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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

JUNE-JULY, 1900.

EDUCATION IN TASMANIA.

BY INSPECTOR G. J. McCORMAC.

TASMANIA is a large island lying to the south west of Australia. It is 240 miles long and 200 miles wide. Its area is 26,215 square miles, so it is nearly as large as the Province of New Brunswick. It was discovered by Tasman on December 1, 1642, and named by him Van Diemen's Land, which name was afterwards changed in honor of the discoverer. It was first settled in 1803 by soldiers and convicts from Sydney, New South Wales. It has had a steady growth since 1817, and now has a population of about 150,000. The surface is hilly, and the coast indented with fine bays and harbors. The climate is mild and healthy, and the soil fruitful. Agriculture, mining and whale fishing are the leading occupations. In the western part of the island are large coal beds. There are two cities, Hobart and Launceston. Hobart, which is the capital, has a population of twenty-five thousand. It is beautifully situated on the river Derwent, which flows into Storm Bay, on the south-east of the island. Launceston, with a population of seventeen thousand, is situated on the north side of the island. The school system of Tasmania resembles very closely the system of

education followed in the Australian colonies. The head of the Education Department is a Minister of the Crown, designated the Minister of Education. The other officers are the Director of Education, inspectors and teachers. All officers of the department are appointed and removed by the Governor-in-Council at pleasure.

A State School may be established in any locality where, after due inquiry, the Minister of Education shall be satisfied that there are at least twenty children of five years of age and upwards who will regularly attend such school at its establishment. When the average daily attendance of children at any State School shall have fallen, for a period of six months, below the number of twenty, such school shall thereupon be classed as a Provisional School. Provisional Schools may be maintained or established by the Minister in remote and thinly-populated districts, and in districts where from any cause it is expedient to establish or maintain schools, the Minister may appoint itinerant teachers to visit such places. If the parents or other residents of any locality apply to the Minister for the establishment of a

night school, the Minister, upon the recommendation of the Board of Advice for the district, may establish such night school. The Minister may, if he sees fit, establish Model Schools in any locality he may approve of, and, in every such school special provision shall be made for the training of teachers both male and female; and the teachers so trained shall be classified according to their attainments and skill in teaching, and shall receive certificates corresponding thereto. The Minister determines from time to time what shall be the maximum number of children allowed to attend any school, and whenever the number of children for whom the right to attend any school is claimed shall exceed the maximum number so determined, the prior right of attendance shall in the first place belong to the children whose homes are nearer to such school than to any other school; but no child of the age of ten years who shall have begun attendance for two years at a school shall be compelled to leave such school. When there is no other school within a distance of five miles no child shall be refused admission to or be entitled to claim exemption from attendance at any school by reason of the attendance of children at such school temporarily exceeding the set maximum.

The parents of children, if not less than seven years nor more than thirteen years of age, must cause such children to attend school on each day in every week in each year while the school is open unless just cause of exemption is shown. Any of the following reasons is held as a just cause of exemption:

(1) That the child is being regularly and efficiently instructed in some other manner. (2) That the child

has been prevented from attending school by sickness, danger of infection, temporary or permanent infirmity, or any unavoidable cause. (3) That the parent needs the assistance of the child at home, or in providing for the support of the family during some portion of any week; but absence of any child from school must not in any week exceed two school days. (4) That there is no school within a radius of two miles, or such greater distance as may from time to time be fixed by the Board of Advice for the district, measured from the residence of such child. (5) That the child has been educated up to the compulsory standard of education. In this cause exemption only applies to the case of a child who has attained the age of eleven years. The compulsory standard of education means and includes proficiency in reading, writing and arithmetic to the satisfaction of an inspector of schools. When a child reaches this standard he receives a certificate to that effect, signed by the inspector. (6) That the child has been exempted from attendance by the Board of Advice for the district, and that the period of such exemption has not expired. Parents neglecting to send a child to school, and not having just cause of exemption, may be brought before any two Justices of the Peace and fined a sum not exceeding five shillings for the first offence, and not exceeding twenty shillings for every succeeding offence.

Free passes are issued on the Government railways to children who utilize the railway in going to and returning from school, provided that such school shall be the one nearest by railway to the residence of the parents of such children.

The province is divided into 42 school districts, containing a total

of 280 schools. To each district is appointed by the Governor a Board of Advice, consisting generally of seven members. The powers and duties of the Board of Advice are (1) To suspend any teacher for misconduct in cases not admitting of delay, and to report immediately the cause of such suspension to the Minister of Education; (2) to exercise general supervision over the schools in the district, to visit the schools from time to time, to inspect the school registers, and to record the number of children present, and to report to the Minister twice a year the condition of the school houses, books, furniture and other appliances, and whether new schools are required; (3) to be held responsible for the safe keeping of the school furniture and appliances, and the proper cleansing of the school-room; (4) to cause any necessary small repairs to the school-house to be effected; (5) to cause fuel to be supplied; (6) to use every endeavor to induce parents to send their children regularly to school; (7) to grant exemptions from attendance at school to any child or children for any period not exceeding four consecutive weeks. Besides the duties mentioned here, the Boards of Advice have several minor duties to perform.

The cost of the erection and repairs of school houses, teachers' dwellings and art offices, of the purchase of school sites and of generally carrying on educational work in the colony, are defrayed out of moneys provided by Parliament.

In all schools the teaching is strictly non-sectarian, but a portion of time not exceeding an hour in any one day in each week is set apart when the children of any one religious persuasion may be instructed by the clergyman or other religious teacher of such persuasion, but in

all cases the children receiving such religious instruction are separated from the other pupils of the school. If two or more clergymen of different persuasions desire to give religious instruction at any school, the children of each such different persuasion are instructed on different days. In case of the non-attendance of any clergyman or religious teacher during any portion of the period agreed to be set apart for religious instruction, such period is then devoted to the ordinary secular instruction in such school. No child is required to receive any religious instruction if his parents object to such instruction being given.

By studying the principal statistics furnished by the Department of Education during the last ten years we get a very good idea of the growth of educational facilities provided and also of the general outlook of education in the colony. The last decade gives an increase in the number of State Schools of 63 (217 to 280) or 29 per cent.; but the expenditure has not increased to the same extent, for, comparing 1892 with 1897, we find that, in spite of the larger number of schools in the latter year, the Department expenditure was less by £984; that is, while 246 schools cost £37,654 in 1892, 280 schools cost £36,670 in 1897.

While during the last ten years the number of schools increased from 217 to 280, the gross enrolment increased from 17,125 to 21,763, and the average number in daily attendance from 8,730 to 12,040. The percentage of average daily attendance during the same period was on an average 72.04 per cent.; the average amount of school funds expended on each scholar reckoned on average number on rolls was £2 8s. 8d., and reckoned on average number in daily attendance was £3 7s. 8d.

The pupils in the State Schools

pay small tuition fees; but in cases where the parents are not able to pay the fees the children are educated free of charge. Last year the free scholars numbered 2,418, and the school fees collected by the teachers amounted to £9,934 2s. 11d., being an increase of nearly £140 over the collections of the previous year.

Last year there were fourteen night schools for men and boys over age in operation, with a total of 136 scholars. Besides the Government Schools there are 187 Private Schools, attended by 8,691 pupils.

In 1895 it was found that 4,800 did not attend any school. Last year it was estimated that those who have not been under instruction at any time during their childhood did not then exceed two thousand.

The 280 Government Schools open at the end of the last school year may be classed as follows:

1. Full-time schools—	
(a) With normal average attendance of 20 or more scholars.....	197
(b) Provisional Schools.....	39
(c) Assisted Schools.....	11
2. Half-time schools.....	30
3. One-third time schools....	3
	280

Last year the average number of pupils on the rolls from month to month was 16,125; 34 per cent. of these were in Grade I., 19 per cent. in Grade II., 19 per cent. in Grade III., 14 per cent. in Grade IV., 9 per cent. in Grade V., and 5 per cent. in Grade VI.; 24 per cent. were 4 years of age; 2.37 per cent., 5 years; 6.79 per cent., 6 years; 10.57 per cent., 7 years; 12.90 per cent., 8 years; 13.87 per cent., 9 years; 13.85 per cent., 10 years; 12.87 per cent., 11 years; 11.68 per cent., 12 years; 8 per cent., 13 years; and 6.86 per cent., 14 years or over.

Teachers' salaries are on the decrease. The head teachers of the largest schools now receive from £300 to £450; some few years ago they received from £500 to £700 per annum. In 1897, 2 head teachers received salaries above £400; 4 received salaries of between £300 and £400; 16 received salaries of between £200 and £300; 35, salaries of between £150 and £200; 100, salaries of between £100 and £150; 82, salaries of between £70 and £100; 11, salaries of between £60 and £70; 10, salaries of between £50 and £60; 8, salaries of between £40 and £50; and 2 received salaries of between £30 and £40. Of the 244 head teachers employed by the department, 170 are males. The highest salary paid a male head teacher was £416 9s. 2d., the lowest £52 10s. 11d. The highest salary paid a female head teacher was £127 18s., the lowest £35 4s. 3d.

A few years ago a "Penny Savings System" was established for the encouragement of thrift among school children, but as yet it seems that not many teachers have shown much interest in it. According to the last returns sent to the Education Office, accounts have been opened in 97 schools. The total deposits of the year 1897 were £202 18s. The withdrawals during the year were £62 11s. 6d., leaving £346 5s. 2d. of a balance on deposit at the end of the year.

Tasmania is divided into two inspectorial districts, the northern and the southern. One inspector has his headquarters at Hobart; the other at Launceston.

The visits to State Schools during 1897 are thus tabulated:

Visits by—	
Members of Boards of Advice.....	839
Ministers of Religion to impart instruction.....	1823

The Director of Education.	41
Mr. Inspector Masters (Northern District).....	214
Mr. Inspector Lovell (South- ern District).....	284
Hobart Truant Officer	336
Launceston Truant Officer.	285
Other persons	823
<hr/>	
Total.....	4645

The truant officers also made 1,737 visits to Private Schools.

The subjects taught in the Primary Schools are :

1. Essential Subjects—(a) Reading, (b) Writing, (c) Arithmetic
2. Secondary Subjects—(a) Geography, (b) Grammar, (c) English History, (d) Sacred History, (e) Elementary Science, (f) Object Lessons, (g) Freehand Drawing, (h) Needlework, (i) Drill, (j) Physical Exercises.

Tasmania has a university, but is devoid of Secondary Schools. The following extract from the last published report of Inspector Lovell very clearly points out the necessity for High Schools as a link between the Primary Schools and the College : " On the whole there are clear evidences that a valuable service is being rendered to the community by our State Schools. They by no means undertake to supply all that is necessary for a liberal education, much less to provide a mental equipment for any particular calling in life. What is attempted—and nothing more can be attempted—is to lay the indispensable foundation of all education. For the purpose in view the curriculum of State Schools is liberal enough, and, under all the limitations of the case, cannot well be extended. Primary schools are not institutions for cramming children with " useful knowledge ;" their highest aim is, or should be, to help young people to realize their faculties and to stimu-

late the desire for education. What is really wanted to secure the full function of an elementary school work is some State provision in the way of secondary education, not on mediæval, but on modern lines. There are numbers of parents able to support their children for two or three years after the completion of their State School course, who would rejoice to secure for them, at a small fee, the opportunity of obtaining advanced instruction. Nor would I disregard the case of those boys and girls who are under the necessity of " going out to work " at an early age ; for such as these similar teaching might be provided in night classes. The oracular dictum one sometimes hears, that " the State has fulfilled its duty when it has provided efficient Primary Schools," cannot be regarded as a tenable objection to the pleas for higher education. State intervention at all in the matter of education rests simply upon a strong ground of expediency, and this being so, expediency alone can determine how far State education should extend ; at all events it is quite arbitrary to draw a line at the elementary school system and say, " thus far and no farther." But, in fact, the justification for the State provision of higher education is already conceded virtually by the public endowment of a University, only we are at present in the position of an eccentric person who spent much money in making a ladder, but who refused to have any middle rungs put into it. Our educational ladder is similarly defective ; it has its lower rungs, and every one may mount them ; and it has its upper rungs, but they are of use only to those who have their own means and appliances for reaching them.

