to the Delta epoch, 200,000 years is the total result."

THE LATE PROFESSOR MACKERRAS, OF QUEEN'S
UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON.

THE educational interests of Canada, in common with other important interests, have suffered a severe loss in the recent lamented death of the late Professor Mackerras, Classical Professor in Queen's University, Kingston. As widely beloved as he was profoundly respected, Professor Mackerras united in himself an unusual combination of valuable qualities which made him a peculiarly successful and influential teacher, as well as a most valuable member of his University staff, in which his too early removal leaves a blank most deeply regretted, both by those who had enjoyed his instructions as a Professor, and by the colleagues who had so great reason to value his energetic co-operation and his faithful counsels.

Professor Mackerras began his own University course at the early age of fourteen. But being gifted with unusual quickness of apprehension and clearness of mental grasp, and also having enjoyed the careful teaching of his father, then Grammar school master at Cornwall, he speedily distinguished himself in all his classes, carrying off high honours in each of the departments of study in which he engaged. While his accuracy and industry as a student won the esteem of his professors, his singularly bright, genial and lovable nature made him equally a favourite with his fellow-students, some of whom remained among his warmest friends through life, and were among his truest mourners at his death. Having taken successively his degrees of Bachelor and Master of Arts, he entered upon

the profession of teaching at a very early period of his life, being for some time Grammarschool teacher at Gananoque, previous to his being licensed to the ministry of the Presbyterian Church. While there he was much valued as an ardent and efficient teacher—a favourite with both his pupils and their parents.

At twenty-one he became pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Bowmanville, where he remained for eleven years, esteemed and beloved not only by his congregation, but by the community at large. In 1869 he resigned his pastorate and entered upon the most important epoch of his life—considered from an educational point of view—having been chosen by the trustees of Queen's University to fill its then vacant Classical Chair. The old classical languages had always been his chosen field of study, and his professorial duties were to him a delight. To prosecute with faithful industry his own studies that he might make the path of his students clearer and more interesting; to relieve the drudgery of dry routine by vivid portraiture of the great poets, orators and historians of ancient Greece and Rome, and of the circumstances under which they wrote, or spoke, or sang, were to him a *pleasure* no less than a duty. Sensitively alive, not only to the literary beauties of the great writers whose imperishable works still form the basis of our liberal culture, he was no less enthusiastic in his admiration of all that was beautiful, and noble, and heroic in the legends and histories of Greece and Rome. And

as he was eminently fitted to impart to his students a portion, at least, of his own enthusiasm, and was as accurate in all things as he was varied in knowledge, and quick of apprehension, and clear in thought, it would have been wonderful, had he not been a successful teacher. His sympathetic interest in his students, and his courteous and gentlemanly demeanour towards them enhanced his other most valuable qualities as a professor. He never grudged any extra labour to aid them in their desires for improvement, even outside his special sphere, and was always ready to enter into their schemes for innocent recreation, while he could be even stern in his displeasure at anything that savoured of meanness, or dishonour, or insubordination. He was at one time President of the *Alma Mater* Society, and for several years before his death the President of the Elocution Association of Queen's College, in which he took a deep interest, and to which he devoted no little time and trouble; while to the objects and the work of the University Missionary Association he gave his warmest sympathy and co-operation. It was the feeling of all which was expressed in the resolution of the last named Society at the time of his death, that they had "individually sustained the loss of a warm and true friend, and their *Alma Mater* of an able and devoted professor."

But his devotion as a son of his *Alma Mater* far exceeded the fullest and most generous performance of his duties as a professor. There was not one of her interests—financial, intellectual, moral or spiritual, which did not lie very near his heart. At a time when, by heavy financial losses, and by the withdrawal of the Government grant, the possibility of maintaining intact the existence of the University, was rendered very problematical, Professor Mackerras boldly threw himself into the breach, with

all the ardour of his enthusiastic nature. An eloquent and stirring address spoken at a meeting of the friends of the College, held in Kingston at that juncture, rallied the sinking spirits of the desponding, and led the way in inaugurating the generous enterprise of repairing by a voluntary endowment the ominous deficit in the revenue. After the meeting a leading clergyman of his Church said to him, "You have only to deliver that address throughout the country in order to raise all the endowment that is necessary." And this he almost literally did. In conjunction with the then Principal, Dr. Snodgrass, he spent his "vacations" in travelling thousands of miles by all kinds of conveyances, opening, by his stirring appeals, the hearts of the Presbyterian population to sustain the University which their fathers had so patriotically founded; and little heeding the toil, so that he might secure to his *Alma Mater* a permanent existence. But it was not solely his interest in Queen's College as his *Alma Mater* which so stirred his ardour. It was no less his high appreciation of the advantages of University culture, and his sense of the importance of preserving intact all facilities for such culture which had proved their usefulness and grown with the growth of a growing country. He was successful almost beyond his hopes. An endowment of \$100,000 was secured; but the labour he had so little heeded at the time left its fatal consequences in serious injury to his formerly vigorous constitution. It was a sacrifice which, it is believed, he never grudged, but it cannot be doubted that his health was permanently sacrificed to his disinterested labours for his University.

It was in the hope of restoring his greatly impaired health that he spent a winter in Italy, chiefly in Rome and its vicinity. To the enthusiastic clas-

sical student, nothing could have afforded more delightful recreation than the opportunity thus afforded him, of exploring the scene of many an ancient legend or noble deed; and he afterwards delighted to point out, from photograph or engraving, the precise locality of some heroic action or memorable speech. It was hoped, on his return, that the improvement which all observed with satisfaction would be permanent, and, for a time, his strength seemed at least partially restored. The Session of 1877-78 opened under what were to him circumstances of peculiar happiness, in the accession to the College staff, of his muchesteemed and beloved friend, Principal Grant, and he rejoiced with unselfish delight in the prospect of the increased growth and usefulness of the University under such able and energetic guidance. But for himself that winter proved a sad one. A prostrating and intensely painful illness laid him aside from duty during the latter part of the session, and left him with greatly reduced strength. When Principal Grant inaugurated the new endowment scheme, which he has since so successfully prosecuted, Professor Mackerras could do no more than bid him a hearty "God speed," but, with characteristic self-abnegation, he rejoiced ungrudgingly that another could now carry on the work for which *he* was disabled by sinking strength and failing voice. From that time he gradually sank; though his brave perseverance in work, and the bright, cheery buoyancy of spirits and playfulness of manner which he retained almost to the last, not seldom led his friends to hope against hope. Except during that season of acute and prostrating illness, he scarcely lost an hour of his class-work, in which, however, he received the aid of an assistant. Even after he was unable to walk the short distance to the College, and his failing

breath made it a painful effort to ascend the stairs that led to his classroom, amid ever increasing infirmity, he bravely and uncomplainingly worked on, up to the beginning of the Christmas vacation, which he spent at the residence of his father-in-law, Judge Dennistoun, at Peterboro'. At its close, he peacefully sank to rest,—the rest which his zealous spirit would never take in life. His remains were brought to Kingston by his own desire, to be interred in Catarqui Cemetery, together with those of his aged mother, whose death was almost coincident with his own, amid the universal sorrow, not only of his own University, but of the whole community.

Professor Mackerras' career as a professor is the aspect of it more especially interesting in the pages of an educational journal. But a few words must be added as to his qualities as a man, a citizen, and a christian minister. As a man, he was peculiarly *lovable*. His frank, genial, courteous manner, his ready humour and genial *bonhomie* won him friends wherever he went, and his exemplary fulfilment of duty in every relation, won esteem as well as affection. As a citizen, he was always a patriotic Canadian, though strongly attached to his native Scotland, which he had left as a child. He was philanthropic and public-spirited, ready to give his willing aid to every benevolent enterprise, while it was a characteristic trait that he uniformly refused to take advantage of his clerical exemption from taxes,—maintaining that all who enjoyed the benefits of the community should be willing to pay their share towards its expenses. He was a most interesting speaker and lecturer, and the last public lecture, which he delivered in Kingston, on the Ancient Greek Drama, was *magnificent* in its eloquent presentation of the genius of Greek dramatic art, and in its

noble tribute to the great souls from whom have descended to us some of the sublimest memorials of human genius.

As a Christian minister, Professor Mackerras' warm sympathy went out to the whole Church of Christ, while he was a deeply attached and most honoured member of the particular branch of it to which he belonged, in whose recent reunion he much rejoiced. He had long acted as clerk of its Supreme Court, in which capacity his exact accuracy, and his thorough acquaintance with Church law and forms of procedure, were invaluable. The influence of his personal character, clear exposition, and persuasive eloquence, made him a power

in church courts and ecclesiastical debates, whose loss will long be sadly felt by his brethren. As a preacher, he was always able and eloquent; but the deepening spirituality and fervour of his growing religious life were apparent, in his later preaching, to any attentive hearer. The root of his noble and beautiful and unselfish character lay in "the life hid with Christ in God," to which, both as a professor and preacher,—by his precepts, but still more by his example,—he ever pointed as the only true source of the higher life of humanity, its salvation from sin, its mainstay in weakness and suffering, and its blessed hope for an unknown future,—in the proved "power of an endless life."

FIDELIS.

CRUISING.

WHAT are the days but islands,
So many little islands,
And sleep the sea of silence
That flows around them all?
Then, when the moon is risen,
The peaceful waters glisten;
But yonder plashing,—listen!
It is the souls that fall.

The little boats are skimming,
The wind-led boats are skimming,
Each in its silver rimming,
Apart from the fleet and shore.
There not an oar is dipping,—
With just a cable's slipping
Glides out the phantom shipping
That wanders evermore.

Every day's an island,
A green or barren island,
A lowland or a highland,
That looks upon the sea.
There fruitful groves are crowning,
There barren cliffs are frowning,
And rocky channels drowning
The little boats that flee.

How many are the islands,
The teeming, talking islands,
That in the sea of silence
The roving vessels find!
Their number no man knoweth:
Their way the current showeth;
The tide returnless floweth
As each is left behind.

The sailors long to tarry,—
For rest they long to tarry,—
When as some isle of faery
They touch and go ashore,
With songs of wistful pleading
They follow fate unheeding,
And with the tide's receding
Are drifting as before.

But sometime, in the sailing,
The blind and endless sailing,
They pass beyond the hailing
Of land upon the lee;
The lowlands and the highlands,
And all beyond the islands,
Behold the sea of silence,
Behold the great white sea.

—Carl Spencer.

ARTS DEPARTMENT.

ARCHIBALD MACMURCHY, M.A., MATHEMATICAL EDITOR, C. E. M.

Our correspondents will please bear in mind, that the arranging of the matter for the printer is greatly facilitated when they kindly write out their contributions, intended for insertion, on one side of the paper ONLY, or so that each distinct answer or subject may admit of an easy separation from other matter without the necessity of having it re-written.

Solutions to Nos. 81, 87 and 88 were sent in by the Proposers; we, however, publish those by the contributors whose names are appended.

81. Given $x+y+z=0$, shew that $\left(\frac{y-z}{x} + \frac{z-x}{y} + \frac{x-y}{z}\right) \left(\frac{x}{y-z} + \frac{y}{z-x} + \frac{z}{x-y}\right) = 9$.

Simplifying we get

$$\frac{x^2z + x^2y + y^2x + y^2z + z^2y + z^2x - (x^3 + y^3 + z^3) - 3xyz}{-xyz}$$

but if

$$x+y+z=0, \text{ then } x^3 + y^3 + z^3 = 3xyz,$$

∴ fraction

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{x^2(y+z) + y^2(x+z) + z^2(x+y) - 6xyz}{-xyz} \\ &= \frac{-x^3 - y^3 - z^3 - 6xyz}{-xyz} = \frac{-9xyz}{-xyz} = 9. \end{aligned}$$

88. If $x+y+z=2s$, then will $(s-x)^3 + (s-y)^3 + (s-z)^3 + 3xyz = s^3$.

$$\begin{aligned} &(s-x)^3 + (s-y)^3 + (s-z)^3 + 3xyz \\ &= 3s^3 - 3s^2(x+y+z) + 3s(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) - (x^3 + y^3 + z^3 - 3xyz) \\ &= 3s^3 - 6s^3 + 3s(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) - 2s(x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - xy - xz - yz) \\ &= 3s^3 - 6s^3 + 6s \frac{(x+y+z)^2}{6} = 3s^3 - 6s^3 + 4s^3 = s^3. \end{aligned}$$

F. BOULTBEE,
University College.

87. Given

$$(ax+by+cz)^3 + (bx+cy+az)^3 + (cx+ay+bz)^3 = 3(ax+by+cz)(bx+cy+az)(cx+ay+bz),$$

i.e., given

$$(ax+by+cz)^3 + (bx+cy+az)^3 + (cx+ay+bz)^3 - 3(ax+by+cz)(bx+cy+az)(cx+ay+bz) = 0.$$

This expression is of the form $A^3 + B^3 + C^3 - 3ABC$

$$[\text{where } A=ax+by+cz, B=bx+cy+az, C=cx+ay+bz],$$

one of whose factors is $A+B+C$;

$$\text{i.e., } (ax+by+cz) + (bx+cy+az) + (cx+ay+bz);$$

$$\text{i.e., } (ax+bx+cx) + (ay+by+cy) + (az+bz+cz);$$

$$\text{i.e., } x(a+b+c) + y(a+b+c) + z(a+b+c);$$

$$\text{i.e., } (x+y+z)(a+b+c).$$

Now, if $A^2 + B^2 + C^2 - 3ABC = 0$,

$$A + B + C \text{ must } = 0, \text{ or } A^2 - AB + B^2 - BC + C^2 - AC = 0.$$

On the former hypothesis,

$$(x + y + z)(a + b + c) = 0,$$

$$\text{i.e., either } x + y + z = 0, \text{ or } a + b + c = 0.$$

I. F. H. WILKINS, B.A.

106. Shew, *without expansion*, that

$$\frac{(a+b)^2(b-a)(b+a+2c) + (b+c)^2(c-b)(c+a+2b) + (c+a)^2(a-c)(a+b+2c)}{(a+b)^2(b-a) + (b+c)^2(c-b) + (c+a)^2(a-c)}$$

$$= \frac{(b-a)^3(b+a+2c)^2 + (c-b)^3(c+b+2a)^2 + (a-c)^3(a+c+2b)^2}{(b-a)^3 + (c-b)^3 + (a-c)^3}$$

93. A grocer buys tea at 50 cents per lb. Before reaching him it meets with an accident, by which one-eighth of the stock is totally lost; one-seventh of the remainder is sold at 40 per cent. loss, and one-sixth of the remainder is sold at 20 per cent. loss. At what price must the undamaged remainder be sold so as to cover the losses and realize the original profit of 30 per cent. on the whole stock?

