Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming, are checked below.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

- [ ] Coloured covers/ Couverture de couleur
- [ ] Covers damaged/ Couverture endommagée
- [ ] Covers restored and/or laminated/ Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée
- [ ] Cover title missing/ Le titre de couverture manque
- [ ] Coloured maps/ Cartes géographiques en couleur
- [ ] Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/ Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)
- [ ] Coloured plates and/or illustrations/ Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur
- [x] Bound with other material/ Relié avec d'autres documents
- [x] Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/ La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure
- [ ] Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/ Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.

- [ ] Coloured pages/ Pages de couleur
- [ ] Pages damaged/ Pages endommagées
- [ ] Pages restored and/or laminated/ Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées
- [x] Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/ Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées
- [ ] Pages detached/ Pages détachées
- [x] Showthrough/ Transparence
- [ ] Quality of print varies/ Qualité inégale de l'impression
- [x] Continuous pagination/ Pagination continue
- [ ] Includes index(es)/ Comprend un (des) index

  Title on header taken from:/ Le titre de l'en-tête provient:

- [ ] Title page of issue/ Page de titre de la livraison
- [ ] Caption of issue/ Titre de départ de la livraison
- [ ] Masthead/ Générique (périodiques) de la livraison

- [ ] Additional comments:/ Commentaires supplémentaires:

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below/
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10X	12X	14X	16X	18X	20X	22X	24X	26X	28X	30X	32X
					✓						

THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

AND SCHOOL MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1892.

THE CLAIMS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY M. F. LIBBY, B.A., PARKDALE COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

"WHAT knowledge is of most worth," is a question that will not down. Bacon, among his aphorisms on studies, endeavours to show that studies may be regarded as specifics for mental faults and defects. If all human beings were of precisely the same pattern the task of giving them mental food and exercise might be essayed with method and hope. Though they vary greatly in capacity and requirement, the maker of curricula for free public schools must proceed on the assumption that they vary but little, not because he believes his assumption, but because it is impossible to construct an elastic and practicable course of studies. Bacon would have adapted the studies to the individual wants: our modern educationist would make a great advance if he could even adapt the studies of our schools to the wants of the average pupil.

The logical course would be to inquire what powers or faculties of the average pupil should be developed by state schools; no doubt if the subject were thus dealt with there would be different replies to the inquiry. But if a working agreement were reached the next inquiry would be, "what studies will develop those powers most effectively and with the least waste of effort?"

Some may think that these inquiries have been made and that our curriculum is the substance of the replies to them. But a glance at the history of the curricula of school systems must convince the most complacent that many subjects are on the list to-day almost by chance; that is to say, there is no apparent philosophical sanction for the fact that our course includes certain studies in certain amounts. Some of the subjects indeed appear to have been selected in the middle ages because they were curious and ingenious, rather than because they were "of the most worth" in a liberal education.

Most of us have at some time heard a pedagogic reformer prove that our curriculum is nearly all wrong, that it should be demolished by a competent committee of experts and forced to give place to a new, logical, and absolutely perfect successor. And most of us have sighed for the competent

committee and dismissed the contention, as Burke dismissed his consideration of the bran-new constitution of France, with conservative contempt. New curricula like new constitutions must be made by continual small improvements not by sweeping revolutions.

When it is found that faculties of pupils are being developed by the state which might be left to development by the parents or the pupils themselves, or when it is found that in whole communities we are labouring to develop powers which are already excessively developed or neglecting powers that are almost atrophied, it will be wisdom to look to remedial changes.

For example, in country districts where the pupils walk miles to school, much gymnasium work may be an injury; in countries where the people are too emotional and artistic severe mental discipline will be helpful in producing balance, but in countries where the people are hard and practical, but inartistic, music and literature should be specially encouraged. By the continuous application of such broad and unquestionable principles some approach, steady, though tardy, to a perfect curriculum may be looked for

It is the intention of the present paper not to discuss the general question but merely to test the particular subject of English Grammar in an unprejudiced manner and in the hope of saying only what will be freely admitted by all thinking men who may read it. We would disarm combative criticism by earnestly assuring the reader that though the following remarks may sound controversial, their sole object is to arrive at an agreement as to a few vital truths. It is well known that the value of grammar is a famous battle-field; *cogitata et visa* then, are all we offer.