The Director of Education, in his

report for 1896, thus spoke in reference to secondary education: "It is to be hoped that when funds are available a scheme of secondary education will be adopted—one that will be within the reach of all scholars who may be found educated up to a maximum standard in the State Schools or elsewhere, and will enable such scholars to acquire not only the knowledge of history, politics and literature that a citizen in a free country ought to have, but also such elementary knowledge of science and such training of the eye and hand as may enable them to learn easily and quickly the principles that underlie any special industrial pursuit or profession, toward which they may have a natural bent, and in which they may find openings."

THE DAVIS SALARY SCHEDULE.*

FULL TEXT OF THE NEW LAW REGULATING THE PAY OF TEACHERS IN NEW YORK CITY.

ALL moneys raised for educational purposes in the city of New York shall be raised in two funds, to be known as the special school fund and the general school fund, respectively.)

The general school fund shall consist of all moneys raised for the payment of salaries of the borough and associate superintendents and all members of the supervising and the teaching staff, throughout all boroughs, in conformity with section ten hundred and ninety-one of this Act.

The special school fund shall contain and embrace all moneys raised for educational purposes not comprised in the general school fund.

(It shall be the duty of the board of estimate and apportionment and of the municipal assembly to indicate in the budget in raising the special school fund the respective amounts thereof which shall be available for use in the territory within the jurisdiction of each of the school boards.

The general school fund shall be raised in bulk, and for the city at

large, and shall) be apportioned to the several boroughs by the board of education, as hereinafter provided.

The board of education shall have power to take and to receive, and shall take and receive, all moneys appropriated or available for educational purposes in the city of New York, which moneys shall be paid over to said board by the comptroller on the request of said board from time to time in such sums as shall be required, and the auditor of said board shall transmit to the department of finance each month duplicate vouchers for the payment of all sums of money made on account of the department of education each month.

(The board of education shall represent the schools and the school system of the city of New York before the board of estimate and apportionment, and before the municipal assembly, in all matters of appropriations in the budget of the city for educational purposes, and in all other matters, and shall in general be the representative of the

*The matter enclosed in parentheses is the unchanged portion of the old law; the rest is new. Whatever has been omitted from the old law is not given here. This represents, accordingly, the full text of the Davis law.

school system of the city in its entirety.)

In the month of July in each year each school board shall transmit to the board of education an estimate in detail of the moneys needed for the purposes of the general school fund within the territory under its jurisdiction during the next succeeding calendar year.

(The board of education shall, thereupon, re-state, re arrange, revise and verify such estimates) and shall have power, in its discretion, to amend or reduce the same, and thereupon shall submit, together with a written memorandum of any such amendment or reduction so made by the said board of education and the reason for making the same, (an estimate for the entire school system of the city, to the board of estimate and apportionment for its action).

Any amendment to or reduction of the estimate of any school board which shall be made by the board of education shall not preclude the right of the board of estimate and apportionment, after a proper hearing, to restore to its original form such estimate.

The board of estimate and apportionment shall appropriate for the general school fund for the year nineteen hundred and one, and annually for each year thereafter amount equivalent to not less than four mills on every dollar of assessed valuation of the real and personal estate in the city of New York, liable to taxation, inclusive of so much of the state school moneys apportioned by the superintendent of public instruction for the payment of teachers' wages as is actually paid into the said general school fund.

(The special school fund shall be administered by the board of education.

The general school fund shall be

administered by the respective school boards, and) in the month of December in each year (shall be apportioned) for the next succeeding calendar year (by the board of education among the different school boards of the city as follows :

1. A distributive quota to each school board of six hundred dollars for every qualified teacher, or for successive qualified teachers, who shall have actually taught in the Public Schools under the charge of the board during a term of not less than thirty-two weeks of five successive days each, inclusive of legal holidays.

2. The remainder of such general school fund shall be apportioned among the said school boards by the said board of education in proportion to the aggregate number of days of attendance of the pupils of the Public Schools resident in the boroughs under their charge, between the ages of four and twenty-one (years, at their respective schools, during the last preceding school year.

The aggregate number of days of attendance of the pupils is to be ascertained from the records thereof kept by the teachers, as hereinafter prescribed, by adding together the whole number of days of attendance of each and every such pupil in the schools under the charge of the respective school boards.)

One day of attendance shall be counted for every child who attends one full day or one full session, either forenoon or afternoon.

Between the first and fifteenth days of January in each and every year (the board of education shall file a record of its apportionment of the general school fund with the comptroller).

The board of education shall have power to adopt by-laws fixing the

salaries of the borough and associate superintendents, and all members of the supervising and the teaching staff, and the salaries of all principals and teachers shall be regulated by merit, grade of class taught, length of service, experience in teaching, or by such a combination of these considerations as said board may deem proper.

Such by laws shall establish a uniform schedule of salaries for the supervising and the teaching staff throughout all boroughs which schedule shall provide for an equal annual increment of salary of such an amount, that no kindergartner, or female teacher of a girls' class other than those teaching grades of the last two years in the elementary schools shall after sixteen years of service in said schools, receive less than twelve hundred and forty dollars per annum; and no female teacher of a girls' class of the grades of the last two years in said schools, shall, after fifteen years of service in said schools, receive less than thirteen hundred and twenty dollars per annum; and no female teacher of a girls' graduating class, female first assistant, or female vice-principal, shall, after ten years of service in said schools, receive less than fourteen hundred and forty dollars per annum; and no female teacher of a boys' or a mixed class shall receive less than sixty dollars per annum more than a female teacher of a girls' class of corresponding grade and of years of service; and no female teacher in said elementary schools shall receive less than six hundred dollars per annum, nor shall the annual increment for any female teacher therein be less than forty dollars; and no male teacher of a class of the grades of the last two years in said schools, shall, after twelve years of service in said schools, receive less than twenty one

hundred and sixty dollars per annum; and no male teacher of a graduating class, male first assistant, or male vice principal shall, after ten years of service in said schools, receive less than twenty-four hundred dollars per annum; and no male teacher in said elementary schools shall receive less than nine hundred dollars per annum, nor shall the annual increment for any male teacher therein be less than one hundred and five dollars; that no female head of department or female assistant to the principal in said schools shall receive less than sixteen hundred dollars per annum after ten years of service; and no male head of department or male assistant to the principal in said schools shall receive less than twenty-four hundred dollars per annum after ten years of service; that in High Schools and Training Schools for teachers, no female junior or substitute teacher, female laboratory or library assistant or female clerk, shall receive less than seven hundred dollars per annum, nor after six years of service as such, less than one thousand dollars per annum; no female model teacher shall receive less than one thousand dollars per annum; nor after five years of service as such, less than fifteen hundred dollars per annum; no female regular teacher in said schools shall receive less than eleven hundred dollars per annum, nor after ten years of service as such, less than nineteen hundred dollars per annum; no female head teacher, female assistant to the principal, female first assistant, or female vice-principal in said schools shall receive less than two thousand dollars per annum, nor after five years of service as such, less than twenty-five hundred dollars per annum; no male junior or substitute teacher, male laboratory or library assistant, or male clerk, shall receive less than

nine hundred dollars per annum, nor after six years of service as such, less than twelve hundred dollars per annum; no male regular teacher in said schools shall receive less than thirteen hundred dollars per annum, nor after ten years of service as such, less than twenty-four hundred dollars per annum; no male head teacher, male assistant to the principal, male first assistant, or male vice principal in said schools, shall receive less than twenty five hundred dollars per annum, nor after five years of service as such, less than three thousand dollars per annum; nor shall any of said persons therein receive a salary less than that to which by reason of experience, such person would be entitled as a teacher of the aforesaid Elementary Schools; provided, however, that none of the aforesaid members of the supervising and the teaching staff of any of the Elementary Schools shall receive a salary greater than that fixed for the seventh year of service unless and until the service of any such member shall have been approved after inspection and investigation as fit and meritorious by a majority of the board of superintendents of the borough in which he or she is employed; that none of the aforesaid members of the supervising and the teaching staff of any of the Elementary Schools shall receive a salary greater than that fixed for the twelfth year of service unless and until the service of any such member shall have been approved after inspection and investigation as fit and meritorious by a majority of the board of superintendents of the borough in which he or she is employed; that none of the aforesaid members of the supervising and the teaching staff of any of the High and Training Schools shall receive a salary greater than that fixed for the fourth year of service unless and

until the service of any such member shall have been approved after inspection and investigation as fit and meritorious by a majority of the board of superintendents of the borough in which he or she is employed; and that none of the aforesaid members of the supervising and the teaching staff of any of the High or Training Schools shall receive a salary greater than that fixed for the ninth year of services unless and until the service of any such member shall have been approved after inspection and investigation as fit and meritorious by a majority of the board of superintendents of the borough in which he or she is employed; and the respective boards of superintendents of the boroughs shall approve or disapprove the service of the aforesaid members of the supervising and the teaching staff in their respective boroughs within forty days before the date on which said members shall respectively become eligible to the increases of salaries conditioned upon the approval of said service.

For the purposes affecting such increases of salaries of said persons in any schools, the principal of such school shall have a seat in the borough board of superintendents with a vote on such fitness and merit; that no female branch principal or female principal of an Elementary School having not less than twelve classes shall receive less than twenty five hundred dollars per annum after ten years of service as such in said schools, and no male branch principal or male principal of an Elementary or a High School having not less than twelve classes shall receive less than thirty five hundred dollars per annum after ten years of service as such in said schools; and a principal of said schools shall receive an equal annual increment of two hundred and fifty dollars; pro-

vided, however, that the service of such principal or branch principal shall have been approved after inspection and investigation as fit and meritorious by a majority of the board of superintendents of the borough in which he or she is employed; and no principal of a High School or Training school for teachers having supervision of not less than twenty-five teachers therein shall receive less than five thousand dollars per annum.

The board of examiners shall issue to a principal or teacher who has had experience in schools other than the schools of the city of New York, or in any part thereof previous to the enactment of the Greater New York charter, a certificate stating that the experience of such teacher is equivalent to a certain number of years of experience in the schools of the said city.

The board of examiners shall issue to a principal or teacher who has had experience in schools other than the High and Training Schools of the city of New York, or in any part thereof previous to the enactment of the Greater New York charter, a certificate stating that the experience of such teacher is equivalent to a certain number of years of experience in the High and Training schools of the said city.

Such certificates made by the board of examiners shall be final and conclusive on all matters pertaining to experience therein stated and shall entitle their holders to salaries in accordance with the schedule of salaries established in conformity with this section, in like manner as though the years mentioned in such certificates had been served in those schools of the city of New York that are respectively mentioned in such certificates.

No salary now paid to any member of the supervising and the teach-

ing staff of any of the Public Schools in the city of New York shall be reduced by the operation of this section and the aforesaid equal annual increment for each class or grade of the supervising and the teaching staff of said Public Schools shall be uniform throughout each class or grade, and each of said persons shall at once receive all the emolument in accordance with the above schedule of minimum salaries to which said person is entitled by reason of merit, of experience and of grade of class taught.

The board of estimate and apportionment is hereby authorized and required to transfer to the general school fund, in addition to any other appropriation which may be available therefor, a sufficient sum of money from any of the unexpended balances, of any appropriations for any of the departments of the city of New York, to provide the necessary funds for carrying into effect the provisions of this section, including such schedule of salaries for the day and evening schools as the board of education shall by its by-laws establish for the calendar year nineteen hundred

In case such unexpended balances shall not be sufficient for such purpose, the board of estimate and apportionment is hereby authorized and required to direct the issue of revenue bonds sufficient to provide for any deficiency of funds that shall still exist, in order to carry into effect all the foregoing and following provisions of this section for the calendar year nineteen hundred.

All members of the supervising and the teaching staff shall be entitled to and shall receive pay for the calendar year nineteen hundred in conformity with the provisions of this section precisely as though the section had been in effect on the first day of January, nineteen hun-

dred, and for such purpose, this section is hereby declared to be and shall be retroactive to and including the first day of January, nineteen hundred. The words "the supervising and the teaching staff," as

used in this section shall not be deemed to include borough and associate superintendents.

(This act shall take effect immediately.)—*The School Journal, N. Y.*

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

By A. KAHN, M.A.

THE question of commercial education opens up at once the whole problem of the curriculum. Thirty years ago the Grammar-school master was scarcely conscious of the existence of such a problem. To him, classics in the morning and mathematics in the afternoon were the dumb-bells and bars by which the constituent parts of the mind were best developed. The faculty psychology alone was the basis of the curriculum. The pupil was by mental gymnastics to be made adaptable for all the duties of life.