94. Some poor vinegar worth 30 cents per gallon is mixed with pure acetic acid at \$1 per gallon, and some good vinegar at 60 cents per gallon. The mixture is diluted with water and sold at 50 cents per gallon. What quantity of each ingredient is there in 1000 gallons of the mixture?

95. If $(0.142857 + \frac{1}{4} \times 3\frac{1}{2} - \frac{4\frac{1}{2}}{2\frac{1}{2}} \times \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } \frac{1}{11})$ of $1\frac{2}{3}$; of $\frac{1}{3}$ of £1 be worth $\frac{2}{3}$ of a guilder; if one guilder be worth $1\frac{1}{2}$ six dollar, and one six dollar 52 cents, how much more Canadian money (dollars and cents) will be required to pay a debt of £6000 due in England by direct exchange at 109 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, than by the circuitous route through Paris, Antwerp and Copenhagen?

96. Some spirit is sold so as to gain 20 per cent. Having been, after some has been sold, diluted with water so as to realize 75 per cent. profit, it is required to know how much water has been added to each gallon of spirit?

97. A mixed train runs for half an hour at one-third the rate of an express train. After

remaining ten minutes at a station it runs at the same rate for a distance which is eleven-thirteenths of the first distance, and remaining eight minutes proceeds at the same rate for nine-thirteenths of the first distance to another station; whence, after remaining ten minutes, it proceeds at the same rate for a distance two-thirds of the *last named* distance, and after waiting ten minutes, is passed by the express train, which has made the entire journey at the rate of 39 miles per hour, in half an hour, without any stoppage. Find the distance between the stations, and the whole time consumed by the mixed train.

98. A man buys a town lot for \$2000, and immediately mortgages it for its full value to pay for the erection and furnishing of a house thereon. He intends to pay the amount and ten per cent. compound interest in five equal annual payments. At what rate must he fix his rent so as to pay his instalment, the taxes, which are $\frac{1}{3}$ of the value of the house and lot, and to clear eight per cent.?

99. The estimated value of the crops on a certain farm is 35 per cent. of the value of both farm and buildings. By reason of unfavourable seasons, however, the value of the crops is reduced from 35 per cent. to 10 per cent. of the value of the farm and buildings, or to 16 per cent. of the value of the farm alone. If the value of the buildings be \$2,100, and if the farm consist of 100 acres, find the price per acre and the value of the crops.

100. A gentleman's income in Dominion six per cent. stock is \$1,260. He sells out when the stock is at 92, and invests the proceeds in railway shares, 105 bringing five per cent. Find the alteration in his income, and thus his new income.

101. Two cisterns of equal volume are filled with water, and the taps of both being opened at once, it is found that one is emptied in four hours and the other in five. When will the contents of the second cistern be twice those of the first?

102. Which of the following areas has the longest perimeter—an equilateral triangle whose area is $2500\sqrt{3}$ square feet, a square whose area is 2500 square feet, a regular hexagon whose area is $2500\sqrt{3}$ square feet, or a circle whose area is $795\frac{1}{4}$ square feet?

103. Compare the weight of a cylinder of copper 3 feet high and 2 feet in diameter, and of a sphere of lead 4 feet in diameter, it being given that a cubic foot of copper weighs 8,788 ounces, and a cubic foot of lead 11,350 ounces.

104. Resolve into elementary factors the expression

$$(x^2 + xy + y^2)^2 - (x^2 + xy + y^2)(x^2 + y^2) + x^2y^2.$$

105. If $ax^n = by^n = cz^n$,
and if $x^{-1} + y^{-1} + z^{-1} = k^{-1}$, then

$$(ax^{n-1} + by^{n-1} + cz^{n-1})^{-1} = \left(\frac{1}{a^n} + \frac{1}{b^n} + \frac{1}{c^n} \right) \frac{n-1}{k^n}.$$

107. If $\begin{cases} x + y - axy = 0 \\ y + z - byz = 0 \\ z + x - czx = 0 \end{cases}$,

and if $az^2 + bx^2 + cy^2 = 0$, then

$$\frac{a}{b^2 - (a-c)^2} + \frac{b}{c^2 - (b-a)^2} + \frac{c}{a^2 - (c-b)^2} = 0.$$

108. Shew that

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{2n(2n+1)(2n+2)\dots(2n+r-1)}{r} \\ & + \frac{2n(2n+1)(2n+2)\dots(2n+r-2)}{r-1} \cdot \frac{n}{1} \\ & + \frac{2n(2n+1)(2n+2)\dots(2n+r-3)}{r-2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \dots + \frac{2n(2n+1)}{2} \\ & \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)\dots(n+r-3)}{r-2} \\ & + \frac{2n}{1} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)\dots(n+r-2)}{r-1} \\ & + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)\dots(n+r-1)}{r} \\ & = \frac{3n(3n+1)(3n+2)\dots(3n+r-1)}{r} \end{aligned}$$

109. If x be the circular measure of any arc, then

$$1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{4} - \dots = \left\{ 1 - \frac{2x^2}{2} + \frac{8x^4}{4} - \dots \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

both sides being infinite.

D. F. H. WILKINS, B.A., B. App. Sci.,
Math. Master, High School, Chatham.

110. Factor

$$l(m+nx)^2 - (l+ln)(l+na)(m+na) + n(l+nx)^2.$$

111. Divide without expansion

$$(x^2 - \frac{1}{2}yz)^3 + \frac{27}{8}y^3z^3 \text{ by } x^2 + yz.$$

112. Two equal circles intersect in A and B through D any point in the line AB ; DEC is drawn at right angles to AB , meeting the circles in E and C respectively; join BE and AE and produce them to meet AC in F , and BC in G respectively. Shew that triangles ACG and BCF are similar.

113. In Fig. of number 112 shew that a circle may be described passing through the four points A, B, G, F .

114. The town of Berlin having issued six per cent. debentures to the amount of \$20,000 payable, principal and interest, in twenty equal annual payments, find amount of each annual payment, and the amount of principal that should be paid off at the end of ten years from date of issue.

115. In question 114 find what a Loan Company should offer for the debentures that will mature during the last five years in

order to make eight per cent. on money invested.

116. *A*, *B* and *C* enter into a partnership for trading. *B* contributes \$4,000 more than two-thirds of what *A* contributes, and *C* \$2,000 less than six-sevenths of what *A* and *B* together contribute. *A* is to receive ten per cent. of the total gain for managing the business, and *B* six per cent. as book-keeper, and the remainder is to be divided in the ratio of their respective investments. At the end of the year *C*'s share of the gain is found to be more than *A*'s total share by one per cent. of the total investment. Find each man's investment and each one's share

of gain, having given that *C*'s investment is 25 per cent. more than *B*'s.

DAVID FORSYTH, B.A.,
Math. Master, Berlin High School.

117. If α , β , γ be the lengths of the lines drawn through any point *O* within a triangle *ABC*, parallel to the sides, then will

$$\frac{\alpha}{a} + \frac{\beta}{b} + \frac{\gamma}{c} = 2.$$

Of the above the contributor writes:—
"The problem is not mine, but owing to the fact that a neat Geometrical proof can be given, I send it that you may lay it before your readers."

PROF. EDGAR FRISBY, M.A.,
Marie Island, Cal.

THE OUTLET OF LAKE TANGANYIKA.

—The much debated question of the outflow of Lake Tanganyika is at length settled. The Royal Geographical Society has received a letter from Mr. E. C. Hore, of the London Missionary Society's station at Kawele near Ujiji, informing that body that he visited the Lukuga last rainy season and found it a large and very swift river flowing out of the great lake. He descended the stream in a canoe as far as the reedy barrier, the "Mitwansi," described by Stanley, and found it had been swept away. From the summit of the Kijanga ridge on the banks he saw the river flowing westward as far as the eye could reach, in the direction of the Luabala. Mr. Hore's letter is dated May 27th last, apparently about a month after his visit, as he mentions that the rains were then over, and that the waters of Tanganyika had sunk 24 inches in the previous twenty-eight days. Cameron visited the Lukuga in May, Stanley in July; both in the dry season.

JAMES CLERK MAXWELL.

We regret to announce the death, on the 5th of December, of this distinguished English physicist. At the time of his death Dr. Maxwell filled the chair of Experimental Physics in the University of Cambridge, England. He was an accomplished physicist and an able mathematician.

IN Chicago the salaries of assistant teachers have been arranged so as to depend upon the length of time teachers have been in the service, but length of service does not affect the salaries of principals, the reason of which is that to become a principal a person must have a long and successful experience as a teacher. Principals of schools with less than sixteen rooms, are expected to teach two-thirds of their time; those having charge of schools with sixteen or more rooms, teach only one-third of their time; the remaining portion in each case is devoted to supervision.

CONTEMPORARY OPINION ON EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION IN
PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY PRESIDENT F. E. WHITE, PURDUE
UNIVERSITY, INDIANA.

The State has the right to teach any branch of knowledge that will promote the public welfare. This is the broad proposition on which public education rests. The attempt to draw a line through education and deny the right of the State to cross it, is illogical and futile. The State has either the right to teach all branches of useful knowledge, or it has no right to teach any branch. There is no middle ground.

The right of the State to teach all useful knowledge does not necessarily make such instruction its duty. The right to teach is one thing, and the obligation to teach is another. The duty of the State in education is limited by its ability. It cannot teach all persons all knowledge, and it is not its duty to attempt it. When the teaching of one kind of knowledge necessarily excludes more important instruction, the State is released from obligation to teach such knowledge.—If it has not the ability to cover the whole round, it becomes its duty to give attention to the more important and useful.

To what extent, and how, should the State provide this industrial instruction and training? This, as is seen, involves the question, "To what extent can technical instruction be given in our public schools?"—To narrow the question, permit me to assume that it is the duty of the State to provide an efficient system of industrial training, and then let us see how much of such training can be wisely incorporated into our present school system.

The public school exhausts neither the right nor the duty of the State in education.

It may establish higher institutions, and it may organize or encourage special schools of an elementary character to meet the wants of classes. The public school is primarily an agency for the general education of all classes of youth. It is a common school,—a school designed to impart a common education,—an education useful to all and open to all.

This primary function of the public school is of the highest practical importance and value. Its comprehensive aim is to prepare the child to discharge the duties and meet the obligations of coming manhood, including his relations to the family, society, and the State,—relations involving the highest and most important activities of civilized life.

The public school assumes that every child that crosses its threshold to receive instruction is to be a man, and that his first and highest need is to have all the elements of manhood within him developed, quickened, and energized. The first element in this elementary training is character, and the second is intelligence,—intellectual furnishing and force.

My next position is that this primary function of the public school should not be subverted to provide technical instruction.—This would sacrifice the more important to the less important. All experience shows that even for industrial purposes, no technical training can compensate for the lack of general education. "The hand," says Mann, "becomes another hand when guided by an intelligent mind." Thought gives quickness and accuracy to the eye, and cunning to the fingers. Popular intelligence not only promotes industrial skill but it creates a demand for its products. It touches both of the great laws of wealth. What a conserver of industrial skill and enterprise

is character ! All the technical schools of Europe do not create the amount of industrial skill and knowledge which vice and crime in this country annually destroy.— Their wasteful and injurious consumption of the products of human nature is absolutely appalling ! The common schools of New England have contributed more to her industrial skill and enterprise than any amount of mere technical or industrial training can furnish.

The next step in our inquiry is to determine whether any technical instruction can be introduced into the public schools without sacrificing this primary function. There are elements of technical knowledge of general application, and hence of general utility. We have only time to refer to industrial drawing, the keeping of accounts, the practical applications of geometry, and the elements of natural science. These branches are not only the basis of technical training, but they also have great value as elements in the education of all children, whatever may be their pursuits in life. Time for this instruction may be gained by reducing the time hitherto devoted to several other branches of study. This has been done in many schools without loss, and the adoption of truer ideas and better methods of teaching would make it possible and feasible in all.

There are also several arts of so general use that a knowledge of them would be of general utility. I refer to sewing, cooking (a lost art in many families), horticulture, and, in the country, agriculture. It may be objected that sewing and cooking would only be learned by one-half of the pupils ; but it is also true that a knowledge of these arts would be of practical value to boys. There are few men who have not had occasion to regret their inability to "darn" and mend ; and I am confident that if more men knew when food is properly cooked, more women would learn how to cook. The principles of cooking might be included in our school manuals of physiology and hygiene.