It is next to impossible to say whether Grammar is knowledge of such worth as to be entitled to an hour or two out of the school week, without instituting a comparison between its claims and those of other branches of learning. But it is thought expedient not to enlarge upon that comparison at this time, but to state the claims of Grammar as clearly as possible, and to leave those who find themselves capable of doing so to weigh these claims against those of Botany, Chemistry, and Physics; Algebra, Arithmetic, and Geometry; Book-keeping, Drawing, Calisthenics, and such other studies as are pursued in our secondary schools, each of which claims and receives as great a fraction of the time of teachers and pupils as does Grammar. The comparison with Latin, Greek, French, or German is hardly necessary, since the elementary study of the Classics and Moderns is identical for the most part with the study of English Grammar.

In order to prevent misconceptions it should at once be stated that English Grammar is here used in the sense in which it is now commonly used in our Ontario High Schools; the term has had a varying extension for many generations, not to say ages, and even to-day it has various meanings in different lands. The *High School Grammar* deals with (*a*) The Historical Outline of the English Language; (*b*) The Functions and Relations of words, phrases, and clauses in sentence construction; (*c*) The Inflections of the Parts of Speech; (*d*) The Prefixes, Suffixes and Stems of words as used in Derived and Compound words; (*e*) Parsing and Analysis of regular constructions, and of many irregular and idiomatic constructions; and (*f*) with the elements of Comparative Philology as based upon an experimental study of Sound-Analysis. Most of these topics are dealt with thoroughly in this text-book and not merely in the elementary style of edu-

cational primers. The method of the book is as experimental and scientific as is consistent with the necessity of imparting a large amount of knowledge. All through the book there is a carefully selected terminology, defined with as much accuracy as the inconsistencies of the mixed and sometimes illogical classifications of Grammar permit, and used with singular uniformity and precision of extension.

The intelligent reader, though not familiar with our course, may from these statements gather the scope of the term Grammar as we use it. It is above all things the study of syntax, that is, the *Relations of Words* in sentence-making, but it deals also with the *History of English*, with *Word-Formation*, the *Parts of Speech* and their *Inflections*, and in an elementary way with *Phonetics*. It is the study of these phenomena carried on in the spirit of experimental science and by Socratic methods of teaching that we would defend and advocate.

We shall now proceed to state the objects which when attained are believed to justify the time and energy spent in this pursuit and to discuss incidentally the practicability of attaining those objects with reasonable success.

1. The first object we shall mention in the study of Grammar is to acquire a general and more or less exact knowledge of the history of our mother-tongue. That English is descended from Gothic and not from Latin or Greek; that English has made alliances with various great families of languages; that Alfred's English differs from Chaucer's, Chaucer's from Shakespeare's, and Shakespeare's from Tennyson's; that English was once possessed of numerous inflections, that the values of our vowels and consonants have changed, that our vocabulary has grown enormously in a thousand years; these are truths, as all will agree, that no student who asks for a teacher's certificate, or a matriculation certificate, should be ignorant of; and if we go a little further and try to account for these truths and to show their bearing upon the present growth of English, if we discuss the standards of modern pronunciation, the values of dictionaries as guides to good English, and the amount of tolerance we should extend to innovations on conventional syntax and spelling and other departments of language, who will raise a hand in protest, who indeed will not admit freely that this phase of Historical Grammar must be dealt with in the English classes, unless students are to display an ignorance of the mother-tongue that is not permitted even in the least bookish circles of society? Finally, will any English specialist claim that this phase of English should be dragged into the Literature class, even though Chaucer be the author, or if we except the last points of the list, into the Rhetoric class?

2. That English Grammar teaches or can teach a boy to speak and to write correctly is a claim which is no longer urged so strongly as it was, yet the fact that it was not long since regarded not merely as a strong claim but as the very defining mark and *raison d'être* of Grammar should warn radical enthusiasts to ignore it with caution. It is very rarely the case in the history of education that a complete error has held its place for generations by the sanction of the universal judgment of leading educationists. When what has been taken for a great truth is discovered to be merely a small truth there is of course a tendency to call the small truth a falsehood, as if to punish it for the imposture. Even twenty years ago Lindley Murray's position was almost unassailed and many can remember how strange it sounded to hear that Grammar is less valuable for imparting correctness of

speech than for mental training. Murray's view had prevailed for nearly one hundred years. To-day the reäction is complete, and we venture to predict that henceforward the truth that correctness of speech and of writing depends largely upon a distinct and readily available knowledge of the laws of grammar will become more generally accepted and acted upon, though it ought never to be exaggerated beyond its right value.