Then there came a race of schoolmen who were driven to confess that knowledge itself, knowledge of the world, was a necessary equipment for life. True, they said, it is the function of education to develop all the faculties; we must have mental gymnastics; but, *ceteris paribus*, those subjects of study are to be preferred which not only serve as disciplines, but also impart useful knowledge. Indeed, certain knowledge is so indispensable that the curriculum must find room for it, even in the absence of "disciplinary value." Thus the subjects of study came to be regarded as (a) educational and useful; (b) educational but not useful; (c) useful but not educational.

In such a view of the curriculum the mind is looked upon as consisting of a number of communicating departments—memory, imagination,

observation, judgment, reasoning, emotions, will—the efficiency of each department increasing with its employment. Now, experience shows that the trained powers are not transferable from one field of mental activity to another. You may be a good judge of a horse, but a bad judge of pictures; and yet the process of judging is the same in the one case as in the other. The keenness of observation and sagacity of inference of the horse expert are powers only as long as they are exercised on horses. That a man may reason well in space relations and badly in matters of human conduct is a phenomenon of daily experience. We may be able easily to recall mathematical formulæ without being able to recall melodies and colours. Poetic imagination does not carry with it scientific imagination. The emotions of the epicure are excited by the sight of a festal banquet, whilst poverty and suffering may leave him untouched. My point, then, is this: that the powers of the mind are confined to the spheres of ideas in which they have been developed. And, if this be conceded, it follows that in the determination of the curriculum we have to consider not only what powers, but also what concepts, will contribute to the attainment of the end of education.

There seems no meaning, therefore, in the distinction between educational and useful subjects. The

distinction applies more correctly to method. A number of isolated facts strung together without system form an appendage; they are mere impressions of sound and sight; but, if the facts are acquired by the processes of thought and the ideas are woven into one pattern, the treatment of the subject is *educational*, and power is developed for apperceiving new ideas in the same field. A common instance of un-educational method is to be found in the teaching of elementary algebra, which contents itself with securing manipulation of symbols without aiming at an extension of the concept of number.

The curriculum, I have tried to show, must stand in direct relation to life itself. It is the teacher who must make the curriculum educational; that is to say, it is the teacher who must develop power and cultivate interest in the fields of thought and activity that are covered by the curriculum. Now, a large portion of life consists of the work necessary for our maintenance, and education must, therefore, be incomplete if it does not concern itself with the preparation for the sphere of work which the pupil is to enter. Neither from the ethical nor from the psychological point of view can there be any distinction in kind between that portion of education which prepares him to perform his share of labor with efficiency and that portion which does all the rest to prepare him to live the life of a good citizen of his country and of the world.

If education, then, is to be a complete equipment for life, it must include technical education. I wish to consider this evening the special education demanded by commercial life, and how far Secondary Schools should supply this demand. In dealing with this subject one expe-

riences the difficulty of differentiating the technical from the general, because the qualifications of the ideal man of commerce, as a man of commerce, coincide in a large measure with those which we associate with the ideal citizen. The commercial man is placed in the turmoil of life itself; his operations are by their very nature always shared by others. The whole commercial fabric is based on trust and good faith, and honesty and integrity of character must be from first to last the distinguishing feature of the ideal business man. Preparation for commerce will, therefore, insist with special force on all those elements in education which are closely bound up with the formation of character. Again, much of the knowledge and skill which the man of business requires is furnished by the course of studies planned irrespective of the exigencies of commerce. Arithmetic, English composition, foreign languages, are all subjects of a general curriculum, and at the same time are of direct utility in the office and on the exchange.

Now, we cannot take a survey of the commercial community without being struck with the general ignorance that pervades it. I would suggest the following questions to be put to an average clerk, as a test of his commercial intelligence:

1. What is the effect of writing "not negotiable" across a cheque?
2. Explain the functions of the Clearing House.
3. Say all you know about a bill of lading, a charter party.
4. Explain the currency systems of France, Germany, Austria and the United States.
5. Since when have we had free trade in England? Are there any other European countries at the present day with the free trade system?

6. What has been the effect of the closing of the mints in India upon Chinese trade ?

You would, I am afraid, get very little comfort from the answers. The public generally has an exaggerated idea of the training afforded by business life itself. The ordinary parent believes strongly in taking away his boy from school at fifteen, or even fourteen, and sending him to the office to earn 6s. a week. There is a very large demand for this cheap labor, and head-masters of London schools will tell you that they are continually receiving applications for smart boys who can write neat hands and are quick at figures. But, while the supply of boy labor is scarcely equal to the demand, there is always a crowd of candidates for a clerkship worth 25s. to 30s. a week. The office training has made an unskilled laborer of the boy who wrote a neat hand ; and his labor is a glut on the market. But the potentiality of British commerce offers almost infinite room for men possessed of knowledge and skill, and the problem, therefore, that presses for solution is how to replace the ignorance of to-day by commercial intelligence and power of to-morrow. Let me say at once that I believe that experience itself must always supply an important factor in the equipment for commercial life ; but, under modern conditions, the commercial probationer is his own teacher, and the value of his experience will depend upon the adequacy of his preparation. The inefficiency of the commercial assistant must, therefore, be traced to a deficiency in his education.

I tried to point out at the beginning of my paper that intelligence and interest in a particular pursuit must be developed by disciplines that bear upon the pursuit. This

pedagogical principle has found confirmation, if not expression, in the creation of modern schools and modern sides ; but, unfortunately for commerce, there have been influences at work which have disturbed the balance of the curriculum of these schools, and made but light matter of literary studies. These are of double importance to commerce, for not only do they stand in intimate relation to the training of a morally directed will, but they form a large and essential part of the basis of knowledge directly applicable to commercial questions. A comparison of the English second grade Secondary School with the German *Realschule*, for instance, reveals at once the far higher importance that the latter attaches to the literary side of the curriculum. Taking one of the authorized programmes of the Prussian *Realschule* I find that, on the average, throughout the school the humanities take up more than twice as much time as is allotted to mathematics and the natural sciences. Prussia has no South Kensington and no schools of science. The debt that German commerce owes to education is due largely to the admirable German Secondary School system, in which the modern schools take a prominent place. And I would lay stress also on the excellence of the teaching that is characteristic of German schools. The teacher of the *Realschule* is trained for his work ; his tenure is secure ; he is adequately paid, and provision is made for his old age. Look for a moment at the question of modern language teaching. The report of the Commercial Education Committee of the Technical Education Board tells us : " We are strongly of opinion that modern languages should be taught, as far as possible, as spoken lan-

guages." With this we shall all agree. But whence are we to get the teachers who are themselves fluent linguists? The German modern language master spends a year in England and a year in France. He has every encouragement given him to prolong his training. The English Secondary-School master has no inducement held out to him to spend time and money abroad after the conclusion of his university course. I hope I may be pardoned for referring to so commonplace and mean a thing as money. I do not find it mentioned in reports of conferences on commercial education that have from time to time been held; and the Chamber of Commerce, that has issued elaborate schemes, and offers large prizes and scholarships, seems never to have given a thought to the improvement in the lot of the teacher.

Although the *Realschule* has done much for German commerce, there is a growing feeling that it does not take sufficient cognizance of branches of knowledge that have an immediate bearing on the conduct of business and commercial development. There is an increasing tendency in Germany to establish schools with a greater commercial bias or to add commercial departments to existing schools. In Bavaria, for instance, there are now ten *Realschulen*, in which a modification of the ordinary curriculum is introduced in the last two years of the school course for pupils preparing for commercial life. If it is true of the German modern school that it does not sufficiently cultivate an interest for commerce and higher commercial studies, then it is ten times true of the English modern school, with its strong industrial bent. In our modern Secondary Schools, then, I would urge a bifur-

cation during the last year, or the last two years, into a commercial and an industrial section. In the smaller schools many of the subjects might, of course, be taught in common to the two departments. The course of study that I have in my mind for the commercial department would consist of English literature and composition, history, including a survey of the great periods of the world's history, geography with special regard to its economic side, one or two modern languages, commercial knowledge, including descriptive economics, commercial arithmetic and algebra, geometry and mensuration, chemistry to lead up to the examination of merchantable products, book-keeping. Subjects like shorthand and typewriting I would make optional.

An understanding of the share that commerce contributes to the world's well-being will implant respect for commercial work, and will counteract that baneful and immoral conception of commerce that makes it a mere synonym of money-making. I have before spoken of the paramount importance of character in the business man. I cannot but believe that a right appreciation of the economic nature of his vocation will do something to guard him against the temptation to derive gain by unscrupulous means. We must show that commerce is not gambling, and that it does not consist of giving or receiving illicit commissions. "Economics," then, should find its place in the commercial department; and I would include its study in lessons on general commercial knowledge, which would give some idea of commercial organization, legislation and technique. With this subject of "commercial knowledge" should be co-ordinated

a large portion of the arithmetic. Thus, a discussion on Capital would lead to questions on interest; with the chapter on Companies should go the arithmetic of shares. Bills of Exchange would lead in their train questions on discount and on exchange. With Insurance we should have questions on premiums and annuities. Contracts would lead to calculations in which enter all, or some, of the elements of commission, insurance premium, freight and exchange. Telegraph Codes would take us to questions on combinations and permutations; and so on, and so on.

Commercial arithmetic suffers at present from a want of text books that are in touch with the actuality of transactions. Take, for instance, the little book on "Commercial Arithmetic" by Mr. Taylor, of Nottingham. It has run to a third edition, and is evidently extensively used. The book contains four examples on the finding of simple interest. The first has a period of $3\frac{1}{2}$ years, the second 12 years, the third 57 years, and the fourth $8\frac{1}{2}$ years. If the writer had had any notion of commercial operations, he would, of course, have turned his years into days. Then again, in nearly every example of compound interest we have the absurdity of interest being payable yearly, while the whole amount is made due before the expiration of the year. An example on stocks puts "Goschens" ($2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.) at $96\frac{3}{8}, \frac{7}{8}$; and in a question on exchanges the price of silver is quoted at 5s. per ounce. (The date of the edition before me is 1896) There is a point in this connection which deserves special mention. We have no decimal coinage, but we can make one for the purposes of arithmetic. Facility in decimalizing money and evaluating the decimal is the secret of the commer-

cial ready reckoner. Strange to say, the books that make commercial arithmetic a specialty have all, to my knowledge, failed to grasp the simplicity of the little problem, although as long ago as 1870 Messrs. Sonnenschein and Nesbitt showed that the number of farthings is equal to the number of thousandths of a pound + $\frac{1}{17}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ of that number.

I need not insist on the important part which modern languages must play in the curriculum; but I must part company with those who believe that the teaching of French and German should be mainly occupied with the translation of business letters. This practice in correspondence generally amounts to nothing more than words, words, words. It arouses neither enthusiasm nor interest; it is utterly barren. To sacrifice to this stuff a knowledge of some of the great French and German masterpieces is a cruel injustice to the boys. What I should do, if time permitted, would be to give through the medium of French and German a systematic account of the commercial methods, machinery and important laws of France and Germany.

In the conduct of a commercial form I do see a danger—the danger that its course of studies may degenerate into mechanical routine work. Care would have to be taken that general culture and those disciplines that are the bases of higher commercial studies received their due share; and equal care would have to be taken that the commercial department was not made an asylum for the outcast.

So far I have had in my mind second-grade Secondary Schools only. A system of commercial education will also include evening instruction, first-grade schools, and commercial institutions of university rank. The title of my paper precludes me from

dealing with the functions of evening classes or of the university; but I shall not have completed my subject if I do not say a few words on the higher commercial education suitable for a boy who does not enter business before the age of eighteen. I confess that higher commercial education appeals neither to the average merchant nor to the average parent. It is something, however, that touches the whole nation, its commercial security and commercial development. For you will surely agree with me that in a country like England, with a democratic Government, it is a matter of the greatest concern that the commercial community shall have as leaders, men capable of considering questions of currency, tariffs, taxation, treaties, and of inquiring into the commercial conditions of other countries, their policies and their methods. A proposal has often been made to establish a commercial institute with a two or three years' course. The London Technical Education Board recommends as a substitute the formation of commercial departments in first-grade schools. The advantages that must accrue to a Commercial School that is conducted as part and parcel of an efficient Public School are obvious; but this association will at the same time weaken the support from other schools. The experiment is being made. With the assistance of the London Technical Education Board, we have established a Commercial Department at University College School. To put before you its aim and character I cannot do better than read to you our programme:

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE SCHOOL.