I hasten to the conclusion that it is not the business of the public school to teach trades or handicrafts. It can and should teach

these elements of industrial knowledge, scientific and mechanical, which underlie the great industrial arts ; but it should not be made a workshop to train apprentices. The special training and practice needed to make a coat, shoe a horse, or build a house, should be left to the shop, or to special schools properly equipped for this work. The public school has done its part in preparing youth for special pursuits when it has given them an efficient, general preparation for all pursuits, and all industrial experience shows that the more fundamental and thorough this general preparation, the more fruitful will be the special training.

What is needed is to supplement the public school with special schools for industrial training, and, when desirable, the requirements of the public school should permit pupils to devote a part of each day to industrial pursuits, or to technical training. I have long held that the interests of both education and industry would be promoted by the adoption of half time courses of study, running parallel with the present full courses in our schools. This would afford all the advantages of half-time school, without loss to those pupils who wish to devote full time to their studies.—*New England Journal of Education.*

INDIRECT INFLUENCES.

THE Rev. H. R. Haweis, the distinguished Broad Church clergyman of London, has been lecturing to the Marylebone Teachers' Association of his own parish. He did not come before it without having something to say, and he said it well. The lecture is too long to give entire, but we cannot resist giving our readers the benefit of the concluding portion of it. The subject was "Indirect Influences," as illustrated by the lives of such men as Garibaldi.

PRINCIPLE.

And now, friends and brothers, just as the lack of principle degrades an individual and a nation, so the presence of principle ennobles the most obscure person, and illu-

mines with the light of heaven the humblest walks of life. It makes a nobleman of the poorest peasant ; it makes a commander-in-chief of the man whose mission in the world may be simply to educate the little street arabs, or to sow the seeds of rudimentary education in some remote country parish. And character qualities, the powers of principle, are just as manifest among children as adults. You notice that tenacity of truth, that love of uprightness in boys, or you are shocked by its absence. Lying is the vice of childhood, it is the weapon of defencelessness—of the weak against the strong. But the conscience often rises above fear ; and in a class of children, as in a room full of adults, there will always be a universal conscience correcting the foibles of the individual—not siding with the weak against the strong, but with the right against the wrong. Nothing is finer than the ready response of the universal conscience—nothing more final and absolute. This it is which upholds the teacher in his trying task. When a boy is punished justly, the conscience of the school goes with the master, and when a boy is praised it is the same. It is this common conscience which blows the sparks to flame, and applauds to the echo the upward tendency it has not always the strength to follow.

I was very much struck the other day on the occasion of the distribution of prizes at a public school. The speeches were very dull, but the young boys were very much interested ; they cheered everybody and everything. They came up, one by one, to receive their prizes, and the bright boys came up first, and were very much applauded. This went on for some time. At last, one long lanky boy came up, with a good honest face, to receive his prize. But we could not proceed to business ; the storm of applause rose and fell, and rose again. The headmaster was on his legs, the boy was waiting there, and I thought they never would leave off cheering. So turning to my neighbour I asked, "Who is this boy ? Is this the captain of the school ? Is he a great genius ?" "No," said my friend, "this is the dunce of the school !" "What do you mean ?" I again

asked. "Well," said my friend, "this poor boy is the stupidest in the whole school. He has hardly been able to learn the most elementary facts, but his industry, his application is such that the master has taken him personally in hand. He has coached him after hours, and they have pegged away together—but for long it seemed of very little use ; but the boy would not be beaten, and now he has at last *taken a prize*."

THE LOVE OF KNOWLEDGE.

I should like, before we part, to point to two ruling principles which are of universal importance, but which may, perhaps, have a peculiar interest for teachers. The first principle is the *love of knowledge for itself* ; that is a mental principle. And the second is a moral and spiritual one : it is *the love or enthusiasm of humanity for itself*." These form powerful centres for diffusing heat and light, and they are amongst the most mighty of indirect influences. The man who has not a love of knowledge for its own intrinsic worth never can be a successful educator. Education does not mean stuffing a lot of matter into the brain ; it means, from the very nature of the word, bringing out what is there. Before you can draw out what is in a child, of course, you must teach him how to use his powers ; but that is not done by cramming, but by development. You are there to develop—to draw out of him what he is—that is education. But educators must be educated. The question then becomes primarily one of self-culture. And here is food for many addresses instead of a closing paragraph. One good rule is, "Know more than you use"—read and think outside and all round. Lord Brougham used to say, "Know everything about something, and something about everything." And here some one mutters he has no time. "No time" is often given as a plea for the neglect of extraneous knowledge. To a certain extent this may be true, for some take twice as long to do a thing as others. But everyone should find time to be untechnical—out of routine, and to cultivate knowledge for its own sake. You had better

even be imperfect in some parts of technical education, and have time to know that which will make you a worse crammer: but a better educator. It is the idle men, not educators, not busy men, who have no time. One of the idlest men I ever knew was always pressed for time, could not speak to you for a minute, was always in a hurry, and always too late. It is the really active-minded, busy people who can find time for everything. Bacon, though Chancellor, had time to found modern science; Herbert Spencer, though I believe holding an arduous Government appointment, has had time to inspire half the philosophy and metaphysics of the age in that masterly series of works beginning with "First Principles," and of which the essay on "Ethics" is the latest instalment; Judge Grove has had time to produce the "Correlation of the Physical Sciences"; Creasy, an active barrister, was a voluminous historian and essayist; Sam Warren, a brilliant novelist; Lord Beaconsfield produced his novels when actively engaged in political life; and when you come to Mr. Gladstone you come to a man who can write on any subject with equal fluency—"de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis"—therefore I repeat, the excuse of "no time" ought to weigh with no true educator. You may find leisure for some artistic or musical pursuit, some horticultural or mechanical study; you may take up some branch of science; you may apply yourself to history. And as to science, I do not think it is calculated, as some suppose, to make men atheists; on the contrary, each new discovery seems to me to impress one more with the height and depth of wonder and mystery, and the infinite resource of the Divine mind. Puzzle as you will about atoms—take about sixty-three different kinds—you are obliged to slip in mind somewhere before you can get the required phenomena out of them. As Mr. Tyndall says, you must change radically your ideas of matter, and then you can get the promise and potency of all life out of it—*i. e.*, you must put into matter what you want to get out of it. It is the old hat trick—a regular cornucopia of wealth. "Causality," no doubt, if it were

but conceivable, would explain everything; but is "causality" anything but mind immanent in matter? Materialism presents life and mind as the outcome of matter and force; Spiritualism (not table-rapping) presents life and mind as immanent in or regulating both matter and force. Materialism places mind at the end and calls it man; Spiritualism places mind at the beginning and calls it God; and there God will assuredly still be found by those who seek Him. The earnest student of science is led up from the effect to the infinite cause, and the details of his study and experiment are of the most ennobling and fascinating character. You will find in the popular works of Huxley, Tyndall, Lionel Beale, Faraday, Bain, and Proctor, and L. Figuier, abundant scope for your scientific leisure hours. And let me recommend a little 5s. box invented by Dr. Gladstone for the conduct of a large variety of simple experiments in earth, air, fire, and water.

With regard to the study of History: Many have an objection to the long histories—they cannot wade through them;—but, believe me, no *resumé* or analysis is to be compared with the large histories. They take time, I know, but the diligent student is amply repaid for his trouble. To those who are fond of history I cannot do better than recommend such *pièces de résistance* as Gibbon. It is a book which fascinates you the more you read it, and though it may appear dry at first, its beauties grow upon you as the landscape beneath the brush of the patient artist. I remember Alma-Tadema, the great painter, saying to me that he sat down every day at his easel. Sometimes he began without enthusiasm, and painted on with little interest. But after an hour or so he surprised himself in a fit of absorption—the fire had kindled within him as he worked. And it is so in reading; never mind the dullness—it will go off. You will get hold of Gibbon's atmosphere. Then the delight of dropping down upon a period you know something of from another point! Go over Gibbon's centuries, with Milman's History of Latin Christianity, which, as Macaulay truly says, is in some parts ill-arranged, but, in many

biographical episodes, bright, picturesque, and, on the whole, careful, full, and masterly. Then turn to Draper's one-sided, birds-eye view of the whole "Conflict between Religion and Science," and correct your ruffled feelings by a careful perusal of "Lecky's Rationalism" and "History of European Morals," which are as friendly as Draper is hostile to Christianity. For an admirable construction of English History read Green's "Short History of the English People;" for special periods, Froude, Macaulay, and Carlyle's "Cromwell." For political structure, take Hallam; for episodical history, take Maitland's "Dark Ages," or Motley's "Netherlands," as it bears on England. For biographical history read such fragments as Michelet's "Luther," or Seebohm's "Oxford Reformers." Do not neglect Lingard because he was a Catholic historian; he is very learned, and smooth, and fair to the Reformation. Bagehot is admirable, and most concise as well as readable on the English Constitution. Pray do not neglect Mill's two incomparable essays "On Liberty" and "Representative Government," gems of style, and models of compact, luminous, and suggestive thought. Buckle must be read with caution—but I lose myself in these seductive by-paths.

THE ENTHUSIASM OF HUMANITY.

In conclusion, let me refer briefly to the *love of humanity for itself*, or, as it is sometimes called, the enthusiasm of humanity. This is the great solvent for most of the difficulties of school life. I never yet knew a child who could resist the persistent efforts of a teacher who is inspired by a personal love for his little pupils. There is something peculiarly winning in the earnestness of such a teacher, which finds its way to the youthful heart, and to you, as the educators of the rising generation, I can confidently say, your best work must be that which no money can pay for; it is your love, it is your prayers, it is your tears, it is your all constraining sympathy. This is the sunshine of your class-room: the rain and dew of your most tender ministry. This is the power which ever has and ever must draw all hearts to itself, and in this the religious and every

other difficulty is drowned. And there are difficulties. I know it has been a question in some schools whether the Bible should be read or not, and some have decided to impart their moral instruction without reference to the Bible. I am not blind to the dangers as well as to the benefits of sowing the Bible broadcast. The kind of reverence and the view of inspiration which have prompted them are alike mistaken. The Reformation view of the Bible is an anachronism. It was once all the literature, the philosophy and poetry accessible to the masses; it stood for the whole popular education, as well as for the national religion and standing foe of the Pope. But the Bible, read and explained, can never cease to be amongst the essentials of a sound religious education, and you may just as sensibly teach religion and forbid the use of the Bible, as try to teach Art and forbid all reference to the works of Phidias and the age of Pericles. The classics of religion and art can never be dispensed with. The Greeks invented one, the Jews invented the other, and the instinct of the civilized world is perfectly sound in adopting Greek taste as the best, and the Jewish Scriptures are the religious classics for all time. But in the class-room your duty is simple with the Bible in your hands, and, if not in your hands, in your heart.

You have only got to bring the children to Christ—to teach them His simplicity and directness of purpose—His patience and assiduity—His tender regard and consideration for all human beings—the permanence of His divine love, and His eternal committal of all things into the safe keeping of the Heavenly Father; for be you well assured that as He stood of old in the great thoroughfares of life, out upon the hot and dusty highways of the world, and cried, "Come unto Me all ye that labour and are heavy laden, and I will refresh you," so now He stands between the blossoming hedgerows—fragrant and white, but not yet ripe for the harvest—and as He hears the jubilant ring of a thousand happy voices, says, "Suffer the little children to come unto Me, and forbid them not, for of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

OUR COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES.*

To the Editor of the *Canada Educational Monthly*:

SIR:—An article appears in your December number, taken from a Whitby paper, in which occur several remarks concerning the relative position and value of High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. The writer endeavours to shew (1) that the original design of Collegiate Institutes, as distinguished from High Schools, has not been carried out; in other words, that present distinctions are owing merely to local circumstances, and are "purely fictitious." (2) That the required daily average of sixty boys in classics is obtained in the Institutes only by forcing them to study Latin, in order to receive the grant of \$750. (3) That Institutes "are springing up" (as a matter of course) wherever the population exceeds four thousand.

With your permission I shall offer a few remarks on each of these points.

(1) Regarding the design of establishing Institutes, we find it to be "in order to establish superior classical schools," (37 Vic., cap 27). Those having the best opportunities of judging are perfectly satisfied that there existed a necessity for such a provision; they also know that the object aimed at has been secured; and that every year are added proofs of the wisdom which actuated the scheme in the first place. By the grant of \$750 an Institute is enabled to employ a classical master whose attention may be exclusively devoted to his department. Without referring disparagingly to the results of classical work in High Schools, we must

* [In lieu of the usual matter in this Department, and in preference to expressing further editorial opinion on the subject at issue, we print a communication from the Principal of one of the leading Collegiate Institutes concerning the increased Government aid given to Institutes over High Schools, and the reasons which justify that course. The discussion may, for the month, appropriately occupy this department.—E. D. C. E. M.]

surely admit that superior facilities are thus afforded both teacher and pupil; and that instead of a purely *fictitious* distinction there is secured a *real* and *intended* distinction. This will be apparent, not simply by consulting the matriculation list of the University, as he suggests, but also by examining the official returns to the Education Department. The writer ignores the fact that in these centres of large attendance a very extensive work in the teaching of classics is being accomplished—quite unattainable in High Schools generally, even with the additional \$750. Local *advantages* are pointed to as the reason for the establishing of Institutes. We conversely point out the fact that local *disabilities*, and other causes, render it highly improbable that many towns not at present supporting Institutes, could command the large attendance necessary. From the latest returns we ascertain that in 1878 there were in our 104 High Schools (including the Institutes) 4,729 pupils in Latin, 883 in Greek; that of those in Latin nearly 2,000 were at Institutes, and similarly 403 of those in Greek. That is, whether as a result of chance or of design, the thirteen schools now ranking as Institutes were actually doing *nearly one-half* the entire work in classics; we consider this not as "fiction," but rather as a *fair and encouraging fulfilment* of a well conceived plan.