It is next to impossible for a college trained man to determine just through what influences he attained correctness of speech. A rigid inspection of his intellectual history would perhaps convince him that the rules of Grammar had nothing to do with the matter; he might attribute such correctness as he discovered in himself to the influence of his parents, his teachers, his chums at school and his friends of riper years, to sermons, lectures, plays, speeches, and books which he had heard or read, and to his own vigilant care to be conventional. If he asked himself how often he had consciously referred to the rule that the verb must be made to match its subject and the pronoun its antecedent he might conlude that the instances were rare. It is because of such conclusions that recent writers have rejected Grammar as a means of attaining correctness of speech and writing. And as long as these views are restricted to the education of the class to which these writers belong, and as long as these writers do not overrate their grammatical attainments their position is unassailable. But when their conclusions are applied to the education of boys from illiterate homes, and illiterate villages, and illiterate section-schools where the illiterate third-class teacher who "got a certificate" without himself attaining correctness, doles out illiterate English to these boys and their sisters, then the case is different and it will be necessary for these writers to go over the grounds with a new set of data. Again, when the average college bred man assumes that he has attained correctness of speech sufficient for colloquial and ordinary literary purposes he is usually not overrating his attainments, but when he assumes that he has all the precision and solidity of sentence structure which a perfect mastery of syntax, whether acquired by studying classical or English sentence structures, has given to writers like Burke and Macaulay, or speakers like Gladstone and Edward Blake, or when he assumes that he has the perfect ease in long sentences, and the perfect self-possession in parenthetical sentences which the study of syntax would certainly give him, he assumes too much. But as the college bred man, particularly if he has occasion to speak in public either prepared or *ex tempore*, would be the first to admit this, whether with jest or lamentation according to his disposition, it need not be argued at length. De Quincey says, "we have never seen the writer who has not sometimes violated the accidence or the syntax of English Grammar;" he speaks of Grammar as a rare attainment and declares that only two or three, "one being Shakespeare, whom some affect to consider as belonging to a semi-barbarous age," approached perfection in it. In our own times Wordsworth, Tennyson, Macaulay, and Goldwin Smith have been notable for grammatical precision. Tennyson has repeatedly spoken of grammar directly and has condescended to allude to its technicalities in discussing the meaning of certain passages from his own writings. Browning shows profound respect for formal syntax even in his most elliptical sentences.

As for the necessity the illiterate feel for set rules to guide them we have the frequent testimony of them-

selves to the simple truth that they have made the laws of syntax a second nature, and we have repeatedly heard honest scholars who had not had the advantage of cultured circumstances in youth declare that they owed more to the Grammar than to Literature for correctness of speech.

In concluding the second use of Grammar studies let us ask the reader whether he should not think it worth while to master each and every rule of syntax contained in any English Grammar he ever saw if it were merely that he might know, when he had written a letter or an essay, whether it satisfied the conventional requirements of accidence and syntax, and whether he would consider a High School pupil fit to take a teacher's certificate, or to enter college, who could not merely correct a sentence but also refer the error to an established principle of usage for the satisfaction, say, of any one who might differ in opinion from him.

Even in school systems which affect to ignore grammar as a useless subject it will be observed that the text books on Rhetoric recognize the impossibility of ignoring grammatical purity, and it may be easily proved that the majority of recent Rhetorics, even such as those by McElroy of the University of Pennsylvania, and Hill of Harvard, deal with practical syntax elaborately.

3. The third claim of Grammar is that it is a science inferior to no other science studied in High Schools. We know at least two of the best teachers of science in our schools who hold this opinion. Tyndall and Spencer have said that grammar is a science of the highest value as a mental training, and Huxley, though he has spoken, as far as we know, less directly, has spoken even more emphatically of the value of language-training, and in such terms as to preclude the notion that he meant either the training of Rhetoric or of Literature. None of these men would speak without mature observation and reflection, and when they do speak they speak with a view of the field of science, more general and more particular than many can command. They would not themselves ask anyone to accept their verdict on authority, but they would demand and rightly that their verdict should not be set aside without solid reasoning based upon equal experience and powers of judgment,

Now if this verdict be correct it is difficult to imagine how anyone can say that grammar is declining in importance as a school study. If scientific value is enough to justify the retention of Geometry and the introduction of Biology, surely that value if possessed in so eminent a degree by Grammar should be enough to enable it to hold its own. The English master might of course object that this argument hands grammar over to the science master, and if it were not for the other uses of the study the conclusion would be sound; but while in most cases it is safe to say that the teacher of Chemistry is better able to teach Grammar than the teacher of Poetry, it is yet highly probable that in the interest of the mental symmetry of the latter it is best he should retain it; and it cannot be questioned that the teaching of Poetry and Grammar alternately is far better for his nervous constitution, and hence for his work, then the continuous dwelling upon emotional subjects would be.