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT.

The minimum age of admission is fifteen. Attainments must be of

standard required for passing one of the following examinations (one modern language being included among the subjects): Cambridge or Oxford Local Senior Pass or Junior Honors; London University Matriculation; C.O.P. First Class. Intermediate L.C.C. scholars will be admitted to the course if they can show a satisfactory knowledge of French or German.

The aim is to prepare (1) for the higher branches of commercial life, (2) for an institution of University rank in the higher branches of industry and commerce. The course is two years in length. At the end of the first year an examination will be held for admission to the second year's course. At the end of the second year's course, the pupils will present themselves for a leaving examination conducted by the Technical Board, on the result of which examination certificates will be granted. The examinations will be partly oral.

COURSE OF STUDY.

English literature and composition, commercial science, economics, commercial arithmetic, commercial history, commercial geography, book-keeping, mathematics.

Two of the following languages: French, German, Spanish, Latin.

Optional: chemistry, shorthand, typewriting, drawing, higher mathematics.

English.—Selected works of English literature, e.g., Bacon's Essays, Burke, Arthur Helps. Essay writing, précis writing, practice in speaking, debates on commercial topics.

Mathematics (first year only).—Algebra: progressions, permutations and combinations, logarithms, annuities, and compound interest. Geometry: Euclid III., IV., VI. Trigonometry: elements up to and

including solution of triangles, with special reference to the processes of surveying.

Arithmetic (first and second year).—Rapid addition, abridged methods of multiplication and division, rapid decimalization of money; application of arithmetic to percentage, proportion, calculation of averages; interest, discount, commission, calculation of present value, C.I.F.; foreign weights and measures, exchange, banking operations, international stock exchange transactions, sinking funds, conversion of loans. Frequent practice in mental arithmetic and casting up of profit and loss.

History.—(1) Short sketch of the industrial and commercial history of antiquity. (2) Commercial and industrial history of the middle ages; centres of commerce; divisions of society in England; Peasants' revolt and economic effects. (3) From the discovery of America up to the invention of the steam engine; special study of the development of England's foreign trade. (4) The industrial revolution.

Geography (first and second year).—Physical geography; elements of geology, especially as regards coal and metals; agricultural, industrial, and commercial geography of the world; British colonies.

Economics (second year only).—Nature, scope and methods of economic science; production and distribution, labor, capital, division of labor, values; free trade and pro-

tection; equilibrium of demand and supply; money; credit; wages; relation of State to labor and trade.

Commercial knowledge (second year only).—The machinery of business. Merchant, trader, &c.: principal, agent, partners; companies, company law, syndicates and trusts; employers' liability; transit by land and water, navigation law; tariffs, banking, bills of exchange and other negotiable instruments; insurance, hypothecation; chambers of commerce and consulates; patents and trade marks; contracts, telegraph codes. To be illustrated by (a) reference to actual reports of commerce and current newspapers (b) visits to docks and large commercial and industrial houses, banks, etc.

Modern Languages.—French and German: Reading of works of travel and industry, economical treatises, descriptive economics; commercial condition of foreign countries taught in the foreign language; commercial correspondence, essays—the foreign language to be used as the vehicle of teaching as far as possible; deciphering of foreign handwriting.

Spanish, Italian: reading, elementary grammar, conversation.

Chemistry; *Shorthand* (Pitman's or Script); *Drawing*: Freehand, drawing to scale.

We have uphill work before us, because we have to convert the parent, the merchant, and perhaps also the schoolmaster.

In a telegraph tournament held in New York, in May, 1898, the winner, W. M. Gibson, in the championship five-minute sending contest, transmitted 254 words, with only one error, and his Morse was said by the judges to be perfect. The highest recorded speed of

legible telegraphy in which the Morse code was used was made in a previous contest, in which 265 words were sent in five minutes. An expert operator can send 35 to 45 words a minute, but a steady working rate of 25 to 30 is regarded as good.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE AND THE TRUANCY ACT.*

By J. H. KNIGHT, P.S. INSPECTOR, LINDSAY.

A FREE School Act implies not only that every child has a right to be educated, but also that every ratepayer has a right to know that every child in the municipality in which he pays taxes is educated.

The truancy Act of 1891 has done much to improve the attendance of children in cities and towns, and possibly in incorporated villages. It provides for the appointment of truant officers in all urban municipalities, and wherever teachers, truant officers and magistrates do their duty the attendance ought to be all that can be reasonably expected.

There is one case, however, in which the Act is weak and could easily be improved, and that is where the absence from school is the fault of the child and not of the parent or guardian; in fact, where the child actually plays truant. To fine or imprison the parent, when he has done all he can do, is not likely to accomplish the end in view. If the child were imprisoned two days for the first offence, two weeks for the second, and received a flogging for the third, very few scholars would stay away of their own accord. It might be better still if the flogging were administered for the first offence.

Whether our legislators supposed that it did not matter whether children attended school in rural sections or not, or whether they wished to see how the Act would work in urban municipalities, it is hard to tell. They provided that trustees of rural schools might appoint truant officers, that is, the appointment was optional. I know of

two cases where such appointments were made, but no good came in either case.

The plan I propose for rural sections supposes that truant officers are not necessary. It also supposes that it is not necessary to notify parents to send their children to school.

The Truancy Act requires the assessor to make a list containing the name, age and residence of every child between the ages of 8 and 14 in the municipality, and the name and residence of each child's parent or guardian, and return the said book to the clerk of the municipality with the assessment roll.

Let the clerk make a copy of the list, dividing the names according to the sections in which the children reside, and furnish the copy to each secretary-treasurer.

Immediately after the 30th day of June, let the secretary-treasurer, with the assistance of the teacher, compare this list with the register. The assessor's list might contain the names of children who had not attended school during the last twelve months. For each such child a fine of \$10 should be entered against the parent or guardian, and for every child who had attended less than 150 days, a fine of five cents for every day the child had been absent from school should be entered against the parent or guardian.

The secretary should notify each party concerned that the fines entered against him would be collected with, and in addition to, all other taxes for which he was liable, unless good cause was shown that the said fine should not be imposed.

There should be two appeals, first

*Read at the Ontario Educational Association, April 18th, 1900.

to the trustees and second to the county judge.

The trustees should hold a public meeting, the time of day to depend on the number of cases. The trustees should have the power to accept the reasons given by parents and remit the fine, provided that any two ratepayers might insist that a case be referred to the county judge.

I should be in favor of accepting the certificate of any medical practitioner that a child was too delicate to attend school. But it might be safer to provide that a majority of the trustees, or any two ratepayers, might require two other doctors to examine a child, at the expense of the section, the opinion of a majority of the doctors to be final.

Whatever applied to physicians and ordinary diseases would apply to opticians and defects of the eye sight

As already hinted, the secretary would return to the clerk the names of parents or guardians, and the fines that had not been remitted by the trustees or the county judge. The clerk would place the amounts on the collector's roll to be col-

lected with the other taxes.

As only a few weeks would intervene between the close of the school term and the making of the collector's roll, the work would require to be done with as little delay as possible.

The fines imposed and collected should be paid to the trustees of the same section, and not into the general fund of the municipality.

The trustees should be required to prepare a list containing the names of all the children in the section between the ages of 8 and 14, who had attended less than 150 days in the year ending June 30th, together with the fines entered, and how disposed of, and this should be read at the annual meeting and form part of the Trustees' Annual Report.

Any trustee or trustees neglecting to perform his or their part with respect to compulsory attendance should be liable to the penalties provided for in sections 101 and 102 of the School Act. And any secretary-treasurer, he not being a trustee, should be liable to the same penalties for neglect of duty as are provided for in the case of trustees.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATION.*

DR. WM. T. HARRIS, NATIONAL COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

AFTER the speech of Dr. Butler, to which you have listened this morning, giving a survey of the movements of the century in the light of former centuries, and after the speech of President Eliot, who holds with an iron grasp the facts of his time and compares them with the highest ethical standard of our civilization, I am sure that every schoolmaster here feels

at least a head taller than before. Doctor Butler has made a magnificent review of the century showing the growth of its spiritual interests. What he says concerns the work of every person present and I presume that there are one thousand "one-man powers" here this morning (including several one-woman powers, too, who are superintendents of cities and even of states).

*A discussion of Dr. Butler's paper at the meeting of Superintendents, Chicago, February 27, 1900.

The great movement of this century has been towards individualism and what has been shown is that this movement is possible only with a reverse movement at the same time from the individual towards the universal by means of an all-around culture; for the highest individualism is that achieved by a self activity by which the solitary human unit adds to himself the insights and achievements of his entire race and makes them his own possession so completely that he can use them to conquer nature and to draw closer his union with his fellow-men. For this century of individualism has been made possible by the efforts of scholars to make a scientific inventory of nature and to use the discoveries of science in labor-saving inventions.

I wish to recall to your minds some facts and figures that form one of the best indexes of the rate and character of progress that is going on in this country, namely the statistics of the increase of higher education, for in twenty five years the number of students in higher education such as colleges and universities has increased from 598 in a million to 1,215 in a million inhabitants, more than double. Secondary education shows the same increase, namely, while in 1876 there were only 2,150 in a million working on studies preparatory for college and branches of study of an equivalent degree of advancement, in 1897-98 there were 7,630 students (in each million inhabitants) engaged in such branches. Then the increase of secondary students studying Latin and advanced mathematics and in general taking up the branches which are supposed to be more of the nature of a solid foundation than the other branches; this too is very encouraging. In eight years

the number studying Latin has increased from 33 per cent. of the entire number of secondary students, to 49 per cent.

The increase of the quota of the population that acquires secondary and higher education shows conclusively that in proportion as wealth increases and the productive power of the people gains in strength, the people at large give their children better opportunities. What these better opportunities mean in general I attempt to show by discriminating the cultivation of eye-mindedness from the culture of ear mindedness. It will be admitted that the illiterate person knows language or speech only by the ear. As all people do their thinking mostly in words, the illiterate person may be said to be ear minded.

When a person comes to know language by the ear he gains in ability in learning the experience of other fellow beings, such an experience as the highest brute animal is debarred from. For by the use of speech each person may live vicariously over again the lives of other people. He may, by hearing them tell their experiences, their observations, reflections, and deeds, get the net results of their living, so that man, even if illiterate, may be properly described as an animal who possesses the power of living several lives in one.

Man is an animal who as an individual can become a species by acquiring the knowledge and power, the experience and wisdom of his race. But how limited is this power with the illiterate person! By means of letters one comes to be able to put down his life experience in written and printed words and all persons who can read get the power of living over his experience interpreting the signs which are addressed to the eye and not to the

ear. Through letters the person becomes eye-minded and when a person can read without effort he finds himself in possession of a much more accurate mind than is possible in the case of the illiterate. Ear mindedness having to keep up as it does with the spoken word and having to depend on the memory of what is spoken cannot critically examine the statements and descriptions, the definitions and deductions as it can do when it has before it the printed page. In fact, accurate thinking for the most part becomes possible through eye mindedness and not through ear mindedness. Then just think of the scope which eye mindedness attains! It does not depend at all upon the living voice but it can become participant in the experience of persons at a distance, of all nationalities and dwelling in all parts of the world. It is not limited by time. It can make available for its use the writings of all peoples that belong to the historical era and in fact it can use the experience even of the peoples whose only records are monuments and written tablets of the prehistoric era.

Think again of the meaning of this for the development of individuality which has been described so eloquently this morning, as the peculiar index mark of the nineteenth century! For individuality grows through the appropriation or assimilation of other individuality, and while the ear-minded person who can command by means of wealth the services of oral teachers gains his instruction through absorbing the lives of his oral teachers, the eye-minded on the other hand can command the services of the book, and the book awaits his leisure. All parts of the earth become to him substantially present like his own village. Not

merely ordinary teachers come to his service but the wise men of his race await his leisure in the books which he possesses. These facts about ear-mindedness and eye-mindedness seem trite like a twice-told tale, but few persons are in the habit of thinking what a difference it makes with an entire people to pass from ear-mindedness to eye-mindedness through the beneficent influence of the common schools. In our minds there remains the impression of what we read in the papers this morning regarding the victory in South Africa of yesterday. Some of us read this with grief in our souls and some of us read it with great rejoicing. As an eye-minded people, with us world-gossip has taken the place of village gossip in its hold on our lives.