	Latin.	Greek.
Brantford.....	140	73
Cobourg.....	122	54
Galt.....	228	42
Hamilton.....	256	49
Kingston.....	107	28
Ottawa.....	195	38
Peterboro'.....	81	9
St. Catharines.....	154	20
Toronto.....	148	34
St. Mary's.....	91	30
Collingwood.....	184	21
London.....	106	5
Perth.....	83	6

We do not here enter into the discussion of the *relative value* of classics. This, however, is not necessary in order to disprove the assertion that the distinction, originally designed and legally effected, is "purely fictitious."

(2) The assertion that the pupils are *forced* into Latin merely to maintain the title of Institute, will be resented by every Head Master of these schools. In the first place they have no power to force any boy to take Latin, nor even to make it a condition of his attendance. An examination of the attendance at the Institutes will shew also that there is not the slightest necessity for any coercion. Taking the schools in the order above given, they had in 1878 an attendance respectively of 280, 132, 270, 567, 132, 217, 221, 264, 302, 182, 271, 297, 144; in all, 3279 pupils out of a total of 10,574 in the 104 schools. The sweeping assertion made is altogether unwarrantable. Can not the Institutes, with their *average* attendance of 252 pupils, reach the 60 required in as legitimate a manner as the High Schools at WHITBY, Owen Sound, Chatham, Guelph, Stratford, St. Thomas, and Waterdown, where, of course, there is *no forcing*, but each of which returns over 60 pupils in Latin alone?

(3) Again, this writer would leave the impression that all High Schools in cities, and towns of over four thousand, solely by virtue of certain "adventitious circumstances" peculiar to those localities, "are springing up" into the rank of Institutes. If he had taken the trouble to inform himself of the amount voluntarily expended in localities where Institutes are established, he would have seen that it is not a springing up resulting from the forcing process referred to, nor yet from the fact alone of a large local attendance. Our Institutes, are, to begin with, so well equipped that a very large proportion of those in attendance are non-sidents. It is rather the result of local enterprise in educational matters, together with the previous success of the schools concerned. We give below, in tabular form, the sums paid in these localities in support of their

Institutes, shewing the sums raised from local sources:—

	Amount paid in salaries.		Amount paid for improvements.		From locality (includ'g fees)	
	1877	1878	1877	1878	1877	1878
Brantford	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
Cobourg	6,037	6,383	3,280	10,597	5,203	3,835
Galt	5,312	3,325	921	1,686	2,984	1,267
Hamilton	7,025	6,537	14,036	11,480	5,754	7,790
Kingston	11,864	12,328	3,007	3,975	11,265	13,257
Ottawa	4,381	3,897	3,724	649	2,530	2,636
Peterboro	6,400	6,100	16,130	13,344	4,125	11,494
St. Cathr's	5,260	5,060	1,101	2,569	3,006	6,404
Toronto	6,693	7,280	2,595	4,368	6,167	6,766
St. Mary's	9,336	9,225	1,484	1,505	8,303	8,458
Collingw'd	2,950	3,000	3,405	550	2,730	1,666
London	3,035	5,309	9,215	11,710	1,557	3,242
Perth	5,417	5,400	453	8,563	4,273	12,268
	2,100	2,100	3,082	4,028	3,106	2,464

From the above table we learn (1) that while the 104 schools paid in 1878 \$211,607 for salaries, the Institutes, of this sum, paid about \$65,000; (2) that of \$132,000 paid in Ontario for High School improvements, the Institutes contributed \$75,000; (3) that of \$224,429, the whole sum raised by local taxation (including fees), there was raised for our Institutes over \$80,000. In other words, of \$568,138 for the purposes indicated, the Institutes raised and expended \$221,513. Have not the friends of our Institutes displayed a spirit of liberality which warrants the conclusion that they *appreciate* the honour and *pay for it*. Considering the inducements held out to High Schools by the Government during past years, leading to very liberal, and in some places, enormous expenditure, with a view to establish an Institute, would it be *just* in the Legislature to withdraw the bonus?

The avowed principle of the Government in distributing the High School grant is that those localities are most generously dealt with that contribute liberally to High School support—not simply those who *have*, but those who *give*; for it is well known that there are High Schools in wealthy centres which would have become Institutes ere this but for the lack of public spirit in this direction. Those who are placed at the head of affairs (and no one more fully than the Minister of Education), knows both the *liberal*

and the *penurious* attitudes assumed by the various localities of the Province.

It is not possible, of course, that every High School will become an Institute; but this is no reason why those who have attained, *earned*, I may say, the distinction, should be unfairly dealt with.

The fact is that every one of these "many High Schools," with 59 boys in Latin—(if it were possible for them to meet the *other* conditions of ranking as Institutes)—would, I can easily believe, *ALLOW one more boy* to take Latin—(not *force* him, of course)—and accept the honour thus *forced* upon them. Numbers of these schools are every year passing to the higher rank, not simply to grasp the \$750 as a fish would take a bait; for in many cases it involves great outlay on the part of the school. The true interests of secondary education could not be better served than by a reasonable multiplication of these centres of classical and general culture. The standard of education is not lowered thereby, as in the case of a superfluity of Universities, each of which may *fix its own standard*, and issue degrees corresponding thereto. This point in our work is carefully guarded, and the more Institutes the better, provided the people both *pay for them* and *fill them* with appreciative pupils.

To remove the bonus might not financially cripple some of the Institutes. Some others might lapse to former rank, which would be a calamity to the cause of education, in so far as the individual schools and their supporters were concerned. It would be a stigma and reproach upon any Legislature that would permit it.

Taken altogether the Whitby plea might naturally come from one whose school lies on the precarious border-land referred to—exposed to temptations to jealousy on the one hand, and possibly to feelings of disappointment on the other. This feeling, I think, could be most easily removed by an honest effort, on the part of all who entertain it, to raise their High School to the rank of an Institute. Once in this position, they would become *reconciled* to it, and lose sight of those "purely fictitious" distinc-

tions to which the Whitby paper now so deprecatingly refers.

Yours truly,

JUSTITIA.

January 17th, 1880.

UNIVERSITY CONSOLIDATION.

The friends of consolidation, or some form of amalgamation, will be pleased to learn, from the following communication, that the proposal is being quite favorably entertained by Trinity. The committee referred to by the writer was reappointed last August, and it is expected that the question will, in due time, be laid before the Minister of Education. In the meantime the several members of the committee could facilitate an early and definite consideration of the question by thus formally testing the attitude of their respective Universities on the subject.

To the Editor of the Mail.

SIR,—I see that the subject of University consolidation is occupying attention at the present time, and it may not be amiss to let the public know what has been and is being done to bring it about. In 1878, at the convention of High School masters, held in Toronto, the subject was under discussion. The general opinion was that before the Legislature could be induced to take the matter up, it would be necessary to present some scheme that had received the sanction of the different Universities in the Province. It was supposed that the Minister of Education should be invited to request the different Universities to appoint say three men each, to meet and confer with him, and such others as he might choose in drafting such a scheme. A committee was appointed to carry out the wishes of the convention. As a member of that committee I addressed a note to the corporation of Trinity College, Toronto, asking whether they could favour such a conference, on the understanding that the leading principles of the bill for University consolidation should be:—

(1) That the power to confer degrees in Arts should be exercised by only one University in the Province.

(2) That this University should be equally independent of all the colleges, denominational and Provincial.

(3) That a portion of public moneys should be distributed among the different colleges from year to year in proportion to the number of successful candidates for degrees.

After due consideration, the Corporation of Trinity returned a favorable reply. The other Universities are, I believe, to be consulted by other members of the committee, and, if all prove as liberal as Trinity, university consolidation may soon be a fact.

The plan mentioned seems to me to need no defence; should it prove otherwise, however, plenty will be found able and willing to give it.

Yours, &c.,

CORTEZ FESSENDEN.

BRAMPTON, *Jan'y. 6.*

DRAWING IN THE NEW ENGLAND SCHOOLS.

Walter Smith, the Director of Drawing for the State of Massachusetts, has lately been rearranging the programme of instruction in drawing in the Boston schools, and in the statement of his new plan, he gives the following among the principles that guided him in framing it:—

All children who can be taught to read, write, and cipher can be taught to draw.

Drawing, by the law of Massachusetts, is required to be taught to every child as an element of general education, like reading, writing, and arithmetic.

As an elementary subject, it should be taught by the regular teachers, and not by special instructors.

The true function of drawing, in general education, is to develop accuracy and to exercise the imagination, thereby tending to produce a love of order, and to nourish originality.

Educationally, drawing should be regarded as a means for the study of other subjects such as geography, history, mechanics, design. In general education it is to be considered as an implement, not as an ornament.

The practice of drawing is necessary to the possession of taste and skill in industry, and is therefore the common element of education for enjoyment of the beautiful, and for a profitable, practical life.

In the primary, grammar, and high schools, drawing is elementary and general: in the normal and evening schools, advanced and special; for teaching purposes in the first, and for skilled industry in the second.

Drawing may now take its legal place in the public schools as an element of, and, not as before, a specialty in, education; at as little cost as any other equally useful branch of instruction, with the prospect that at a future time as many persons will be able to draw well as can read or write well, and as large a proportion be able to design well as to produce a good English composition.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

(Contributed to, and under the management of, Mr. S. McAllister, Headmaster of Ryerson School, Toronto.)

THE OPENING YEAR.

The best teachers are those who are continually improving.

"Knowledge," says Bacon, "perfects nature, and is perfected by experience." Those, who are constantly aiming to make their experience a handmaid to their efficiency, are not only the best but the wisest teachers, for they learn to secure the highest attainable results upon the plastic natures entrusted to their care by the most economic expenditure of nervous and brain force. Such teachers are the truly scientific ones, they make the rules deduced from the accumulated experience of past days their guide in the coming ones, and thus let no day pass without its lesson to themselves, as well as to their scholars. It is such men and women who, as the poet sings,

"Rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things."

We once heard a skilful teacher of many years' experience declare that not a year passed but he observed some improvement in his method of discipline, and in his power of imparting knowledge.

We are led to these reflections by considering how many earnest resolves are formed by teachers at the beginning of the year against faults to be avoided, and in favour of improvements to be begun.

There is danger, however, that some, in the flush of their eagerness, may, in trying to do too much, accomplish very little. It is no harm to remind such of the grim fact that a certain place, which we shall not name, is said to be paid with good intentions. How many of our readers are there who look regretfully back on the past year, with its multitude of noble intentions left unfulfilled. If fewer had been formed more would have been accomplished. We say then

DO NOT ATTEMPT TOO MUCH.

The Arabs have a proverb which has much wisdom in it. "Never attempt all you can do, for he who attempts everything he can do, often attempts more than he can do." The steam that by confinement to a narrow compass can be made to drive an engine, may, by giving it a wider outlet, fume itself uselessly away.

It is better to concentrate your energy and vigilance upon a few most essential things, with the firm resolve not to give them up. First make up your mind that what you determine upon is right, satisfy yourself that it is feasible, and then stick to it, that you may succeed. Are you resolved to have

COMPLETE SILENCE IN YOUR CLASS

while you are speaking or a scholar is answering? Do not be discouraged, nor get out of temper by repeated failures, but renew your determination day after day, and enforce it even to the extent of stopping work until silence, which is the best symbol of attention, is secured. You will thus unfailingly habituate your scholars to the attitude of listeners; their being so in reality will depend upon your own skill in securing and retaining their attention.

Have you determined that greater punctuality shall prevail in giving to each lesson its allotted time?

Make your determination known to your class, and they, though perhaps too often from a selfish motive, will materially assist you to abide by it. Do not be cozened into any irregularity by the fact that the analysis of some important sentence has to be finished, some knotty question to be elucidated, or some breach of discipline to be checked. The breach of discipline can be better checked after a little delay, and the sentence

or the question will afford all the greater benefit by another examination. By persisting in punctuality of this kind, you will, from necessity, get into the habit of timing your work so as not to leave anything important to the last. Whenever you are tempted to steal time from another lesson, remember that the arrangement of your time-table has been made after long and serious deliberation by yourself or others, and that you are about to set the desire of the moment against hours of careful thought spent in giving to each lesson its proper place and value. It may assist you in keeping your resolution to remember that the adherence to the habits of punctuality in all your actions is part of the training which your scholars should receive from your example. If you feel that during the past year you were lacking in sympathy for many of their weaknesses, because they were brought before you by worrying complaints which you too brusquely shut your ears to, or by outbursts of peevishness or ill-temper which you could not close your eyes to resolve to give your strength to assist these weak ones to get the better of their frailties, not by ridicule, which, in such cases, is the mark of a coarse nature, but by tender consideration, expressed by look and by word, which is the stamp of a fine one. There are many things which will appear quite trifling to yourself, but from the importance which scholars attach to them you must put an inordinate value upon. On the other hand they are disposed to regard with indifference many things to which you attach much value. Hence, one of the resolves every teacher should make at this season is

NOT TO BELITTLE LITTLE THINGS.