What features are essential to a valuable science subject? There must be plenty of available specimens for experimental work; there should be many varieties of phenomena and species; the phenomena should impress the pupil with their importance in life (though not necessarily with their immediate utility); then there should be room not only for classification but for theorizing and broad

generalizing. If these features are present the scientific faculties of observation and reasoning may be developed, and the pursuit of precision of statement, of truth of inference, and of breadth and strength of grasp becomes possible. These are the splendid possibilities of an ideal science, and these are the actual results of the study of Grammar. Instead of rocks, flowers, insects, acids and gases, Grammar has words, phrases and sentences; they are universally available in endless profusion; the specimens are infinitely various in species; the differences of species are sometimes so marked that a young child can perceive and state them; sometimes the species are so subtly blended that experts cannot say where one species ends and the next begins; the phenomena are so important that without them thought itself vanishes into the dark mental movements of the savage or of the deaf mute; so important that all the world mustuse them all the time; so important that their importance is lost sight of in their universal and essential omnipresence.

Physics is a great and noble study, Biology is a study that must arouse the interest of the dullest, Geometry is so ideal a subject that a poet might well regard it as the only science fit for the cultivation of an angelic reason; but where shall we find a science so profuse and varied in its subject matter, with specimens so easily collected and withal of so close and human an application to the life and business of us all?

It is probable that a rightly constructed mind closely pursuing any of the ordinary sciences would attain that perfection of action which is the common object of them all, as discipline; it may be, probably is, a prejudice of our own, but it seems to us that there is no science equal to Grammar as a means of producing strength with subtlety, accuracy with elasticity and truth with tolerance. What any one may claim for Geometry as giving its student a conception of the standard of ideal truth will not be refuted, but while inferior to that study in that respect Grammar is more helpful to the average mind in a dozen other respects.

If nothing more could be said for Grammar than all must agree to (who are competent to judge of the matter) with regard to its worth as a science it might safely be asserted that Grammar never stood so high in the curriculum as it does to-day.

4. But English Grammar is the rock upon which rest the two great departments of the Moderns and the Classics. The university man who slights or neglects English Grammar in our High Schools, is engaged naïvely in hoisting himself with his own petard. The student of Latin or Greek who does not resent attacks upon the teaching of Grammar in our High Schools is like the warder of a castle who sees the enemy crossing the moat and fails to give the alarm or to help the men at the drawbridge. Only very stupid people will seriously contend that in this country Latin would flourish just as well if the Classical master had to do all the work of the teacher of English Grammar in addition to his own. We know positively that the most successful Classical masters in Ontario attribute much of their success to the work of the teachers of English Grammar, and further that the best Classical masters fail comparatively without that assistance. But the case is more serious than even that argument sets forth. If Grammar were reduced to the state that its enemies desire it should be reduced to in this Province, if it were abandoned in the Public Schools and taught in the High Schools only so far as it concerns grammatical purity for rhetorical purposes as set forth in our second argument, the study of

the Classics would practically cease here for the simple reason that the classical master who rarely has his fair share of time now, would need nearly twice as much then and get not one minute more. It is hoped that those who are most concerned in this part of the subject will not take these words amiss, for both the so-called practical people and the so-called artistic people are the enemies of English Grammar and of the Classics equally.

There is a body of technical terms used in common by the teachers of all languages, these are assailed as useless lumber and were it not that as a science Grammar is absolutely impossible without them it is more than probable that the teaching of them by the English master would cease forthwith. Teachers of Classics and of French and German, may regard this possibility with complacency, but they could not so regard the accomplished fact.