An educational philosopher in Germany gave us a very profitable point of view from which to study the general meaning of education. He called the chief function of education self-alienation. It was the greatest philosopher in Europe who first used the German word *Selbst-Entfremdung* in this sense. The human being who takes up the experience of his fellow men orally or in print has to make, in a certain sense, a journey out of himself and to entertain hospitable ideas—tolerant ideas—of the others—in order to understand them, and when he comes to see their motives and to find their logical connection with his own experience, he has returned in a certain sense to himself. He has completed his cycle of self-alienation and has learned to find himself at home in a social whole much larger than himself as mere individual. But it is more correct to say that he has enlarged his individuality. What is strange and alien to him at first becomes familiar and rational, and he is prepared to

understand far-off peoples, not merely the English nor merely the Boers, but also the Hottentots and Kaffirs—even the Fiji Islanders and the Patagonians. Substitute eye-mindedness for ear-mindedness, and how easy and how extensive becomes this matter of self-alienation! One extends the sphere of self-perception to all the world, using vicariously the senses of all the peoples of the world.

We must not fail to remember that in the place of immediate sense-perception which fills almost the entire life of the savage or illiterate civilized person there comes to be a vicarious sense-perception wherein the human being verifies the sense-perception of all the world through the little sphere of sense-perception in which he lives himself. It is the scientific power of a Humboldt, an Asa Gray, an Agassiz, a Huxley or a Herbert Spencer, who all performed prodigies of observation, mostly of this vicarious kind, for they have learned best how to perceive the world through the senses of all observers.

With this era of eye-mindedness we are entered on an era of discoveries. We may define our modern civilization since the discovery of America as a borderland civilization, and Shakespeare is the poet of the borderland. There is scarcely one of his plays that does not in one or more acts take its leading characters out of the civilization into the wild Utland (or outer land), as in "As You Like It" the forest of Arden becomes the chief resort; in "The Winter's Tale," the wilds of Bohemia; in "The Tempest," the far-off island in the still vexed Bermoothes; in "A Midsummer Night's Dream," a wood outside of Athens; in "Cymbeline," the rocky hills of South Wales. When Shakespeare was beginning to write,

Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake and the great mariners of England had begun their exploration of the borderland and their struggle with the Spanish for mastery of the new world. This age of discovery is, in a certain sense, too, a repetition of earlier ages in the unfolding of modern Europe. There was before it the era of the Crusaders, in which all Europe gathered itself together for a mighty struggle with western Asia on its eastern frontier. This was an external crusade. After it came the internal crusade, in which the European universities arose and a great struggle came to master the thoughts of Asia and of the classic periods of Greece and Rome. Here was self-alienation which ended in an enlargement of the mind of western Europe, until it was at home not only in its immediate environment and local history, but also at home in the great world movements of the preceding sixteen centuries. Through the internal crusade, which ended in the building up of the great systems of theology within the Christian Church through the mighty thought of such men as Thomas Aquinas, Albertus Magnus, Bonaventura and their compeers, the thought of Christendom overcame the attacks made upon its western or European idea by the Oriental thought which moved at the bottom of Asiatic civilization.

The Anglo-Saxon has continued to become more and more a cluster of nations that is active on the borderland of the world and with the industrial results of science and the application of the powers of nature to the subjugation of the elemental forces he has been joined gradually by the other nations one after the other, until at present the home-staying Germans have learned the lesson and have taken an advanced

position among the people who are to take possession of the earth in the interest of the highest civilization. Not a savage people but shall be put to school to learn the two lessons of civilization; first, how to conquer nature by means of machinery; second, how to unite one's own locality with all the rest of humanity, not only by commercial exchange of goods and by productive industry, but especially by intercommunication of experience and ideas.

A Massachusetts poet has stated this remarkable ideal, interpreting the words of the great Neo-Platonist, Proclus, who saw in the Osiris myth of the Egyptians a poetic image of the race of man on the earth. Osiris, the god, was killed and his body cut into pieces and spread abroad over the land, but the life in the plants and animals of Egypt seemed to him to be the body of Osiris cut up into separate individualities. Bronson Alcott, the poet, expressed the idea in this versicle:

Man omnipresent is,
 All around himself he lies
 Osiris spread abroad
 Upstaring in all eyes;
 Nature in his globed thought,
 Without him she were naught;
 Cosmos from chaos were not spoken,
 And God bereft of visible token.

Thus to the race, become eye-minded, the world becomes more and more a revelation of reason to man, and in general knowledge becomes more and more self-knowledge, because through self-alienation one comes to find his wider and wider self. Many people indulge their fancy as to the lines which future progress in science and inventions will take. I have been greatly impressed with the discovery of Professor Langley, the head of the Smithsonian Institution. To Joseph Henry (his predecessor) we

owe the telegraph and the telephone, as far as the scientific nucleus of the discovery is concerned. To Professor Langley, I think, the future will trace back the practical solution of the question of navigating the air. I mention this to show that all of the lines of future discovery must go towards bringing civilized people into closer communion, not merely by railroads and steamships, but by air ships—the conquest of the borderland as we have discussed it this morning.

Self-alienation involves not only the journey outward from the self towards what is strange and foreign to him, but it involves the conquest of what is strange and foreign and the conversion of it into what is familiar. One must learn to make himself at home in what is abroad, and individualism must be carried over into socialism, using that word in its best sense.

This, too, is the line of development of freedom. We cannot conquer our borderlands and assimilate them except by elevating them into the civilization which we possess. We must make them to be as free as we are, and we must make their people as able to think and able to observe nature, and make them as hungry for intercommunication with all the earth as we are.

It goes without saying that the borderlands of the world do not now possess this freedom but it is the duty of the nations that possess the highest civilization to labor for the elevation of those people into productive industry—into learning with regard to nature and learning with regard to man. Hence as I have said, while individualism develops through education, it at the same time through education makes the individual universal so that the more free the race is, the more it

participates in the life of all the races on the face of the earth. The people of every race and tongue must go to school to this highest ideal of education. Learn to command nature by means of science and learn to convert it to human uses. Each race must learn to know the most internal motives of all other peoples and to appreciate them at their true value. The grand vision of universal tolerance, which has taken possession of our minds through the words of President Eliot, is to become the reality of the new century. For this movement which goes out to the borderlands and makes itself cosmopolitan, has to develop perforce the principle of toleration. We can

get no good from our fellow-men unless we approach them in the spirit of this principle. We must learn to find the good in our fellow-men. We must hold back our tendency to discover only what is bad. This change in our point of view will make us continually more helpful to others.

I close with my thesis at the beginning, namely, that our movement toward individualism is possible only in connection with a reverse movement from the individual towards what is universal, and the attainment of this by means of culture—by means of the increase of education of all kinds, especially of higher education.—*School and Home Education.*

WHAT SHALL WE DO FOR A LIVING ?

EDWARD GARRETT.

IN a little book recently brought out by the headmaster of one of the great English Public Schools, he comments on what he observes as a growing indifference and inability on the part of the present-day youth to select a field for its life's labor. He thinks it is a bad sign when a lad of sixteen has not some decided inclination as to "what he is to be."

This writer was speaking of youths who regard a calling in life chiefly as a "career," and who (too often unfortunately) are not obliged to think of it as a necessary means of gaining a livelihood. One would like very much to get the utterance of the experience and opinions of the headmasters and headmistresses of our Board schools on this same subject. They could tell us better than anybody else, under what influences varied methods of bread winning are chosen, or how often they are not chosen at all, but

rather accidentally imposed on young people by their surroundings and their limitations. One scarcely knows how far they are able to trace their former scholars about in the world; but where they do they might be able to give us striking instances of the waste caused by misapplied capabilities, or, on the other hand, of the triumph of inborn instinct and ability over all hindrances.

There is no doubt that many of the first stretchings of the young mind towards its unknown future are very wild and vague. I know of a little boy who confided to his aunt "that he would like to be a cabman if cabmen could be buried in Westminster Abbey, and if not then he would choose to be a general."

I dare say we have all known little people who have had longings to grow up and keep a sweetie shop, and with the very unbusinesslike

view of enjoying their own stock.

Such fantasies pass away. By the time that boys and girls are getting up in the "standards," they can grasp some of the realities of life—the stern necessity for earning bread—and all the limitations of sex, of place or of purse, which often seem to shut us in far more really than they do, and which, as time passes on, we often discover to be little more than barricades raised round us to test our strength and agility in leaping over them!

What are the influences which commonly bring about decision in this matter of choice of life work?

There is parental leading and authority. When these are enlightened and unselfish, their worth cannot be over-estimated. Anyhow, a father very rarely gives his son too roseate a view of the advantages of his own calling. If the boy adopts it, it may be through some hereditary instinct, or under the force of sheer necessity; he generally does so with his eyes open to all its drawbacks.

On the other hand, parents often lay plans for their child's future and try to fit him into them. The hole of their ambition is a round hole, and the boy is a square boy, and if he gets forced into it he will get sore chipped in the process. Parents often have a very natural wish to keep their children with them at any cost; forgetful that they will not remain always with their children, who may have to stay withering in the uncongenial soil where they planted them, long after their own heads are laid in the grave. Worse still, they do not always consider health or inclination, or ability, but only ask where is the best opportunity "to get on." It is asked: "What trade is the most highly paid? What calling is the most genteel?" It is not asked: "What is this boy fit for?"

but "What is it becoming to his family, that he should be fit for?"

I remember reading a letter that was written to John Ruskin by a gentleman who was in great distress, because his young brother, who, he thought should go into one of the learned professions, had gone off to British Columbia, and got work in a salmon-canning factory! John Ruskin replied that, on the whole, he thought it was quite as honorable to prepare potted fish as to distribute potted talk! Some parents see this. I know a case just now in which the son of "gentle" people, with many other possibilities open to him, has declared his own ardent desire to be a *cook*. His father, after giving and taking time for consideration, has yielded to his desire, and he is now in training under a *chef*. But too often young people whom nature has plainly intended to be hewers of wood and drawers of water, and who would be happy and honorable in such vocations, are sent up to college, because it is thought derogatory to their family's standing that they should work with their hands; it often ends in their family having to put them out of sight as wasters. Or parents of a humbler class, as they grow old and easier in circumstances, resolve to give themselves "a social lift" by sending their youngest boy to the university, though he may be the fool of the family, or a roystering youngster who would far rather go on a cattle ranch! Schoolmasters have always been very severe on this perverse judgment of fathers as concerning the fitness or unfitness of their children. Roger Ascham, Queen Elizabeth's tutor, even went so far as to wish that this parental power was clipped in the interests of the commonwealth, for he said, "Fathers in old time, among the

noble Persians, might not do with their children as they thought good, but as the judgment of the common wealth always thought best."

As to the wishes of the young people themselves, they are swayed by a thousand winds. They think of the present rather than of the future. They want to stay with a favourite companion, or they simply wish to gratify a roving impulse. Some have a personal attraction to a possible employer. One desires "liberty," another looks for "gentility." One inclines where he can make "most money," another studies only where he will get the "easiest time."

Some allow influences and circumstances, which a little resolution might easily control, to push them into a place in life for which they have neither liking nor fitness. Do they reflect what they are doing? The process of earning a living absorbs at least one-third of a man's whole life—eight hours out of the twenty-four — half of his waking time! Therefore, to choose an uncongenial form of bread-winning means that they are bound in disagreeable slavery for that portion of their existence, and must seek all enjoyment, not in the persistent condition of their life, but in its mere accidentals. A man or woman who does not take a pleasure and a pride in his or her work is not worth employing. It must be a wretched thing to labor, longing only for the clock to strike the hour of release. Those who, having strong individual inclinations, are able to secure a livelihood by the exercise of these have a perpetual cause of thanksgiving. Without doubt, they may get weary of it sometimes—and have "too much of a good thing"—but they are as delighted to return to it as we are to get home when we have been refreshed by a holiday.