Remember every act in a child's life is a factor in the formation of his character. No matter how often he is guilty of a trifling fault, still give your serious attention to it, and do not let the culprit think for a moment that you regard it as too venial for correction. It is better not to let him know that you see it at all, than that he should think you see it and do not check it. With young children, for example, there is a disposition to tardiness in coming to school, and they can be

hardly blamed for it as a fault, since punctuality is not an innate virtue. It becomes your duty, by persistent effort, day after day, to enjoy it, so that you may ultimately implant it as a habit.

One of the invaluable acquisitions of a good teacher, which you should resolve to have, is the power of withdrawing attention from serious and important class work, and concentrating it earnestly though momentarily upon any delinquency, however trifling, in a scholar. For example, should you be passing among your class to examine the work they are at, and notice one scholar who is untidy in his dress, another who has the floor about his feet littered with papers, a third who has dirty hands, you can by a look and a gesture, without the assistance of even a word, make the culprit blush for shame at his fault, and thus create a feeling that will prevent its repetition. All this can be done without a perceptible interruption to the work that is going on.

It is not a matter of surprise that teachers are liable to err by beginning their year with innumerable good intentions which they can never fulfil, for they have to perform the multifarious duties of both a legislator and an executive officer. In this latter capacity their great resolve must be to deal out

EVEN-HANDED JUSTICE

between scholar and scholar, and even between teacher and scholar. Nothing will more tend to win respect, secure authority, and extend the influence of the teacher than conscientious efforts to satisfy the scholars' sense of justice.

It is an excellent plan to commit to paper a statement of your intended improvements, and, at the end of a month or two, to examine the document to see to what extent your good resolutions have been carried out. You can thus make a fresh start upon what has been already begun. If, from reading, or friendly discussion, you have resolved to modify your method in any particular, or to try a new one, do not be discouraged if at first you seem unsuccessful. Remember that adopting a new method is like taking up a new tool, you need to get accustomed

to both before you can secure the best results.

With whatever good resolutions our readers may have begun the New Year, we wish them all success in carrying them out, and hope the few preceding observations may be of some assistance to them in doing so.

The burden of all we have said is contained in the pregnant words of St. Paul, which we would like to see set up as a maxim in every school-room in the land for the benefit of both teachers and scholars—

“BE NOT WEARY IN WELL DOING.”

We have merely touched upon a few matters the discussion of which is appropriate to the present season. Doubtless our readers will have many more before them as they “look before and after.” We shall be glad if they will take us into their confidence, and state them.

It is the earnest desire of those who have taken upon themselves the responsibility of continuing the publication of *The Monthly* that it should be an independent medium of mutual help and protection to the public school teachers of the country; this it can only be, to any great extent, by their cordial co-operation, and by their using it for a free interchange of their views and opinions.

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN PARIS.

Crèche is the name given to the public nursery, where poor working women can leave their infants in the morning when they go to their work, and whence they take them home at night. Such institutions seem to be, if not a necessity, a most benevolent provision for both mother and child. Attention is given not only to the infant's health and comfort, but to its physical, mental, and moral development. The nurses are chosen with the utmost care, and physicians regularly visit each *crèche* and inspect all its sanitary arrangements, as well as prescribe for the sick.

After the *crèche* come the kindergarten for the rich, and the *Salle d'Asyle* for the poor, the former distinctively German, the latter largely French. Both receive their pupils at

a very early age, and make very little attempt to grade or classify them. The number of pupils in the *Salle d'Asyle* is generally small, and as little restraint as possible is imposed upon their freedom. The school-rooms are furnished with long low benches for the children, a chair for the teacher, and usually a case in which objects used in teaching are kept, a small black-board, a stand for pictures and figures, and a few cradles for the younger ones when they grow weary. A considerable portion of the room is kept as an open space for the children to perform their evolutions and exercises in. A yard carefully adapted to, and arranged for, the purpose of a play ground is considered essential to the *Salle d'Asyle*. There is of course no attempt at systematic teaching. The little ones are taught a variety of calisthenic exercises, some of which border on the military drill, and various games and exercises. Object lessons and stories on a great variety of subjects,—often including theology and demonology,—are given at brief intervals. Learning to read, count, draw, and sing seem to be largely postponed, though some attention is given to these subjects. The underlying theory appears to be to awaken the child's curiosity, and supply it with something which will gratify it and lead it to further acquisitions of knowledge. In the oral lessons, the pupils are constantly questioned upon what they have been told, and encouraged to express their ideas in language of their own. About 25,000 children are in the *Salles d'Asyle* of Paris.

In some respects, the instruction in the kindergarten is quite similar to that in the *Salle d'Asyle*. Objects are substituted for books, the child is trained to observe the properties of familiar objects, and his imitative and constructive instincts are guided and developed in the production of articles of almost endless variety. Large quantities of these articles were to be found in most of the educational exhibits, but it must be confessed that many of them were rude, and but few gave evidence of much progress. It is safe to say that multitudes of mothers and little ones all over the world are, fortunately, engaged in the construction of just such figures

and toys, sometimes with, oftener without, a knowledge of the fact that it is the best way to train the senses and budding faculties of the child. The products of these home schools are often little inferior to those exhibited at Paris; but their artistic excellence is a minor consideration. The little girl who is taught in the nursery or at the fireside the mysteries of paper dolls, birds, animals, and houses; the little boy who learns in the fields or woods to make a whistle, a jack-o'-lantern, or a trap; the little one who learns to build houses of blocks, tents of cards, or, in short, to extemporize new playthings out of the materials at hand, is being trained in the kindergarten method, and his pleasure and improvement bear constant witness to the excellence of that method. Not only are the hand and eye trained, but the perceptive faculties are admirably developed, and the imagination stimulated to a vigorous activity.

As an indication of the pleasure and advantage derived by the child from such employment of his time, the advocates of the kindergarten confidently point to the superior intelligence and gentler dispositions of the children trained in these schools. And in this connection it is well worth our while to note the necessity of toys to the child. How warped and one-sided has been the manhood and womanhood developed by those whose

parents and teachers overlooked or denied the importance of play and playthings for little children! In such persons the imagination lies almost dormant, and every event or experience is clothed in the most sombre hues. Their lives constitute a most prosaic round, which steadily grows more dull and monotonous from beginning to end. Children who have no toys grasp the realities of life slowly and imperfectly, and never idealize. The art instinct is developed very young, if at all. Those nations which have produced many celebrated artists have provided their children with an abundance of toys. The French toys illustrate the peculiar characteristics of the nation. The same is true of the Italian, Swiss, and English toys. And it is a significant fact that those nations which have produced the greatest variety of playthings have been able to compete most successfully in the markets of the world in the sale of the finest fabrics and productions of artistic skill. If it would not lead us into too lengthy a digression, it would also be interesting to note the effect of an abundance of suitable toys upon the child's emotional nature. Deprive him of playthings, and he becomes uncivil and morose, morbidly introspective, and often suspicious and repulsive.—Condensed from the *New England Journal of Education*.

A COPY of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary was offered at a Teachers' Meeting to any one who should read the following hodge-podge, and pronounce every word according to Webster. Though nine teachers tried, no one succeeded in winning the prize:—

"A sacrilegious son of Belial, who suffered from bronchitis, having exhausted his finances, in order to make good the deficit, resolved to ally himself to a comely, lenient, and docile young lady of the Malay or Caucasian race. He accordingly purchased a calliope and a coral necklace of a chameleon hue, and securing a suite of rooms at a prin-

cipal hotel, he engaged the head waiter as his coadjutor. He then despatched a letter of the most unexceptional calligraphy extant, inviting the young lady to a matinee. She revolted at the idea, refused to consider herself sacrificable to his desires, and sent a polite note of refusal; on receiving which, he procured a carbine and bowie-knife, said that he would not now forge fetters hymeneal with the queen, went to an isolated spot, severed his jugular vein and discharged the contents of his carbine into his abdomen.—The debris was removed by the coroner."

PUPIL-TEACHERS' DEPARTMENT.

IN accordance with a wish expressed by a number of our readers, we propose to publish, from time to time, questions upon the various subjects in the public-school programmes. It will be our purpose to make these, as far as possible, practical for scholars and suggestive to teachers, so that they may be of assistance to both in school-room work.

We shall feel obliged if our friends in various parts of the country will forward us copies of their series of competitive or promotion examination questions for use in this column. We shall give our readers the benefit of many questions used for the pupil teachers' examinations in England, and shall be glad to select from those given to our teachers in training in this country, as they are supplied to us.

EXAMINATION PAPERS OF GODE-
RICH MODEL SCHOOL.

We begin with a selection from the papers set at the Christmas examination of the Goderich Model School.

ARITHMETIC.

1. Divide the difference between 123456-789 and 9876543 by 12.
2. By what number must 343 be multiplied to give a product of 119025.
3. A farmer having 1,500 bushels of wheat, sold one load of 54 bushels, another of 65 bushels, two more of 52 bushels each, and another of 77 bushels. How many loads of 60 bushels each in what remains?
4. By what must 7 cwt. 3 qrs. 20 lbs. be multiplied to give for product 47 cwt. 23 lbs?
5. Find capacity in gallons of the smallest cask that can be exactly filled by each of the following measures: 5 quarts, 5 pints, 2 gallons, 4 gallons, and 8 gallons.

6. Find the expense of fencing both sides of a road 99 miles in length, at \$4.15 per rod of fencing.

7. How many bricks, 9 inches long, 4½ inches broad, and 4 inches thick, will be required for a wall 64 feet long, 18 feet high, and 3 feet thick, allowing that the mortar increases the bulk of each brick by 1½?

8. The profits of a garden for two years were \$1,456; the profits of the second year being 8 per cent. more than those of the first; find the profits for each year.

GRAMMAR.

1. Form two simple and two compound sentences each containing the word *horse*.
2. Form two complex sentences each containing the word *clock*.
3. Name and define those parts of speech which are inflected.
4. Point out the vowels in the words:—Awful, Wayward, Yesterday; give feminine forms of Earl, Hero, Executor; the plurals of Penny, Chimney, Staff, Tyro, Ellipsis, Soliloquy; the comparatives and superlatives of Much, Late, Fore; the past tense and past participle of Eat, Flow, Burst, Mean, Demean.

5. Correct any mistakes you detect in the following sentences, giving the rule that is violated in each case:—

- (a) You should have went with me.
- (b) That needn't make no difference between such old friends as you and me.
- (c) The less one reads, the more time we have to read it well.
- (d) I have went over the sum twice and the second time seen where I done it wrong.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Name all the countries of South America that border on Brazil, with capital of each.

2. Name and give the position of each city in Ontario, also the lake expansions and cities on the river St. Lawrence.

3. Name all the lakes and rivers between United States and Canada. What separates these two countries west of Lake Superior?

ADDITIONAL FOR SENIOR SECTION.

1. From what lines and in what directions are latitude and longitude measured?

2. Name all the countries, with capital of each, contained in the peninsulas of Europe.

3. Through what bodies of water would you pass in sailing from Goderich to Paris?

4. State definitely the position of the following:—Kong, Jamaica, Ganges, Cairo, Pyrenees, Amazon, Tropic of Cancer, Montreal, Alps, and Winnipeg.

5. Define Crater, Delta, Estuary, Equinoxes, Longitude, Meridians, Plateau, the Tropics, Horizon.

6. Through what waters would a vessel pass in going from Glasgow (Scotland) to Chicago?

7. In what countries are the following lakes?—Champlain, Ladoga, Titicaca, Baikal, Nipissing, Salt, Constance, Malar, Maracaybo, Lomond, Victoria Nyanza, Geneva.

8. Trace a trip by water in a canoe from Goderich to Winnipeg. Describe shortest return route.

9. Where and what are the following?—Adrianople, Detroit, Gothland, Yenikale, Dnieper, Everest, Bangkok, Solway, Blanco, Warsaw, Madeira, Messina, Guernsey, Delhi, Socotra, Clyde, Paramaribo, Gardafui, Duluth, Greenwich.

ADDITIONAL FOR SENIOR SECTION.

10. Distinguish between the Diurnal and Annual motion of the earth and state the result of each. Name the Zones and state their width in degrees, and account for Torrid Zone.

CANADIAN HISTORY.

Third Form.

1. What parts of America were colonized by Britain?

2. Give a brief sketch of three of the first explorers of Canada and tell names and positions of first settlements.

3. What privileges had the "One Hundred Associates" and what were they to give in return for their privileges?

4. Give names and dates connected with the founding and taking (at different times) of Quebec.

5. Give a brief account of Frontenac. Of what city did he lay the foundation?

6. Who were the U. E. Loyalists? How were they treated by the British Government?

7. What took place in 1791, 1759, 1867?

8. Give a brief account of the rebellion of 1837.

9. By whom are our laws made and administered?

10. What is meant by the "National Policy?"

HISTORY.

Fourth Class.

1. How did Canada come into possession of the French? and how did the British acquire it?

2. What is meant by the British North America Act? Give date. Name Governors since Confederation and give a brief sketch of each.

3. Write brief notes on Julius Cæsar, Egbert, Alfred, Dunstan, Canute, Harold, Edward the Confessor.

4. Tell what you know about the Norman Conquest.

5. Describe the *feudal* system and explain "Domesday Book."

6. What was Magna Charta? Why was it considered important? By what King and under what circumstances was it signed?

7. Name in order the Tudor Sovereigns of England, and tell what you know of the reign of the last.

8. Give a short account of the reign of Charles I.

9. What was "the Petition of Rights"? Give its principal conditions, with date.

10. When did Queen Victoria come to the throne? Whom did she succeed, and what have been the principal events in the history of Canada during the reign?