But really good classical scholarship is out of the question without a more than common knowledge of the English sentence. If this required proof it could be proved abundantly. For example, how can a boy be successful in handling indirect questions in Latin prose who cannot detect the construction in the sentence he is to translate? How can he master the use of the imperfect past tenses if he cannot recognize them in their concealed forms in English? What can he do with absolute cases and predicate nominatives and participial attributes if he can not understand them in the mother-tongue? In England, to be sure, the classical master teaches him the English sentence as well as the translation, and has unlimited time for both (from which some persons here conclude that English Grammar is not taught at Rugby and Eton), but in Ontario the teacher of Latin and Greek has scant time for merely the translation and the *differences of grammar* in the translation and prose.

5. We must now pass to the fifth and last claim of English Grammar. To the English master and to the lover of Literature it is the greatest claim: it is that Grammar is the only solid foundation on which the study of Literature can rest. We do not wish to be misunderstood in this. Literature has relations to ethics, to æsthetics, and to logic, even to civics, and to theology, and there are not wanting those who believe that all these relations should be dwelt upon by the teacher of Literature, as Mr. Churton Collins' recent work on the subject has ably explained. But it must be obvious to most sensible persons that the first desideratum in High School Literature is that the student shall get a habit of understanding what the author has to tell him, in other words that he shall learn to read in a sense just one degree above that of pronouncing the printed words. This is perhaps the relation of Literature to Logic in its simpler sense. Now we wish to state emphatically and expecting temporary dissent, that without the essential knowledge of Grammar this power of reading with common intelligence is absolutely impossible. When a man who has learned to read, but has not studied even the elements of Grammar reads such a sentence as,—"I looked, and saw him open the book, and read therein." He reads it as intelligently perhaps as a college president could. Does not this fact refute our proposition then? By no means. The man knows that "I" is the subject of the assertion, that "looked" makes an assertion, that "saw" governs "him" and that "open" and "read" both describe "him," also that "therein" modifies "read." If an educated person should take the pains to ask the man with which other words each of these words is most intimately con-

nected in sense he would find that the man would know enough to reply as correctly as an average school-boy, provided the questions were asked without technicalities. If the teacher were to suggest false answers, as for instance that "therein" belongs in sense to "open" the man would look sceptical, or even question the statement. Now how far does such knowledge fall short of that necessary for grammatical analysis? Surely all must agree that it needs only a few technicalities to reach the standard. Few will dispute this, but now many will say that is only common sense applied to language and everybody in learning to speak learns to make that application. Precisely so, and no better definition of grammar can be made than this if we regard Grammar in this fifth argument as the solid foundation of the study of Literature. Grammar is common sense applied to language. For the understanding of easy colloquial English and of all such English as the illiterate use or hear no greater knowledge of Grammar is needed. For reading the Bible, for buying and selling, for reading Burns and for the short, easy speeches of Shakespeare no further Grammar is needed than common sense applied, untechnically and unconsciously, to English, and if there were no other forms of English this fifth ground of defence for Grammar might be at once abandoned.

But the truth is that within the English language there is another language which for convenience we shall call *learned English.* To the illiterate it is an unknown tongue, to the half-educated reader it is a region toward which he looks with some horror, in which he occasionally wanders with uncertain step, from which he hastens with perplexity and fatigue and of which he speaks with ardent but spurious admiration. It is the region of Milton and Burke, of Hume, Gibson, Dr. Johnson, De Quincey, Savage and Browning. To say that the *Paradise Lost* or the *Reflections on the French Revolution,* or De Quincey's *Cæsars* are difficult reading for the illiterate is to imply that by an effort and with a lexicon they may understand these works, but that is far from the truth. The only true statement of the case is that learned English is a foreign language to them, less intelligible to them than the language of Chaucer would be.

Many of our great writers were men who had become so familiar with language in its grammatical aspect, and so thoroughly familiar with the long, complicated, inverted, and involved sentences of Virgil and Livy, that such constructions had become the mother-tongue of their maturer years and were used by them freely and habitually with perfect clearness and force. Grammar is usually regarded as a merely non-productive element in education, but in this matter it produced a form of literature which could never have come into existence had not its authors made a prolonged and minute study of syntax.

Now just as this learned English was itself a product of familiarity with the classical syntax so it has never been easy to any but classical students and it may be safely risked as an assertion that not one per cent. of those English people who have not studied Latin have ever read the *Paradise Lost* through, and those of this class who have read it have almost uniformly believed it dull and overrated.