It has been said that "there is nothing in life which holds, except one's work and one's prayers," for these go on when all else changes and ceases, and by these we hold to our fellow-men and to God when all the other surroundings of our lives drop away.

Some people may be inclined to imagine that only occupations where so called "talents" come in can really be so delightful as to be a chosen occupation. This is a mistake. Many men, some great in mind, some in position, have found utmost pleasure in the simple manual arts by which other men gain bread. Louis XVI. of France, delighted in locksmith work; other princes of more modern date have been skilled taxidermists. Jenny Lind, the great singer, liked to occupy her leisure with needlework; a famous French authoress loved to soothe her stormy soul with "a long, white seam." If these people had not had princely rank or royal genius, there is no doubt how each would have chosen to earn bread, and been happy in the earning.

Nobody should choose an occupation in which he is not willing to live and to die. It is a pitiful thing when a man goes to his work only to gain enough money to leave off doing it. When a man loves his work and does it well, he does not want to delegate it to others, to shuffle out of it when he can, to get rid of it as soon as he may. On the contrary, he feels a tender pathos when he finds that his "working days are drawing to a close," and though he may be glad enough to rest in his old age, yet the tools of his art or craft will be often in his hand, and its interests will always arouse his interest.

When we approach the definite choice of occupation from a practical point of view, the first question

to ask is, What work does the world really want?

People make very pathetic mistakes at this point. Perhaps they once made even more than they do now. I remember when mothers used to fancy that if their daughters ever required to earn bread, they would readily secure places as "companions"—with home and good salary—for arranging flowers and carrying on small talk! I remember one poor, poor lady, who felt that the world was very unkind when she found that it would not let her earn a good income by making pincushions!

But we must always remember that while the world will not pay for work it does not need, it could ill do without some work for which it is not particularly inclined to pay.

It requires people who will speak very plain truth to it; it requires thinkers who will remodel its thoughts for it; it wants poets who will show it the sources of true honor and joy; it wants painters who will teach it how to recognize beauty.

But, in general, it does not want to pay for any of these things. Therefore they must be omitted from the ways of earning bread. The world is very willing to pay people who speak smooth falsehoods to it, who make level the grooves in which its warped thoughts run, who sing songs in honor of its folly and passions, who draw vulgar and base pictures for its illustrated papers, or paint the portraits of its millionaires and professional beauties. Now, very few of those who are gifted with literary or artistic talents prepare to prostitute them in these ways; and yet how many sink to do so because, if they mean to live by their gifts, they must shape them to what the world asks!

Therefore, if anybody feel that

he or she has a mission to preach or write or paint, the first thing they have to do is to be independent of the world's payment. That may come—it often does come, sooner or later. But they must be independent of it. Does this mean that only rich men are able freely to use such gifts? No. The greatest of such gifts have been most successfully exercised by poor men. Shakespeare did not live by his plays; he lived by his diligence as a man of business. Milton did not live by his epics, but by his secretarial and his tutorial work. Burns did his best work while he followed his plough. Millet, the painter of the Angelus, when he could not sell his masterpieces, turned an honest penny by painting signboards. Spinoza would have starved on his philosophy, but he kept alive by grinding spectacles.

Nobody should dream of getting a living as a genius. Let the geniuses keep themselves in the rank of the average people and seek answer to the second division of my question: "For what of work really wanted is the world willing to pay?"

It is most willing to pay for food, for clothing, for shelter, for help in sickness, and within limits (very shameful limits sometimes) for teaching.

Those occupations which lie nearest to the natural instincts are not only the most happy, but also the most permanent and prosperous.

The trades which minister to the real necessities of humanity are the most desirable and the most honorable. Farmers and fishers, builders, carpenters and road-makers, bakers and clothiers, and all the other ministers to the daily needs of work-a-day humanity will be always necessary in every state of society. The woman who really knows how to keep a house, how to cook, how to

wash, how to make clothes, will never lack work. In the whole world—though not always in any particular part of it—there will be always more work of this kind than there are workers to do it.

Occupations which minister to luxury are less useful, and therefore less satisfying to the inner consciousness. They are less reliable, too, being apt to fluctuate with taste or wealth, and being all more or less under the fickle rule of fashion. Employments which are altogether at the mercy of mere "fashion" are best avoided. They involve feverish overwork and extravagance, heartbreaking depression and demoralization. The skill which time and practice bring to other pursuits cannot be gained in them, and the worker's prospects darken rapidly as life advances.

It is best that men should take to callings in which the great mass of womankind will never compete with them. There may be exceptional women who will do anything from coal mining to navigation, but they are few and will not disturb the labor market. So women, again, are wisest, as a rule, to occupy those fields which are all their own, and in which they do not have to compete with men.

In our own day we have seen one field of labor rapidly change hands. Women are driving men out of counting-house and office. It often comes hard on the men, and one hears a good deal of pity for them, which sometimes seems inclined to ignore that women have an equal right to live! The true pity of it is that in such fields the women really have to do as much work as the men, at far lower rates of pay; and while it must not be forgotten that in many instances the man has his family to maintain, while the woman has only herself to keep and remains

one of a home, still it is not always so, and anyhow, that is no just standard for the value of work. Yet women would do better to confine themselves more to those avocations which are all their own. If the sister earns ten shillings a week by doing work for which the brother used to receive a pound, while he now sits idle, the household is no gainer by the exchange; and possibly she might have found better paid work for herself which would have left him at his desk.

The work of counting-house and office may be, perhaps, quite as suitable for a woman as for a man; perhaps even more so. It will be an unalloyed blessing if the present sharp competition between the sexes reduces the fancied advantages of this kind of work to a vanishing-point. It has too long been rushed upon because of the snobbish idea that it is "gentlemanly," and the young man, in a black coat, making entries in a ledger, has been apt to think himself infinitely superior to the working men whose productive labors and transactions he merely records. As a matter of fact, few occupations offer less stimulus to the mind or development of the physical frame. It is one of the terrible mistakes of fond parents that they sometimes put a clever, thinking boy into this sort of work, because they imagine it is above manual labor, and more in line with his studious or artistic turn. A great mistake. Nothing can be worse, more trying, more destroying to the higher mental faculties than the constant working of the mere mechanical part of the mind. The balance can be kept only by the wise use of leisure. If anybody thinks himself or herself a genius let them throw gentility to the winds and straightway apply themselves to some of the plain ways of labor,

which will leave the mind free.

Apart from considerations of "gentility," sedentary, indoor occupations are occasionally chosen for delicate boys or girls, just because they are delicate, and it is thought that such work is "light." This, too, is a sad error. Medical men, too, tell us that where there is any tendency to consumption an outdoor life and cheerful movement may often counteract it, while heated rooms, impure atmospheres, and constrained attitudes may develop such tendencies even where they did not previously exist.

There are physical defects which should convince those who suffer from them that certain occupations are not for them, and could yield them only disappointment and defeat. People with short-sighted eyes should not become seamstresses or engravers. One should make sure that one is not color-blind before going into shipping or railway duties. One may be in some ways admirably fitted to impart knowledge and yet quite unfit for the teaching profession if of a nervous, excitable temperament, unable to bear the strain of constant responsibility or the irritation of persistent claim on the attention. It is not wise for any to go into medicine or nursing whose sickly or depressed appearance suggests the remark, "Physician heal thyself!" Nobody should think of entering the ministry unless prepared to face the darkest and most painful facts of human experience—not as did a young man whom I heard lately, whose family thought of the ministry for him chiefly as a genteel calling, and who straightway cast about to discover in which sect he would be least likely to be brought in contact with the "poor," whom he "did not like!"

It is impossible to deal in detail

with the pros and cons of all occupations. In large, we may say that those are the most desirable avocations which require considerable training and in which only practice makes perfect, or, again, which a man can carry with him anywhere, and is sure to find useful and profitable at all times and places.

A few principles may be suggested on which the choice of an occupation may be made, and these principles can be thrown into the form of questions which the individual can answer for himself or for his children, or those who seek his counsel.

"What work is really useful in the world?"

We have already shown that some of the most useful work in the world is not paid for—cannot be paid for. But some of the most useless occupations are almost the most highly paid. They are not, therefore, the most desirable. "Lightly come, lightly go," and the enormous earnings of jockeys, dancers, and other hangers-on of idle frivolity generally enrich themselves in the end as little as their labors enrich the world! They give their lives, their very souls for nought. Therefore we leave them out of our consideration. We will infer that our determination is that our choice of life-work shall be of the distinctly useful, and then we go on to the next question.

"Out of these useful occupations, which do I like best?"

Now this is a question for each soul. Nobody can help him in the answer; for in this matter, as in most others, "one man's meat is another man's poison." At this point parents are wise to leave perfect liberty. They should have helped their children to be able to give answer for themselves. Parents and teachers should watch for children's

inclinations, and foster them, instead of throwing cold water upon them, as they sometimes do. The little instinctive effort of a child of six might, if duly encouraged, become the strong aptitude and inclination in the boy or girl of fourteen. If Florence Nightingale's friends had jeered at her bandaged dolls, and taken them away from her, she might never have developed into the great Nursing Sister. By the time West, the artist, was sixteen he would readily have said "I want to be a painter," but if, when, as a child of six, he drew the baby's portrait his mother had laughed at him or scolded him for "making a mess," instead of kissing him, his talent might have perished in its birth. One even wonders whether the elaboration of modern toys, leaving nothing to a child's own imagination and inclination, may not have something to do with in decision in the choice of future occupation. Germs are easily killed. An oak is a mighty monarch, hard to destroy, but anybody can trample an acorn.

Then, when we have decided what we would like to do, the next question is:

"Can we do it?"

This question comes in two forms: "What are we best fit to do?" and "What will our circumstances permit us to do?"

The answer to either question is this: When there is any hindrance in oneself or in one's surroundings to one's achieving the occupation of one's heart's desire, then let us do that nearest to it, and which we find within our compass. For instance, one longs to be a sculptor, but is poor and knows that ready bread does not lie in that direction. Then let him be a stonemason. One wishes to be an artist, but one cannot afford either the training or

the delay. Let him be a house decorator. Or one wants to be a sailor, but feels he must not leave his widowed mother quite alone. Then be a fisherman. And so through the whole range of occupations.

There are two advantages in taking this course. The calling one takes up as second best exercises the same aptitude as the calling one desires. The two roads going in the same direction are likely at some point to join in one.

Then the final question is: "What is it that is most essential to one, and what is one prepared to give up?"

This is a most important question. Much of the dissatisfaction and unrest of life come from its neglect. People will not realize that everything has its price. They try to grasp incompatible advantages and are disgusted when they fail.

They will refuse to submit to a long training, and then they are indignant to find themselves employed in some calling which lies quite open to everybody who rushes in, and where the veteran has no advantage over the novice.

Or they pursue an avocation which is their happy "hobby," but instead of resting content in the lifelong satisfaction of its practice they rail at society because they have not also made a fortune.

Or they desire an even, regular, reliable employment, and then grumble at the "monotony of their life."

The consideration of what we really want and what we are prepared to sacrifice having once decided the life-work, there will remain only to live the life! Let us remember that "the hand of the diligent maketh rich"—not necessarily rich in money, which would be but a poor result, since a rich man

may be foolish, and unrespected and miserable. But "the hand of the diligent maketh rich" in skill, in power, in comfort, in influence. And in "all labor there is profit"—not only in the labor which can be paid for in wages, but in the labor which is of love, the extra touch, whose withholding nobody would blame, whose putting in nobody notices—yes, there is profit in that—the great gain of self-respect,

which straightens one's back and brightens one's eye, and makes one of the number of nature's noblemen. Let each be proud of his calling. Let us learn ail about it, and know its history. Be sure it has its romances. It has been dignified by some great man in this country or another. Probably it has its heroisms. We know far too little about these things.—*The Leisure Hour.*

IN THE SPIRIT.

BY T. S. LOWDEN.