11. Tell what you know about Oliver Cromwell, Joan of Arc, John Milton, Lord Nelson, James Watt.

ENGLISH PUPIL-TEACHERS' EXAMINATION PAPERS.

ARITHMETIC AND MENSURATION.

1. If marbles can be produced wholesale at five for a halfpenny, and sold at a farthing each, what is the gain per cent.?

2. A tradesman, buying goods by means of false scales, defrauds 15 per cent., and has 15 per cent. again in selling. Find his whole gain per cent.

3. Compare the sum of money which will amount to £105 6s. 0½d. in 3½ years, at 4¼ per cent. simple interest, and the sum which, put out at compound interest for 2 years at 5 per cent., will amount to £100.

4. A man buys 50 shares in a railway at £20 10s. per share, and 100 more at £7 15s. per share; the half-yearly dividend being 3s. 4d. per share, what interest per cent. per annum does he receive for his money?

5. Find the present worth of £130 0s. 7½d., due 9 months hence, and standing in the 4 per cents at 92.

$$6. \sqrt{53111.8116} + \sqrt{20\frac{1}{4}}.$$

7. If pure gold is worth £4 5s. per oz., and silver is worth 5s. 6d. an oz., what would be the weight of a 15s. piece, containing 92.5 per cent. of value pure gold, and the rest silver?

8. What would be the weight of the piece in the above question if "92.5 per cent. of weight" be substituted for "92.5 per cent. of value"?

9. The expense of paving a street half-a-mile long, at 7½d. per square yard, was £430 16s. 8d. Find the breadth of the street.

10. The difference between the areas of two squares inscribed and circumscribed about a circle is 338 feet. Find the radius of the circle.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

1. Parse the verbs and adjectives in the following:—

"O sweet is the new violet that comes beneath the skies,
And sweeter is the young lamb's voice to me that cannot rise,
And sweet is all the land about, and all the flowers that blow,
And sweeter far is death than life to me that long to go."

2. A verb is sometimes said to be a word that expresses action; shew that this is an imperfect definition, *i.e.*, that it will not include all verbs.

3. Parse fully the pronouns in the following passage:—"What am I to do with what he gave me?"

"I loved the brimming wave that swam,
Through quiet meadows round the mill,
The sleepy pond above the dam,
The pool beneath it, never still."

Point out the prepositions in the above, and shew from them that prepositions are words that express relation.

4. Write, from memory, the substance of the passage read to you by the Inspector?

5. "We doubt whether it *would be possible* to mention a state *which has been* on the whole a 'gainer by a breach of public faith."

(a) Point out the Conjunctions and Relative Pronoun in the above, and shew what sentences they connect.

(b) Point out the Adjective sentence, and show why it is so-called.

(c) Parse the words in italics.

6. How must a Relative Pronoun agree with its Antecedent? Give examples.

7. Analyze the following passage:—

"O then,
What soul was his, when from the naked top
Of some bold headland he beheld the sun
Rise up and bathe the world in light."

8. Give the meaning of the following Latin prepositions:—Sub, inter, de, trans,

post, and shew what is the force of each in the following English words :—

Depart, postpone, subtract, translate, interrupt, detract, subdue, transatlantic.

9. "He sings of *what* the world *will* be, *when* the years *have* *died* away."

Parse the words in italics.

10. Enumerate and explain, as to a first class, the *punctuation marks* used in our language, giving directions (with examples) for the use of each.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Draw a map of the North Coast of Europe, with its islands, from the North Cape to the boundary of Asia.

2. Give notes of a lesson on "The Seasons, and the causes of them." N.B. Suppose the class to know the shape of the earth.

3. Draw out notes of a lesson on your own county; illustrate it by a map.

4. Describe a journey from St. John up the St. Lawrence, by the Red River settlement, and the Great Slave Lake, to the mouth of the Mackenzie.

5. Describe *exactly* the position and character of Lucknow, Benares, Delhi, Poonah, Tanjore, Rangoon, Singapore; and mention any historical events with which any of them is connected.

6. Give notes of a lesson on "A journey from St. John to the mouth of the Mackenzie;" describing as fully as you can the physical features of the country.

7. Name and describe the lakes and rivers of Africa, referring, so far as you are able, to recent discoveries.

8. Give full notes of a lesson on the following passage :—

"On looking at the globe, three things strike us," viz. :—

(a) How much more water there is on it than dry land.

(b) How unequally the land is divided between the northern and the southern hemisphere.

(c) How the land collected in the northern

part of the world seems to be everywhere *reaching down towards the south*.

9. Name in order the countries of South America, and describe briefly the feature and character of each.

10. What are trade winds and monsoons? And what are their effects and uses?

HISTORY.

1. Write down a list of kings of this country (England) from 900 to 1000, and give their dates.

2. What sovereigns were reigning in 1043, 1088, 1136, and 1200? and who were their immediate successors?

3. Give the dates of accession of Henry IV., Henry VII., Charles II., William III., and George I.

4. Describe the death of William the Conqueror.

5. Give the name and country of three Queens Consort in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and sketch the character and career of *one* of them.

6. Set down the dates of the following battles, and describe *one* of them—Nevil's Cross, Agincourt, Second of St. Albans.

7. Describe the death of Queen Elizabeth.

8. Give the name and date of the eldest sons of Henry VII., James I., and George II.; and tell what you know about *one* of them.

9. Set down the dates and localities of the following battles, and describe *one* of them—Edgehill, Blenheim, Fontenoy, Trafalgar.

10. Compare the condition of the English people under Edward the Confessor and William Rufus.

11. Set down a list of the civil wars which have raged in this country, with dates; and describe briefly the cause and event of *one* of them.

12. Who is the present Prime Minister? What can you tell about the office which he holds?

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

CHRONICLE OF THE MONTH.

WEST HURON TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

—The semi-annual meeting of the West Huron Teachers' Association was held in Exeter on Friday and Saturday, Jan. 16th and 17th, at which a very pleasant and profitable time was spent. The number of teachers present was large. The meeting opened with prayer; the Vice-President, Mr. Baird, Sr., being in the chair. Mr. Thos. Gregory, Provincial Delegate, then submitted his report, for which he was tendered the thanks of the Association. In the afternoon Rev. Mr. Mitchell took up "Voice Culture," dealing with emphasis, time, flexibility, strength and volume, and illustrating, by a number of selections, how the voice might be improved. After a short discussion on how some difficult pieces should be rendered, he was tendered a very hearty vote of thanks. The President of the Association, H. I. Strang, B.A., at the next Sederunt, was called to the chair, and delivered a short address—after which Mr. McDonald, Mathematical Master at Goderich High School, took up Elementary Algebra, dealing mostly with factoring and symmetry in a clear and comprehensive style. In the evening a musical and literary entertainment was given to a large audience, at which able and eloquent addresses were delivered by G. W. Ross, M.P., and Rev. G. Webber, followed by a few remarks from the Inspector, J. R. Miller, and H. I. Strang, B.A. On Saturday the subject of promotion examinations was again taken up and the resolutions of the committee considered clause by clause, which resulted in the adoption of the following, after an animated discussion of two hours. Resolved that, as uniformity and thoroughness in the course of study in our

Public Schools is desirable, the following scheme of Promotion Examinations be introduced, as a means of attaining that object.

1. That a limit table, shewing the course of study for the various classes, be prepared and that two copies be supplied to each school, one to be the property of the master and the other the property of the trustees.
2. That the examination questions for promotion into the various classes, be prepared, within the limit table, and that the value be assigned to each question by the party preparing them.
3. That the examinations be conducted simultaneously, and that each teacher preside at the examination of his own pupils, assisted by at least one of the trustees or some person to be named by them.
4. That each teacher forward to the Inspector, at least one month before the examination, the number of papers required by the various classes.
5. That the printed papers be sent to each teacher, and that the seals be broken by him in the presence of the pupils on the day of the examination.
6. That each teacher examine the papers of his own pupils, but that two or more teachers in a township may combine to examine their papers together.
7. That each teacher forward the result of the examinations to the Inspector, within three weeks from the examinations; and that promotion certificates be given to those entitled to them, signed by the Inspector and the master of the school.
8. That the examinations be held semi-annually, about the end of May and the beginning of December. It was further thought desirable to ask the teachers of East Huron to join in these examinations, and a deputation consisting of Inspector Miller and Messrs. G. Baird, Sr., and P. Strang, were appointed

to bring the matter before them at their next meeting. G. W. Ross, M.P., then took up the subject, "How to teach reading," in a practical manner, dealing with some of the common errors among pupils in reading and how to correct them; such as monotony, indistinctness, incorrect inflection, expression and emphasis; for which he received a hearty vote of thanks. Mr. Geo. Baird, Jr., then discussed "How to teach Fractions," to a class of beginners, dealing with the subject in a very neat and concise manner. Mr. H. I. Strang, B.A., discussed difficulties in Analysis and Parsing, and it is needless to say, as ably and as much to the satisfaction of the teachers as ever. This brought a very successful meeting to a close.

ONTARIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The Board of Directors of the Ontario Teachers' Association met on December 30th in the office of Inspector Hughes, Toronto. There were present Messrs. MacMurchy, Hughes, Spence, and Doan, of Toronto, Mr. Miller of St. Thomas, Mr. Boyle of Elora, Mr. Dearness of East Middlesex, and Mr. Rannie of Newmarket. Arrangements were made to invite Mr. Wickersham, State Superintendent of Pennsylvania Schools, the distinguished American educationist, to address the Convention; it was also resolved to ask Professor Goldwin Smith to deliver an address. The following subjects are among those decided to be taken up:—Recent changes in the School Law, The Teaching of Natural Science in Schools, The Supply of Teachers as affected by the present system of examination, etc.

The Board appointed a committee to reconsider the advisability of making the Association a representative one.

Owing to the unavoidable absence of Messrs. Alexander, of Galt, President of the

Association, Dickenson of Stratford, the Chairman of the Public School Section, and McAllister of Toronto, no special business was arranged for the Public School Section of the Convention; this, however, will be done, as in the case of the other two sections, by correspondence.

The next meeting will be held, as usual, in the theatre of the Normal School Buildings, Toronto, on the second Tuesday in August.

The prospects of a successful meeting are excellent.

EAST KENT TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This association met in Ridgeway on Friday, October 31st, and Saturday, November 1st, 1879, with the President, Mr. Masales, in the chair. There was a large number of teachers present, who entered into the discussion of the subjects on the programme with lively interest. An excellent essay on "Consecutive Thought," was read by Mr. Masales. The essay will be published. "Amusements in Public Schools," by Mr. Ward, called forth remarks from the majority of the fraternity present. "Geography" was taken up by Mr. Frampton, who treated it in his usual lively manner. Mr. McGillivray followed with "Factors and Multiples in Arithmetic." "Studies in Public Schools" were next discussed, and a resolution was passed that the Association concur in the resolution relating to optional subjects, on the Second Class programme, passed by the West Bruce Teachers' Association at their last meeting. The subject of "Prizes in Public Schools" was taken up by Mr. Harrison, I.P.S., who was followed in the discussion by several teachers. An entertainment was given by the teachers on Friday evening, in Porter's Opera Hall.

WAL. S. MCBRAYNE, *Sec'y.*

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

A MINISTRY OF HEALTH, and other Addresses. BY DR. RICHARDSON. New York : D. Appleton & Co. ; Toronto : Hart & Rawlinson.

There is a considerable amount of food for thought in this work, although, to get over the disagreeable part of our task at once, we cannot praise the mode in which Dr. Richardson has laid his ideas before the public.

Our great scientific inquirers have carried the beauty and purity of English style into fields of research hitherto abandoned to crude and pedantic pens,—and this has been pushed so far that some modern essays of this class fail to impress a casual reader with the magnitude of the thoughts enunciated, on account of the transparent clearness of the language in which they are couched. Dr. Richardson appears to think in some of his pages that to have caught a certain easy-going air of picturesqueness, is to establish his claim to rank among our grand masters. Self depreciation is often a merit among leaders of thought,—it sits with an uneasy air on men whom we should never think of bragging about, and it has this appearance when displayed by our author. Lastly, his expressions often offend against the rules of construction, as in the case of the contorted sentence " See the learned professional what aid he calls !" The change in the natural sequence of the words, and the dropping of the word " man " give no additional force to the thought, which in itself is so hackneyed that good taste demands its introduction in the simplest and most retiring form possible. Occasionally he uses curious expressions, such as "*incanted* visions," for visions produced by incantations,—which simply provokes the mind to think of "*decanted* spirits" and spoils the solemnity of his period.

Passing on to more important matters we are glad to be able to agree with Dr. Richardson on many of his views as to the science of health. He is an earnest pleader for a Minister of Health, with a proper department under him and a position independent of political ins and outs. Without accepting all the details, his idea is undoubtedly a good one. Another suggestion of his appears to us to strike the right nail on the head. It is, and always will be, a moot point how far Government encouragement and patronage can benefit science. Certainly payment by results will not do. The wishes of Government as to what the result should be would leak out, and men would work for that result and not for the simple truth. Can any one doubt that if the rewards of science were exclusively in the hands of a State Church, the views of that church (say as to the question of development) would materially influence the bulk of current scientific research? Our "*Descents of Man*" and "*Antiquities of Man*" would be replaced to a great extent by an enlarged series of *Bridgewater Treatises*.

Nor will endowment do. You cannot endow research. You may give a man a thousand pounds a year to investigate such and such a phenomenon, but you cannot make him do it to any effect if his heart is not in it. He may be very conscientious and potter about his laboratory for the full term you pay him for, but the thousand pounds will have gone in smoke, and science be none the richer.