Any who are not familiar with the power of sentence-analysis possessed by the average candidate for a teacher's certificate in Ontario should ask those who have examined such candidates for information. We would suggest that the examiners be asked whether the average candidate could determine the relations—the sense-relations without any technicalities—

of the words, phrases, and clauses of the first sentence of the *Paradise Lost*, or of the ninth section of the *Ode to Intimations of Immortality*, while reading along at the usual rate. The fact is that such a grasp of learned English sentences as is implied in such a power of reading Milton is confined at present to a few men who have made a thorough course in Latin prose or a very uncommon course in English syntax.

It is difficult to conceive of an English master who would say that such a grasp of syntax as will enable a boy to read Milton or Burke is beyond High School work. Hence, we shall, for the sake of brevity, assume that all will agree that enough analysis should be taught in our schools to enable at least the brightest pupils to reach that stage of reading. No teacher of literature will for an instant argue that a boy understands "Paradise Lost" in a literary sense, who cannot answer clearly all questions concerning the relations of the parts of each sentence so long as the questions are fairly put and untechnical. Now we should like to ask of any one who has followed the subject to this point whether it would be well to teach analysis in connection with literature. A universal *no* is the only possible reply. Then the problem is narrowed down to this, — (*a*) *No one can understand "Paradise Lost" as literature who cannot analyze its sentences* (with or without technical terms such as *subject, adverbial adjunct, subordinate clause*, which in reality are terms so helpful and even necessary that any intelligent person would invent them, or others like them, if he once set to work to analyze seriously); (*b*) *It is desirable that High School pupils should understand as literature, much English which they cannot analyze at present;* (*c*) Where and how shall their powers of analysis be developed so as to enable them to cope with learned English?

No answer can be imagined beyond these two: (*a*) In the Literature Class; (*b*) In the Grammar Class. In the Literature Class a great deal of logical analysis may be and is done under the name of Poetry. Those who rail most against turning the Poetry Class into a Grammar and Rhetoric Class really do the most of this disguised Grammar work; but all are agreed that as far as possible the Poetry Class shall be for poetry, that is art, beauty, great thoughts and lofty principles, hence all must agree that this fundamental work upon which all appreciation of literature of the more difficult order rests must be done by exercises in analysis in the Grammar Class. It is a temptation just here to take a passage from Milton and to ask, not the pupil, but our reader, a few simple untechnical questions as to the relations of the words, phrases, and clauses, and when he smiles and protests his inability to answer such questions off-hand, to ask him how much claim he has to praise the sublime art of what is merely obscure to his intellect. There is no single line of work in which so many of our best pupils are so absolutely bewildered as in simple untechnical analysis of even so clear a writer as Tennyson. Passage after passage in the *Idylls of the King* is utterly beyond the analytic powers of five sixths of those who obtain third and even second-class teaching certificates. Those who believe that these pupils understand the *Idylls* as Literature, because through a sort of maudlin sympathy they appear to follow the teacher's elucidation, are dreadfully deceived. Tennyson, Gladstone, and Swinburne, learned their *Odyssey* and their *Odes of Horace* burdened with a minute grammatical analysis and there is reason to believe that they profited as much from the poetry of them as if they had wept and smiled with an

aesthetic teacher who did not himself understand the analysis of the sentences but who was ablaze with the love of beauty in its girls' boarding-school acceptation. It is certain that many pupils would never acquire what the self-constituted censors of taste would regard as real soaring poetical culture if they had to take flight from this hard intellectual ground of intelligent analysis, but the only loss to the state would be that of a few odes to autumn leaves and wounded hearts, and similar effusions in our weekly papers, and a vast amount of affected sentiment and affectation of taste.

Grammar is full of technical terms. It is impossible to teach the subject without naming the parts of speech, the inflections, the kinds of sentences, and these simple requirements involve about fifty technical terms. The minute study of the English sentence which precedes Latin prose composition involves many more necessary technicalities. The scientific study is concerned very largely with the defining of these terms, and has added a few and changed a few on its own account. But when those who object to these technical terms are asked which they would delete they usually conclude upon examination that we really need a few more.

We have not in this paper said all that can be said for Grammar, there are at least two or three other benefits accruing to the pursuit of it, but we humbly submit that, with the possible exception of Literature, there is hardly a subject on the curriculum which can muster so overwhelming a line of great and indisputable claims as this subject.