IT is evident that the teacher must have character with high ideals and live thereto, possess scholarship, be cultured and equipped professionally, if any degree of success in her work is hoped for, but with it all, her work will prove well-nigh a failure, be a spiritless, mechanical, daily grind, unless she is earnest, responsive, sympathetic—"In the Spirit." What is it to be "In the Spirit?" Illustration and example best answer. John was "In the Spirit" on Patmos. "I was in the isle for the word of God and for the testimony of Jesus Christ." It was the Lord's day and a silence was brooding over the lonely Aægean isle, broken only by the dash of waves against the rock-bound coast. The day and place lent auspice to the spirit, but above all was heart, intent, purpose, the life of that "be loved disciple," that induced the heavens to open and reveal themselves. To the honest heart, the responsive soul, the sincere life, heaven is ever near if he but divines; ever willing to divulge its secrets and joys if he but importune. To the wayfarer the way opens if he but seek. "Ask and it shall be given you." "Seek and ye shall find." "Knock and it shall be open-

ed unto you." But the "asking," "seeking," "knocking," must be done "In the Spirit." Without responsiveness, sincerity, earnestness and sympathy our petitions, pleadings, labors, our lives avail not.

Sometime since, I was obliged to walk several miles along a railroad, closely skirted on one side by a ravine, on the other by overhanging cliffs and rugged slopes. For three-quarters of a mile the track was thickly covered with rough slag from the iron mills. I had the alternative of walking the railing or trudging through the slag. It was a laborious journey. The afternoon of the following day, I returned the same way. It was one of those days early in November:

"As still such days will come,
To call the squirrel and the bee
From out their winter home."

The sky was azure, thinly veiled o'er here and there with flocculent clouds through which the sun shone, with mellow, autumnal light, enveloping hill and vale in purple hue. A gentle breeze came out of the south. An occasional dandelion dared yet appear; a spray of aster yet remained. The grass with its recent growth, new, tender, green, carpeted the ground beneath the

leafless oaks. The rills hastening toward the rivulets made music, with their murmuring notes, purling over the shallows. The assembled waters, gathered from the hills, tumbling o'er the distant dam, gave undertone in symphony. Near by in the thicket the red bird whistled merrily, while up the hill side in the wood, the haughty quarrelsome jay was scolding a solitary crow that cawed in joy for the sunshine. Even the belated butterfly, Philodice, with her clouded sulphur wings, rejoiced to float in the balmy air, while the tiger caterpillar was anxiously hastening along, nervous, lest he be too late for transformation. Over all this life and beauty, so soon to depart, there brooded that ominous silence, that foreboding stillness which portends the oncoming storm. Alas! that such days are so rare, but thanks that they come at all, for:

"Far through the memory shines a happy day
Cloudless of care, down-shod to every sense,
And simply perfect from its own resource.
Such days are not the prey of setting suns,
Nor ever blurred with mist of afterthought."

I strolled, I lingered, I rested. My nerves were at peace. My limbs were filled with the warmth of life, my thoughts with buoyancy, my heart with joy. I felt, I thought, I sympathized, I responded to the wonderful, the beautiful, the life about me. My soul was filled. Tears of gratitude welled up, that I, "poor worm of dust," was a part of all this life and loveliness. "A centred self, which feels and is—a part of all life's mystery."

All the while I was in the domain of my inner self, unmindful of the toils and cares of life. Suddenly the spell was broken when by chance I turned about and saw that I had again but unconsciously plodded

through the slag, which only yesterday had caused me so much annoyance. But yesterday it was "me" who was, To-day it is "I" that is. Yesterday there was sensitivity to ills; to-day, a responsiveness to charms. Yesterday the slag detained "me," my outer life or external self, and so it does to-day, but to-day, likewise is my inner life, the interior self touched, moved, delighted, so that the exuberance thereof o'erflows and quenches the ills of "me." To-day I am "in the Spirit." I can see, feel, realize, sympathize, respond. It is clear that—

"All I see in earth and sky,
Star, flower, beast, bird is a part of me,
This conscious life is the same
Which thrills the universal frame."

How much of life we see is slag, even though we be in the midst of the good and beautiful, so abundant and broadcast about us, unless with the discerning eye of the inner self we penetrate the veil, perceive, understand and comprehend the world, its fulness and the riches thereof! Each creates his world, his universe, and makes his inner or outer self the centre of it. His world is spiritual or material in as much as it is generated by his inner or outer life. We are prone to see the slag in life. We see too oft "through glasses darkly." Slag there is in life, and slag there needs must be, but we should learn to know the slag and profit by it. The duties incident to the teacher's life cannot be counted slag. Our interest in life, in growth and development, childhood, right, truth, and the beautiful, our interest in humanity, the race, its future welfare should be wholly sufficient to stimulate our inner life and make us "In the Spirit."

Comenius must have been "In the Spirit." No man can give his

life, dedicate himself, devote his time, energy and talent to a cause, especially that of elevating the race, bettering the conditions of man kind, alleviating its woes, encouraging it to look up, unless he be "In the Spirit." Thomas Arnold and Froebel, too, must have been "In the Spirit." The work they did so well, their influence in our day is evidence of it. But what of Pestalzzi? Can anyone live a more "living sacrifice" than did he, in his devotion to childhood, orphanage and the lowly? Poor as was his scholarship, meagre his culture, ill-balanced his character, yet my heart leaps up when I think of "the miracle of love," his sacrifice, the cheer he has sent into miserable souls, the Samaritan offices he performed, the good he has done, ever earnest, sincere, responsive, sympathetic. With him the inner life the "I," with self and child was the end and aim of education. External, "the me" concerned him little. He lived and labored "In the Spirit." Only such a life and labor can call forth, even in death, such an epitaph as that which has been justly given him: "Saviour of the poor, preacher of the people, father of the orphan, educator of humanity, man, Christian, citizen: everything for others, nothing for self. Blessed be his name." Better leave such an epitaph on the hearts and in the lives of humanity and be buried "in a valley in the land of Moab, over against Bethpeor," than be ephemerally great and be interred with imposing ceremonies in a conspicuous corner in Westminster.

The school-house, its equipment and environment, the community cast their influence to inspire or thwart the teacher's work. All this is paraphernalia (a help 'tis true) to him who has an inner life, enrich-

ed, vast stored, from whence he draws his daily sustenance. This one gives bread not stones; ennobles all he looks upon, turns to purer metal all he touches. His goad is spirit, not show and scourge. This he plants in others. Get but the good *within* thyself, if thou wouldst be a man. A year with such a one means life-long blessings to the child.

"As one lamp lights another, nor grows less So nobleness enkindleth nobleness."

It twice ennobles. "It blesseth him that gives and him that takes." Happy and influential is he who is conversant with the one real language, sympathy,—the cord that binds man to man—the electric current that unifies, the motor by which we feed. To feel and to be moved, to feel how noble! It is our richest endowment, our most God-like heritage. Sympathy, what an enlivening force! How permeating its influences, how bouyant its power! What a tonic to the weak, resuscitator to the faint, a healer of the sick, a meed in distress! He who in his teaching remembers his childhood, his early manhood, who can, at will, renew his youth, and see himself again in infancy, who forgets not the troubles in his long division, those first dark days in his geometry, the hours of toil over his Greek verb, though he may lack high scholarship, expert, professional training, a broad and liberal culture,—important qualifications in the main, has the essential equipment for real success.

The teaching profession needs students of life, of humanity; teachers whose permanent interests lie along the lines of their labors, who live in their work, who are earnest, sincere, noble, responsive, sympathetic—who are "in the Spirit."—*The Ohio Educational Monthly.*

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for day,
 Though sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that working strongly, binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

IN this issue we have a paper read by Mr. A. Kahn, M.A., of University College School, London, which will give to our readers an idea of the work that is attempted by the Secondary schools of Great Britain and Ireland for Commercial education:

The paper was read at a joint meeting of the College of Preceptors and the Assistant Masters' Association; Dr. William Garnett, secretary to the Technical Education Board of the London County Council, occupied the chair.

Our readers will not fail to notice the emphasis which is laid on all the branches of a general course of reading even for a commercial man of the modern school.

Men for years past have been watching with much interest the contest which has been waged between educators and politicians in the city of New York, U.S.A. Within a couple of years the Mayor of the city treated the chairman of the Board of Education with very scant courtesy indeed when the latter was asking for an appropriation sufficient to carry on the ordinary school affairs of the city.

Teachers' salaries were unpaid for months; teachers had to go into court to get any attention given to their claims. Finally the people who had the well-being of the community at heart went to the State Legislature for redress. After much delay and vexation of spirit, the Legislature has passed a bill regulating the salary of teachers for the city of New York.

We note the following clear points as of special significance:—

1. The financial administration of the New York Schools is transferred from the control of the board of estimate and apportionment, — the body which manages the city's finances in all other departments, except the police,—to that of the board of education.

2. A uniform schedule of salaries for supervisors and teachers is established throughout all boroughs, and provision is made that such salaries shall be advanced by regular annual increments.

3. The lowest salary for a teacher to begin on is put at \$600 and there is full provision made for increases at stated intervals to this initial salary. THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY has frequently urged upon the Government of Ontario to adopt this feature in dealing with the teachers of the province. But so far no move has been made.

We feel sure that the Board of Education, New York City, has taken a most important step to secure and hold an able and efficient staff for its city Public Schools.

We are indebted to the *School Journal* for a copy of this important document and believing it will be of special interest to our readers it is printed in full in this issue.

THE UNEXPECTED.

"Here woman reigns; mother, daughter, wife,
 "Strew with fresh flowers the narrow way of life."

While resting and being refreshed on the hills and in the valleys about Clachan, Kyntire, and the native-born

feeling strong upon me, by the beautiful sea, I had a very unexpected experience of the truth of the lines quoted above.

On the Friday morning of our stay there, betimes I called upon the wife of the Free Church minister in Clachan and found her and a lady friend from Campbelltown making ready to cross the ferry, which is a mile and a half or two miles distant.

She insisted very kindly upon my going with them, and proposed that we should spend the day on the rocks on the other side of the ferry.

Nothing could have been devised more acceptable to me, and the spontaneity of the invitation was an added grace.

It required only a few minutes to return to the inn in Clachan, tell my hostess of the arrangements for the day, and set forth for the day's outing.

The minister's wife and her party went to the ferry by the "high road." I went by the "low road," a beautiful drive made by Sir Wm. MacKinnon, Ball NaKill, for the pleasure and benefit of his invalid wife. The drive passes by the parish manse and glebe, keeps close to the burn on its way to the sea, about two miles distant. The meadow widens; to the left is the Dun, already mentioned, to the right, and near Creag Loisgte, 650 feet high: the sweet purling sound of water over the pebbly bottom, the low banks of the burn, the sea, like a sheet of silver in front, the sight of the farms, where the forefathers lived, etc., brought back the vision of former days. On the left bank of this quiet, clear stream, on the clean, sweet grass, filled with gowans fair, in May, when the potato planting was over for the year, you could see a company of healthy, hearty, merry mistresses and ruddy maidens, having pails, tubs, kettles, boilers, etc.,

etc., all the utensils necessary for the annual washing of the bed-clothes and linen of a farm house. This scene could be witnessed every spring upon the fair green meadows in the early half of the century. After the linen and blankets, etc., had been thoroughly trampled upon (they had no mangles in those days) they were carefully spread out on the green grass to bleach and dry in the sun. All this and more was visible to me as I passed on to the ferry on that beautiful August morning; saw the thin blue smoke from the fire on the green creep along the ground and gradually disappear; heard the laugh and shriek of the joyous lasses as I wistfully looked, and remembered the former days of Clachan, Kyntire, and its vicinity, throbbing with human life more than fifty years ago. Yes, gentle reader, there is where the burn joins the sea. At that time, with bated breath, you would hear it whispered that in some mysterious way a fine salmon, or even two or more had been caught in the night by whom nobody could tell, and then some fine fish were relished very much indeed in such a farm house. Odd how things happened in those far-off yet so-nigh days!

My road (the drive) keeps turning to the right, eastward. In a short time I find my company on the shore; having come over by the "high road," they got there before me. We cross the ferry to the north in their boat, and spend the remainder of the beautiful, breezy day on the rocky shore of the arm of the sea which runs up to Tarbert, Loch Fyne. The reader may be able to imagine the enjoyment of the writer, the "native born" on his native shore, in full view of Creag Loisgte, Clachan, the Dun, Islay, Jura, the quiet, blue, beautiful sea at our feet and lead-

ing the eye our to the west, but he canna do it.

Refreshment, do you ask? The guid wife of the Free Church manse looked after that for us, but there was one dish unexpected.