What then can Government do? It can do what individual energy and private means are unable to accomplish. It can perform the Herculean task of collecting those materials upon which genius is to work. At present the sanitary reformer has to drudge

through the weary labour of collecting his own statistics of disease from a hundred different sources, like the Israelites searching for the stubble wherewith to make their bricks. He comes exhausted from this mechanical and never-ending routine work to that part of his task which demands his entire capacity and should receive the full benefit of his intellect. Is it to be wondered at that the results of his investigation are not what we should expect?

It is in the power of every Government to keep such sanitary records as will enable students to arrange and systematize those great laws of health and disease, of weather, of climate, and of vitality, which at present are only guessed at empirically.

In time it will, we hope, be a matter of friendly rivalry between the countries of the world, which shall best preserve these monuments of Life and Death.

How small and uninteresting such a table of statistics appears when taken by itself, and when viewed by the uninitiated! But what a world of facts, social, moral and political, it unfolds to the careful analyser! The germ of nations, the seeds of the decay of kingly races, are written in its dry, speechless columns:

What would we not give for a week's bill of health of Thebes under the greatest of its Pharaohs? of Imperial Rome, thickly clustered round the palaces of the worst of its Cæsars? We cannot hope to look on these, but we *can* provide the means by which so keen a regret may be spared posterity, as far as concerns our own country and our own era.

LIBRARY CALENDAR for 1880. Toronto:
Hart & Rawlinson.

This a calendar of a unique pattern. It

consists of 366 slips of paper fastened loosely over one another; each has the name of the month, the name of the day, and the date appropriate to its position in the pile. When one is done with, it can be easily removed, and the one for the next day appears. The whole is attached to a very handsome card, printed in gold and colours.

We know of no better way our readers could spend twenty-five cents than by sending it to Messrs. Hart & Rawlinson, for one of these useful articles to decorate their school-rooms. The numbers on the slips are large enough to be seen from any part of an ordinary sized school-room. Not the least interesting feature is the quotation printed on each slip. We give one or two as specimens to shew that they have not been selected by the publishers at random.

"Make the same use of a book that a bee does of a flower, it steals sweets from it, but does not injure it."

"A man may write at any time if he will set himself doggedly to it."

"Books are the masters that teach without scolding, and chastise without stripes."

"God be thanked for books. They are the voices of the distant and the dead, and make us heirs of the spiritual life of past ages."

Should any teacher be at a loss for a sentence for grammatical analysis in the less advanced classes, he has one here ready at hand, which, while serving for an exercise, will contain, as every exercise for analysis should contain, something worth remembering.

The loop to hang the calendar by is hardly strong enough for school-room usage, but this can be easily remedied by the teacher.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE QUARREL IN THE BOOK-TRADE.

The falling-out among the Toronto School-Book Publishers is an enlivening episode of the dull period which usually closely follows upon the holiday season. The trade have never been what may be called a happy family. There have always been jealousies, disagreements, and more or less of inward-ravenging. A certain degree of interest in common has hitherto, however, been proof against disruptive influences. Unhappily this can now no longer be said, for one house of the fold has gone out in wrath and in anger. What immediately has precipitated the outbreak, we, not being "of the ring," can only distantly surmise. Possibly the boom in the "Iron-bound books," of which one house has had a monopoly, may have had to do with the matter, or the exciting cause of rebellion may be discovered in the announced "relays of night-hands" which the house in question has had to press into service. But why inquire? Success, we know, as often turns the stomach of the observer as it turns the head of the observed. But the outbreak has a literature. There are letters; and the departmental constable is abroad. Education Office slumbers were not to be rudely broken for nought, nor must the public interest be endangered by attacks upon its pocket. Besides, the House, you know, is in session. But with this trade squabble what has the public really to do, and what vital educational interests are in danger? The public, it is true, have been appealed to, but only, it would seem, to make a show of virtue or to gratify disappointed greed. As to the educational interests, if any were affected, they were presumably safe in the hands of the Minister. Mr. Crooks, at the first sound of war, we

admit, was visibly alarmed; but, considering his somewhat thorny official seat, allowance must be made for occasions of even violent perturbation. Of course it was naughty for the publishing houses to form a ring—for, despite a little casuistry, a ring there was;—and the name of a ring, though the public is not affected by it, has an ominous sound. But all were in it, and with the motive, so far as we can understand, of keeping faith with each other. Looking merely at the combination, it was not a happy alliance; looking at its alleged design, we cannot say that it was either treasonable or unholy. Like all compacts, however, that endeavour to bind discordant interests, the publishing combination failed to remain cemented; and, following the conventional course, when a split occurs, there was the usual silly appeal to the public.

Since the above was written the matter has come up in the local House, now in session, and there are a few aspects of the discussion that may be seriously treated. With the trade bickering, as we have said, the public has no concern, as the publishers' combination only contemplated the readjustment of discounts to the retail trade, which competition was of late ruinously extending, while the public in no way benefited by the sacrifice of the manufacturers' profits. So keenly of late were the prices cut in these School Books that a Montreal publisher of the Readers, we learn, had shut down upon their manufacture rather than incur the loss of putting them on the market at a price lower than they cost to produce. Such a condition of affairs was neither advantageous to the trade nor to the public. The joint protective effort of the majority of the publishers was, therefore, not unreasonable. The later attitude of the Minister in regard to the

matter is one of wisdom ; and his remarks in the House shew that if, when the trade disturbance first broke out, he forgot what was due to publishing enterprise in supplying the wants of schools with meritorious text-books, it was only for the moment that he did so. On the other hand, the Minister has an unmistakable duty to perform, in seeing not only that the schools are provided with efficient text-books, but that they are furnished at a price reasonably suited to the pockets of the people. In the performance of this duty the intelligence and honest purpose of Mr. Crooks will doubtless continue to be his best guides in dealing with so delicate and important a matter. While the policy is maintained of having a uniformity of text-books throughout the schools, the duty of the Minister carries with it serious responsibility and necessitates a nice discrimination. The system of options in the choice of text-books, wherever practicable, should, however, be maintained. This, of itself, will, by competition, do much to minimize their cost, though care should always be exercised in maintaining excellence of manufacture. Slop book-making is always dear book-making, and, moreover, tends to slop-teaching. The throwing open the manufacture of authorized text-books, to any house offering to produce them, is, but too apt, unless rigid checks are applied, to lead to slop-production. There is the more reason, therefore, to be watchful. In comparison with the prices at which school books are sold in England and in the United States, the rates obtaining here cannot be said to be other than favourable. Some consideration, however, must imperatively be given to publishers' rights and to authors' royalties. The author of a good text-book can scarcely be too generously dealt with ; and manuals of a high character will not be forthcoming unless their writers are well paid for their work. That the Department should control the copyright of books it authorizes is a matter for the Government to consider and for the Legislature to decide upon. But no honest administration of educational affairs will seek to obtain these except upon equita-

ble business terms. Neither official wire-pulling nor trade communism should obscure the course of honour on this point. A popular error into which even the Minister, to some extent, seems to have fallen, here also requires to be corrected. We refer to the fallacy that a school manual derives its value from being authorized by the Department. The approval of the Department attests its merit but does not create it. As a property, authorization, of course, makes it of more value to the publisher. But, unless the character of a text-book is of no account in its selection for school use, Departmental authorization cannot be said to give it a value which it has not. There have been books issued by native publishers which have merited, but have not received, authorization by the Department, as there are some on the authorized lists whose title to official favour is not that of merit. Intrinsically, the worth of the former is as appreciable, without the approval of the Department, as with it. It is misleading, therefore, to say that authorization creates the value of an author's property. Let Mr. Crooks have sound views on this point and it will be well for education. For good text-books he will have learned ere this that he has to look outside the Department, and not within it. To obtain these, the hands and brain capable of producing them necessarily have to be paid for. But this the public will not grumble at if the books be few and good. The Minister's danger is in their being many and bad ; and the trade connections of his advisers are at present rapidly placing them among the latter. The evil, moreover, is aggravated by the trade-touting of the Inspectors, and their immoral coercion of the teachers to introduce unauthorized books. *This* is the "Book Ring" Mr. Crooks should "see his way" to checkmate.

THE DESIDERATUM OF GOOD SCHOOL MAPS.

There is no greater want in our schools to-day than that of accurate and intelligently compiled wall-maps, embodying the results

of recent geographical research, presented in bold outline, and with all the aids that modern mechanical skill can supply. With the execution of the maps furnished to the schools by the Ontario Education Department we have little fault to find, though their construction might be improved were competition admitted in their manufacture and supply to the Department. Their chief demerit has been a want of scrupulous care in compilation, and an excessive tardiness in adapting them to the changes which political circumstances from time to time have occasioned. With such maps as are issued by Messrs. W. & A. K. Johnston, of Edinburgh,—not to instance those of other houses,—always abreast of the time, and of the highest character, both as to construction and mechanism, there is no reason why our schools should not be furnished with a satisfactory equipment of good maps. The maps of our own country, however, we must necessarily ourselves produce; and here again, though we have not much fault to find with the construction and execution of those issued by the Department, our complaint is that they are rarely ever up with the times. The schools have long been promised revision of these maps; and with the creation of new Provinces, the enlargement of the boundary of others, and the general filling up of the country, there is urgent necessity that the series should be overhauled and speedily be issued for the use of the schools. If the Department cannot expedite the production of these new issues, might not the Minister throw open their manufacture to trade competition? Much, in any case, we think, would be gained by this course, and we would respectfully call the Minister's attention to the suggestion.

THE *Institut Géographique de Paris*, we notice, has just issued a Map of the World prepared by M. E. Lavasseur, and published in four sheets at a cost of \$3.50, which possesses so many features of excellence as to make it an object of interest and a desirable possession to Canadian teachers who seek to have efficient tools with which to work.

In the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society for the present month, we find the following notice of the map, which we transcribe for the information of our readers. The *critique* says:—

"This is a map of the Physical and Political Geography of the World, the physical features of which are very clearly shewn. There are seven diagrams which indicate the comparative areas of the oceans, continents and their populations, human races, and religions, the commerce of the several continents and their principal divisions, together with the length of their existing railways; in addition to these, are given contours of each of the great divisions of the earth, sections of the ocean bottoms, rain, wind, and temperature charts; the comparative lengths of all the principal rivers of the World, the principal projects of inter-oceanic canals, plan of the Isthmus of Suez, etc., as well as the different scales of measurement of England, France, Germany and Russia. It is seldom that any one map contains so much information, and the bold style in which it is coloured is well adapted for educational purposes."

THE CONFERENCE OF ENGLISH HEAD-MASTERS.

The annual conference of head-masters was held at Eton, England, on December 19 and 20, under the presidency of Dr. Hornby. The first subject brought forward was the Teaching of Modern Languages papers on which, by Mr. Bowen, of Harrow, and Mr. Bull, of Marlborough, had been already circulated among members of the conference. The opener of the discussion held that the disciplinary value of French and German was similar in kind, but inferior in degree, to that of classical training; that if an average boy, with comparatively short time for study, were trained in modern languages, his attainments, besides being practically useful, were more likely to serve as a basis for future study; and that scholarly, intellectual teaching was indispensable. In the course of the discussion, Dr. Butler pointed out the difference between the intellectual effort required to turn English into a modern language and that demanded by the writing of Latin prose. The latter he

characterized as a "macadamising" process, and illustrated the difficulty by suggesting for translation a passage from an election speech of Mr. Disraeli's:—"The spirit of the age points to unrestricted competition, and no statesman can withstand the genius of his epoch." He also charmed his audience by illustrating the value of original composition in modern languages from 'Villette,' and from the personal experience of Charlotte Brontë as related by Mrs. Gaskell. Then followed a short but animated discussion of Dr. Lyon Playfair's Bill for the Registration of Teachers. On the one side, it was urged that it was the thin edge of the wedge that might imperceptibly extend the range of Government interference and encroach on the independence of the higher schools; on the other, attention was called to the real danger to the community from the present state of things, when any person, however illiterate, may open a school, and to the long-continued and earnest efforts of private schoolmasters to obtain the protection and the professional *status* which a measure like that organizing the medical profession would afford. On Friday, after the report of the committee, including a letter from Mr. Oscar Browning, on the work of the Cambridge Syndicate for the training of teachers, had been read, the conference passed to the question of Entrance Scholarships at the Universities. The committee had recommended limitation of such scholarships to £50 for two years, to be continued if the scholar deserved it by his work at college, and to be augmented in case of poverty. They also desired that competitions should be less frequent. The discussion was the most animated of the meeting, and shewed how important a factor in the life of schools the competition for college scholarships has become. That it has opened the doors of the universities to many deserving men, that it has largely contributed, by the infusion of new blood, to the present vigorous life of the universities themselves, and that it has acted as a healthy stimulus to the schools, is undeniable. But is there no danger lest, on the one hand, the aims of

the schoolmaster should be vulgarized, and lest, on the other, the higher education should be looked upon as an expensive luxury which a lad of narrow means can only pursue by the aid of endowments, spent rather to lighten his personal expenses than to improve the teaching he receives? The meeting concluded with an eloquent tribute from Dr. Butler to the past glories of Eton, and anticipations of an equally glorious future (*sua si bona norint*), which those who were privileged to hear it will not easily forget.—*The Academy*.

SOME FACTS ABOUT THE HAMILTON SCHOOLS.

The earliest official data of the Public Schools of Hamilton go back to 1847, a period of thirty-two years. At that time the city was divided into six school sections, in each of which there was one school-house containing one room, where all the pupils assembled were taught by one teacher. One of these schools was described as good, four as middling, and one as inferior. Two of the houses were 13 feet by 20 feet, and two 22 feet by 24 feet. The houses were all frame buildings, and not one of them was held in fee-simple; four were in ordinary repair, and two in bad repair; all were, according to the idea of the time, suitably furnished with desks and seats; four with proper facilities for ventilation; not one had a playground. Of these six school buildings, one alone was owned by the Board, others were rented for school purposes. School library, maps and apparatus had not yet been thought of. There were at this time no fewer than twenty-eight private schools in Hamilton.

In 1850 the central system was introduced, and preparations for erecting the Central School commenced; but it was not until the 3rd May, 1853, that the Central School Building was opened; its fourteen rooms were supposed capable of containing the school-going population of Hamilton for ten years to come. How near the truth this supposition was, the following statements will shew:—In 1850 there were the Central and

six primary schools in operation, and the staff numbered thirty, including a principal, a classical master, a writing master, and a music master. In 1857 the school population was estimated at 5,500; the whole number registered was 4,702; the average daily attendance for the separate and public schools was 1,790, a percentage of registration on school population of 86, and a percentage of average attendance on registration of 38.1. In the public schools alone that year the number on the roll was 3,307, the daily average attendance 1,400, shewing the percentage of attendance on registration to be 42.3.

The present session marks the inauguration of a new system. For school purposes the city is divided into four districts, in each of which there is a Central School. Over each district is placed a head master, who has supervision not only of his own school, but also of the primary schools attached to the Central School of the district.

On completing the course of study prescribed for these schools, the pupils pass, by examination conducted by Government, into the Collegiate Institute, where all the subjects of study prescribed by the Minister of Education for High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are taught. The general management of all these schools is entrusted to the Principal of the Collegiate Institute, who acts under the authority of the Board of Education.

The number of children enrolled for the past year was about 7,500, the average attendance about 4,500; the number of teachers employed in the Public Schools 95; in the Collegiate Institute 18, none of whom are occasional teachers or monitors.

The district schools of the city are inspected semi-annually by the County Inspector, whose duty it is to see that the Public Schools of the city are conducted in harmony with the regulations issued by the Minister of Education.

The advantages claimed for the present organization of the Hamilton schools are: unity of aim in their conduct and management, and consequently greater harmony in the working of classes, uniformity of text

books, and the withdrawal of less of the teaching power of the staff for mere supervision.—*Communicated.*

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

MR. H. L. RICE, M.A. (Victoria College, Cobourg), has been appointed Assistant Classical Master at the Galt Collegiate Institute.

DR. SPENCER, recently Science Master in the Hamilton Collegiate Institute, has just been appointed to the chair of Chemistry and Natural Science in King's College, Windsor.

MR. JAMES MILLER, late of Oshawa, has succeeded Mr. Tilley in the charge of the Bowmanville High School. Mr. Tilley has been installed as Principal of the High School at Lindsay.

MR. SAMUEL WOODS, M.A., formerly principal of the Kingston Collegiate Institute, succeeds the late Professor Mackerras in the chair of Classics in Queen's University. Mr. Woods' many friends will be glad to hear of his resumption of educational work.

PAKENHAM High School has been closed by order of the Minister of Education, owing, it is said, to the failure of its trustees to supply suitable accommodation. This charge is resented by the local trustees, and the reports of the Inspectors, which led to the Minister's action, are taken exception to.

AT the Christmas Examinations of the Lindsay High School Mr. R. L. Dobson, the Principal, was presented by the pupils and ex-pupils of the school with a gold watch, valued at \$120, as a testimonial of their regard and esteem. In view of the severance of the relations hitherto existing between master and pupil—the result of the circumstances commented upon in a recent number of *THE MONTHLY*—this act of the pupils of the school was an exceedingly kind and considerate one.

THE decision of the Toronto School Board to open Night Schools, for the use of children whose necessities compel them to

work during the day, has been proved by experiment to have been an exceedingly happy one. The success of the project, in the initial experiments of the Board, has been most gratifying. So large was the attendance that schools in other sections of the city are about to be opened, and the staff of teachers increased in all of them. The trustees of the Separate Schools, we notice, are about to make a similar experiment.

At the recent meeting of the South Simcoe Teachers' Association, at Beeton (the Rev. Wm. McKee, B.A., Public School Inspector, in the chair), Mr. W. Williams, M.A., Principal of the Collingwood Collegiate Institute, delivered an excellent and entertaining lecture on "Public Opinion," and an address on "English Literature for Third-Class Teachers." At the convention a resolution was passed recommending the use by teachers of CAMPBELL'S SWINTON'S LANGUAGE LESSONS, and, at the same time, the claims of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, "as a journal owned by and published in the interest of the profession," were heartily advocated by its friends.

LITERARY JOTTINGS.

A SUGGESTIVE little *brochure*, from the pen of Prof. Meiklejohn, of St. Andrews' University, on "The problem of Teaching to Read," has just reached us from Messrs. W. & R. Chambers of Edinburgh.

MESSRS. NELSON & SONS have recently issued an Epitome of the History of the Times, with the title of "The Nineteenth Century." The work is prepared by Robert Mackenzie, whose earlier compilations in Education and History make his name familiar to us.

FROM Messrs. Copp, Clark & Co., we have received the issue, for 1880, of that indispensable reference book, the *Canadian Almanac*. As a handy-book of Canadian statistics and facts, the publication is irreplaceable. We find it so useful that our constant aspiration is for more of it.

MESSRS. BLACKIE & SON have just added to their comprehensive School series, a work in Algebra, up to and including Simultaneous Equations of the First Degree, intended for the use of senior pupils and pupil teachers.

"THE American Journal of Philology," edited by Professor Gildersleeve, of the Johns-Hopkins University, and to contain communications from leading scholars in all departments of Philology, is announced. Messrs. Macmillan, of London and New York, are to be the publishers.

A HANDY interleaved edition, with Anthon's notes and vocabulary, of "The 2nd, 3rd, and 4th Orations of Cicero against Catiline" has just been brought out by the Canada Publishing Co. (James Campbell & Son), Toronto. The work has the triple merit of usefulness, neatness, and cheapness.

WE are in receipt of the Annual Reports of the Superintendent of Education for the Province of Quebec, and of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario. In the present number we must content ourselves with acknowledging the courtesy of their transmission to us, promising to notice them at some length in our next issue.

THE Rev. Dr. Cobban Brewer has just compiled an indispensable book of reference to students of English Literature. It is entitled "The Reader's Hand-Book of Allusions, References, Plots, and Stories," and is issued by Messrs. Chatto & Windus, London, and J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

A NEW edition of Goodwin's Greek Grammar has just been issued by Messrs. Macmillan, of London and New York. The London *Athenaeum* speaks of it as "the best Greek Grammar of its size in the English language," a verdict which all who are familiar with it in its earlier edition will be apt to give in its favour. Much new matter is added in the work on the Inflection of the Verb, the Formation of Words, and on Versification, while the Indexes fill thirty pages, and the catalogue of verbs is nearly doubled.

MESSRS. JAMES CAMPBELL & SON have acquired the Ontario Agency of the Rev. Professor McVicar's recent text-books on Arithmetic, and will bring out editions of them at once. The same house is also about to bring out a Canadian edition of Morrell's *Manual of Spelling*, the English edition of which has had a remarkable sale.

MESSRS. COPP, CLARK & CO. announce a new work by Prof. Cherriman, late of Toronto University, assisted by Mr. Alfred Baker, M.A. Its subject is "Plane Trigonometry, as far as the Solution of Triangles." Coming from so high a source as it does, the work will be looked for with eagerness by the profession.

WE are in receipt from Mr. W. Warwick, the Canadian publisher, of the second number of the new volume of the "Boy's Own Paper," issued by the Religious Tract Society, London. We repeat what we have previously said of the work, that it is a periodical that can be heartily and conscientiously commended to young lads, and we trust that it will make its way in this country and displace the vicious literature which too often is to be found in the hands of Canadian youth.

THE season brings to hand, thanks to the enterprise of the book-importing house of Messrs. James Campbell & Son, the favourite annual volumes of the British serials, the *Children's Friend*, the *Infant's Magazine*, the *British Workman*, and the *Band of Hope Review*, whose attractive pictures and wholesome reading bespeak for them entrance into every Canadian household. A conning over of the new volumes is an education to every sense. The youth of the present generation may felicitate themselves on the possession of literary and artistic material in these issues of rare excellence.

MESSRS. W. & A. K. JOHNSTON, the celebrated Edinburgh Map Publishers, have begun the issue of a series of Geography Primers, illustrated with maps, the first five of which deal with the several continents. The series will bear the title of the Pupil-Teacher's

Geographical Year-Books. The same house has just published a "Biological Atlas," for Colleges and Schools, containing 24 plates, and over 400 coloured figures and diagrams illustrative of subjects in Natural History, Physiology, etc. The work is compiled by Prof. McAlpine, Lecturer in Botany, Natural History and Biology in Edinburgh.

A WORK on "The Elements of Natural Philosophy," for the use of Schools and Academies, by Edward J. Houston, A.M. (Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro., \$1.25), has just reached us. In the book a teacher has materials, collected and arranged in good shape, for a pleasant talk with his scholars on common things, from a popular standpoint. Nothing is attempted from the mathematical point of view.

A TEXT-BOOK on "The Art of Speech, with Studies in Poetry and Prose," by Prof. Townsend, of Boston, has just appeared with the imprimatur of Messrs. D. Appleton & Co. Besides giving a history of speech, with theories of its origin and a statement of its laws, the work contains chapters on diction and idiom, syntax, grammatical and rhetorical rules, style, figures, poetic speech, prose speech, and poetic-prose speech. It forms one of a series of text-books in the Chautauqua course.

FROM Messrs. Harper Bros., New York, we are in receipt of two volumes of essays on Greek poetry, entitled "Studies on the Greek Poets." Their author is Mr. J. Adlington Symonds, whose monograph on "Shelley," for Mr. Morley's series of "English Men of Letters," was so admirably done. "To bring Greek literature home to the general reader, and to apply to the Greek poets the same sort of criticism as that which modern poetry receives," is the purpose Mr. Symonds has had in view in writing these essays. In these closing pages of our present issue we can only indicate the above aim of the writer, and meantime commend the work to the notice of our readers. We shall review the volumes in our next.

THE subject for the examination of Teachers in the University of Cambridge, for 1880, is Education, and the Pitt Press, Cambridge, is about to issue a work entitled "Some Thoughts concerning Education," by John Locke, edited by the Rev. Professor Quick, as a *coach* to the subject.

A VOLUME of "Questions and Answers in Political Economy" adapted to the Oxford Pass and Honour and the Cambridge Ordinary B. A. Examinations has just appeared. Instructive references are made in the work to the writings of the Political Economists Adam Smith, Ricardo, Mill, Fawcett, Thorold Rogers, Bonamy Price and others.

THE second part, Dor.-Lit., of the Rev. W. W. Skeat's scholarly "Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" has just been issued by Messrs. Macmillan. The work should be in the library of, at least, every English master in our schools. It will be completed in four parts at \$2.50 each. A review of the first instalment will be found in THE MONTHLY for May-June last.

MR. JAMES VICK, the well-known seedsman and nurseryman of Rochester, N. Y., favours us with a copy of his annual "Floral Guide" for the present year, the elegant illustrations and instructive letter-press of which will charm anyone who dips into its pages. Teachers could scarcely have a better text-book on Botany in their hands than this, and they would do an educational service as well as aid in extending the love of the beautiful in nature, if they were to devote some patch of the school play-ground to the cultivation of flowers, and take Mr. Vick into their confidence to enable them most successfully to do this.

THE financial straits of the Government of the Province of Quebec having necessitated the discontinuance of the official *Journal de l'Instruction Publique*, the publishing house of MM. Rolland & Fils, of Montreal, has just launched the first number of the *Journal de l'Education*, with the intention of supplying the place of the defunct official publication. While sincerely dis-

posed to welcome most publishing enterprises in the interest of education in the country, we cannot go into diatribes over the advent of this new applicant for professional favour. Somehow, the educationists of the sister Province do not seem yet to have caught the idea of what an educational serial ought to be. Even its name, a *journal*, is a misnomer. It may not yet, however, have cast itself adrift from the official surroundings of its prototype, and subsequent issues may prove more acceptable.

OF a totally different character is the publication that reaches us from the neighbouring "ambitious" city of Hamilton, bearing the title of *The School Magazine*, with the imprint of The Collegiate Institute. The publication, in its present form, is the development of a magazine conducted for some years back by an enterprising literary organization connected with the Hamilton Collegiate Institute, and which has hitherto appeared quarterly. Its dress and typographical appearance closely resembles THE MONTHLY, upon which it is admittedly modelled, and for that reason, if for no other, *The School Magazine* has strong claims upon professional support. Independently of its attractive mechanical appearance, however, the new venture has substantial merit, and may confidently appeal for support to the educationists of Canada, in whose practical interests it enlists ability and enthusiasm, and what is of equal importance in such enterprises, judgment and literary skill. From not altogether a selfish motive, we might have wished that our contemporary had not made its appearance as a monthly for a year or two hence, as the field in Canada is still but a limited one to give support to another professional journal of high character. But enthusiasm and enterprise are contagious influences, and the success of THE MONTHLY, in the high path it has struck out for itself, was doubtless too inciting to restrain emulation or to repress endeavour. However this may be, in the cause in which it appears, *The School Magazine* has at least our good words.