When mother, best of mothers, made with provident care provision for the meals of her bairns, she occasionally got us a toothsome broth which only expert mothers can make, one part of which made a very clear and lasting impression on my boyish taste. It was a pleasure once again to take whelks

from the restless sea, boil them forthwith, and have them form a part of our ample mid-day meal on the picturesque and beautiful sea shore of Kynaire. Thus sped the day all too soon till, as of yore, the sun, like a red ball, hastened over the splendid Bonachan House, over the isle of Gigha into the calm sea.

That Friday has left with the writer one of the pleasantest of memories.

Live not to day and yes to day, but evermore,
And no one knows when first they came.

CURRENT EVENTS.

THE Province of Ontario prides itself on its school system, with its centralized and highly organized machinery, and its advocates argue that there can be none but blessings come from it. I noticed an interesting commentary on its practical workings in some advertisements for teachers which appeared recently in the *Globe*, the leading journal of the province. One of these advertisements offered an assistant-mastership in a High School to a suitable person willing to teach mathematics and sciences for six hundred dollars a year. To be eligible for such a position a person must have spent some three years at a High School, four years in the University, and one year at the School of Pedagogy. These positions do not include board and lodging—for there are only four boarding schools for boys in the province. Another advertisement was for a female teacher who, besides her duties as a teacher, will be required to light fires and sweep the school, all for the munificent sum of two hundred and sixteen dollars. Another rural School Board desires a teacher to whom it is

willing to pay two hundred dollars, and this in one of the oldest settled counties. These are not exceptional instances; they are culled from an ordinary issue of the *Daily Globe* and indicate fairly the remuneration of teachers in the rural and village schools. The highest salary—that offered to University men—does not exceed the wages of a skilled mechanic, while the lowest does not equal the wages of a farm laborer. The result is that ambitious persons do not enter the teaching profession, or, if they get in, they make haste to leave it at the first opportunity, for more profitable callings. The teaching profession in the villages and rural communities too often is left in the hands of raw boys and girls still in their teens, with the girls in a decided majority. It is not lack of means that prevents the raising of the salaries—it is the lack of inclination, owing partly to the inactivity of the teacher, who neglects to make the school a centre of social activity, who does not interest the parents in the school and let them see the significance of the work he is trying to do. There are too many women in the profession, and

yet we cannot remedy that state of affairs until we raise the salaries to such an amount as will enable a man to marry and live in a fitting manner on the income from his school work. The Government of Ontario does so much prescribing, inspecting and ordering that the people have become accustomed to having all the educational work done for them. The text-books are prescribed, the examinations held, and, indeed, every detail managed by the Government. The people then look upon the school not as a part of the municipality, but rather as a part of the general system of government, and hence it is extremely difficult to arouse any interest. This seems to me to be one of the retarding influences in our educational life, and, strange to say, it is the very thing that is praised most highly by a certain section of the educationists of the province—those who love system and machinery.—*Journal of Education, London.*

There is a great difference between knowing a thing and being able to do it. This applies with peculiar force to teaching. *The School Journal* believes teaching to be essentially an art, knowledge of whose principles is as important as acquaintance with the laws of perspective in drawing and painting, or of harmony in musical creation. All the theoretical knowledge in the world does not make an artist, though it may be sufficient equipment for an art critic. This is a point that does not seem to be clearly understood as yet by many who are trusting too exclusively to a knowledge of the principles of education.

We are every one of us acquainted with the deluded victim of theory who feels he possesses a knowledge of genetic psychology, pedagogics,

etc., and prides himself on being a model teacher because he can talk about the philosophy of his work. Yes, he can talk, and he does talk, and his hearers know he is talking, and the N.E.A. programmes know him, as well as the county paper reports of institutes. He is usually an honest and conscientious digger, and differs from the pedagogic sciolist in that he is misguided rather than misguiding. The danger is that he becomes so enamored of theory that he seems to despise the study of the simple questions involved in the art of teaching. It is a bore to him to be asked to consider how spelling is being or ought to be taught. When people of this type meet with reverses as teachers they are pointed out by the lazy and self-satisfied as horrible examples of the uselessness of pedagogy, while the result means nothing more than a demonstration of the futility of learning to swim by study of anatomy and the laws of gravitation and resistance of matter.

Whatever the ethical or esthetic problems in educational teleology, the immediate duty is the doing of the practical work at hand. Philosophy must be left to the leisure moments of great minds. Right or wrong, the world measures the teacher's work by the foot-rule: can the pupil spell, read, write and figure? These are the questions that are being continually asked. The teacher who fails in this examination cannot satisfy the world. His theoretic excuses will be regarded—and why not—as mere screens for inefficient work.

The three R's can never be pooh-poohed out of the school-room. They are the only certain measures people have for estimating a teacher's worth. A physician who cannot set a broken arm or cure a simple case of sore throat will not

inspire much confidence in patients, though his professional papers and volumes of "Proceedings" may look down upon him from the library shelves as a fine diagnostician. The physician in Rabner's Satires could always tell at once the Greek name of a disease, but was never able to suggest a remedy or a cure. The world is not far wrong in clinging to simple standards of measurement.

If a teacher cannot give satisfaction in the most elementary phases of his work, what guarantee is there that he is doing wonderful things in matters too elusive for any human tests? Nor is there any reason why he should not be held to strict account in details. The great master-works in painting, sculpture, architecture and music reveal perfection in the smallest and least essential elements. It is right that teachers should be asked to produce certain evidence of certain results, and to be able to give certain expert reasons for the things they do and the way they do them.

Here is a field for present investigation. The time of opinionating, groping, experimenting and talking must come to an end, and the way be cleared for research and the establishment—by comparative studies—of reasonable standards for the just testing of results and the efficiency of methods. An educator must be an expert in, or concerning, the *art* of teaching.

DEFENDERS OF THE BOERS?

In a struggle which involves the loss of thousands of precious lives and millions of money—in a struggle which leads to the loss of many of our noblest and best and most hopeful, it is of supreme importance that we should have a clear conscience. It is, therefore, the business of those who profess to guide public opinion to give heed to testi-

monies and remonstrances from all sides. It is clear, indeed to ourselves that the case is so strong against the Boer Government that it is hardly necessary even to examine their protests; yet, on the other hand, if we are so sure of the righteousness of the British cause, our convictions will only be strengthened by listening to the plea from the other side. Such reflections are suggested to us by a recent report of an interview with Mr Abraham Fischer, a member of the "Boer Peace Commission," with a representative of the (London) Daily Express. "If we are at war with the British," says Mr. Fischer, "it is not because we wish or ever did wish to quarrel with them. As we believe the British do not wish to quarrel with us, we have come to see whether we cannot end the war." This is most pleasing, and in a certain sense is true. Great Britain certainly did not want to fight the Boers, and did not fight them until they had invaded British territory and attacked our garrisons. This is a simple matter of fact. On the other hand, it may be said that the Boers did not wish to fight the British. Certainly not; they knew better. They only wanted to do as they liked in a country which was not their own. They wanted to make slaves of the aborigines, to deprive English speaking men of all right of participation in the government of the country, while they paid the greatest part of the taxes, and to "run" the courts of justice in such a way that no Outlander could receive justice. These were very simple wants of theirs! Why should anyone go to war with them on points like these? "Our ultimatum was issued," they say, "under the belief that our destruction had been determined upon." Their destruction! What did the British Government demand? Only fair

play for their own people, and no more. Was this their destruction? Yes, the destruction of their tyrannical oligarchy, but not the taking away of any of their rights or privileges, which they might justly claim on grounds of general civilization. Their last ultimatum, we may observe, was simply a proposal that the British troops should retire and leave them in a state of independence—a state which they had abused, and intended to abuse—and this after great sacrifices in men and treasure had been made! "Your Premier," they go on, "has declared that you want no territory, etc. If these speeches had been made in September, instead of October and November, we would never have formulated our ultimatum." The impudence of this is incredible. Let us note the facts. These people have been preparing for war with England for years, and accumulating war material. They have made no secret of their resolve to drive Englishmen, or at least English

rule, out of South Africa. They did not conceive that England would be willing—perhaps they thought she was scarcely able—to put an army in the field sufficient to cope with them. They knew, at least, that they could hold their own for a time; and they trusted that, before this time had expired, they might count on intervention from some of the great European powers. And perhaps their calculation was not so absurd as it might seem to be. It is not unlikely that some of our neighbours would have picked a quarrel with us but for the fear that they might have had some other foes on their back. It is well for us sometimes to examine the position and pretensions of our adversaries that we may rightly estimate our own position. Assuredly, we are not shaken by the recent demonstration of Boer advocates from our belief that our cause is a righteous one. — *Canadian Churchman*.

BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

MR. Richard Harding Davis has taken Mr. Whigham's place with a war article in the June number of *Scribner's Magazine*. Mr. Davis was with Buller's column and describes the battle of Pieter's Hill. The account is in the author's better style; his second article on the Relief of Ladysmith, which is promised for the July number, should be vividly interesting. In fiction there are two notable contributions to this issue, Mrs. Wharhon's "Copy"—a dialogue—and Mr. Barrie's instalment of "Tommy and Grizel." One cannot help remarking that it is a pity that authors should encourage the prevalent over-importance given to writing as a trade by so often selecting people who write as their heroes

and heroines. Mr. Charles Major, the author of the extremely popular "When Knighthood was in Flower," contributes an article entitled, "What is Historic Atmosphere?"

The June *Cosmopolitan* contains a number of interesting short stories. Mr. Stockton's series of short stories at present appearing in this magazine is represented by a story by the daughter of the house, "The Conscious Amanda."

Mr. Wm. T. Stead and Mr. Walker between them have arranged an article on the Queen, "What Kind of a Sovereign is Queen Victoria?" Mr. Walker thought that Mr. Stead would be just the person to explain at last what a failure the Queen's influence had been, but

Mr. Stead, like Balaam, has followed blessing by blessing. Mr. Walker remarks in a foot-note, with some natural disappointment, that "the fair-minded reader will perceive that he is the special pleader rather than the philosophical-minded student." Mr. Stead himself states that his conviction has been forced upon a somewhat reluctant mind.

The departments at the end of *St Nicholas* are becoming more important every month, and will likely increase greatly the circulation of this already widely-read magazine. The Verse, by H. F. Blodgett, M. L. Eaton, L. E. Richards, W. B. MacHarg, is particularly good this month.

A new serial, "The Junior Cup," by Allen French, is begun, and there is a good story for girls, "How Titania was Outwitted," by Erin Graham.

The following publications have been received:

From *The American Book Co.*, New York:

Popular Astronomy, by J. D. Steele, revised by Mabel Loomis Todd.

Story of Ulysses, by M. Clarke.

The True Citizen, by W. F. Markwick and W. A. Smith.

Alice's Visit to the Hawaiian Islands, by Mary H. Krout.

From *Houghton, Mifflin and Company*, Boston:

Jean Françoise Millet, by Estelle M. Hurl.

Toronto: William Briggs and The Copp, Clark Company:

A Canadian History for Boys and Girls, by Emily P. Weaver.

A volume which ought to be in the library of every progressive teacher has recently appeared in *Appleton's Education Series**. It gives

*The Secondary School System of Germany, by F. E. Bolton, Ph.D.

a clear and full account of the middle schools of Germany, with well-balanced comparisons with American schools. Dr. Bolton's preparation for the task of producing such a work lies in his having spent a year of observation in Germany, preceded by a thorough training in pedagogy in American and German universities.

The book contains much information not hitherto accessible in English, on the organization and management of the Secondary Schools, their relation to the other parts of the educational system, the training and certification of teachers, the social relation between master and pupil, and the problems of co-education. But it is more than a record of observation; the discussion of methods, especially in the lengthy chapter on "Present Courses of Study" in Germany, is a real contribution to educational principles. It emphasizes what cannot be too often or too strongly insisted upon—the psychological arrangement of studies in accordance with the "nascent" periods of the child's mental development,—one of the most fruitful of the recent discoveries of pedagogy. The scientific principles which underlie all correct practice are too apt to be forgotten by the teacher in the actual work of the school-room. He has been too blindly guided by mere practice, and practice, instead of making perfect, has only petrified his errors.

The concluding chapter estimates the German school system, pointing out its defects and dangers, and suggesting wherein it is superior to the American. Some of the lessons which our friends across the border are exhorted to learn from Germany we, as Canadians, have already learned. Others we might well give heed to.

J. O. QUANTZ.