Historical Grammar might be taught as a department of English History and Grammar so far as it affects purity and power of rhetorical expression might be taught as a chapter of rhetoric, but what subject can make three just claims so imposing as grammar makes when it claims to be *in the first rank as a science*, to be *the open sesame to sound scholarship in foreign languages*, and to be *the only legitimate introduction to art*, as those infallible educational philosophers, the Greeks, rightly held it to be.

It is announced as the intention of those in authority to absolve candidates for second-class certificates from an examination in this subject. In other words, there is to be a gap of one year in the High School Grammar course, and this the very year which precedes the matriculation and second-class examination; the very year when our pupils are reading that English which has most need of analytic powers; the year in which Latin Prose and Greek Prose, and French and German Prose demand the most accurate insight into English syntax. We protest against this with whatever weight the arguments of this paper may lend to our protest, and we are in a position to state that some of the masters of this Province who know most about the subject, who have taught it for five, ten and twenty years, and who have the interest of solid attainments and broad intelligent literary culture most at heart, are opposed to the change, and that those masters who favour the change are not men of long experience in teaching the subject, do not profess special knowledge of it, and are not impressed with its profound and vital relations to the study of foreign languages, and to the study of our own classical writers.

We trust that all friends of scholarship, in the true sense of the word, and particularly that all college men, will weigh these suggestions, and that if any concession be made to cheap and flimsy sciolism it may be with a grave and adequate appreciation of the proposed change. If it be held, after serious deliberation, that we

should give second-class certificates to pupils whose wretched and confessed inability to analyze comparatively easy sentences at the time of passing the third-class examination, has been augmented by a year of idleness, what is to become of analysis as taught by these students to their unfortunate pupils? The argument that during this year of no Grammar the analysis will be done in the Poetry class will satisfy nobody. There is but one right course, and that is to leave the matter as it is; the next best course is to have a paper on *analysis* for second-class candidates.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY—WHAT TO AVOID IN TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

BY WILLIAM M. DAVIS.

THE sub-title given to this paper expresses, as briefly as possible, the general considerations that I wish to present in contrast to those discussed in my first article.* The theme then was, in effect: What should the teacher know? The conviction that he should be informed far beyond the limits of his teaching was illustrated by bringing forward a number of specific examples of the kind of facts that I think every live teacher should have in mind. I shall now consider the opposite side of the question—What is unnecessary, or unimportant, or injurious in geographical teaching? The undesirable elements encountered to a greater or less degree in teaching geography, are divisible into superfluities and errors. I shall consider a number of these in order.

In my first paper, the chief emphasis was given to the importance of storing the teacher's mind with facts and explanations on the physical side of geography; not that other sides should be overlooked, but that I found space for illustration of only one division of the subject. It should now be repeated, as was then said, that knowledge of this kind is not to be discharged by the teacher in a flood, overwhelming the pupils before they can appreciate it; but that it should be presented only when called for, piecemeal, slowly and chiefly in the way of illustrating or explaining subjects that are more directly pertinent to the usual routine of the study. It is perhaps not often that teachers of geography should be advised to husband their information; and yet I can believe that a well-taught beginner might over task his class with an exuberance of illustration, making the geographical diet too rich for his pupils. An excess of precision is also to be avoided; minuteness of knowledge is not to be expected in children. Strong, broad descriptions are preferable, in which the chief elements of form, area, climate, resources and population are linked together in a natural and effective way, and emphasized by illustration, whereby the essentials are easily remembered by pupils of ordinary ability. Overzeal, leading to excess in quantity or precision, is characteristic of first efforts, when the facts of the subject have not taken positions proper to their relative importance. There is a want of perspective in such teaching; matters of detail are brought forward and confused with larger matters of much greater importance; but with

* *Educational Review*, III. 417.

practice this mistake disappears. It is not a mistake of the kind we are apt to suffer from; and I mention it chiefly because it might at first naturally follow from the acceptance of the advice already given, to the effect that teachers should be widely informed before beginning to teach.

In contrast with this, I may mention a mistake of quite another kind, and probably the most serious of the difficulties that now afflict geography. This comes with teachers whose preparation is insufficient. They feel their weakness. They see necessity of strengthening their teaching, but not possessing the elements of strength in themselves, they try to borrow, and then too often add difficulty instead of value to their instruction. It is for this reason that there is so much useless memorizing in the study of geography. It must be very stupid work to both teacher and pupils. A teacher, well informed on the subjects introduced briefly in the text-book, would feel choked if he had no opportunity of bringing in appropriate side-illustrations and explanations. A teacher not well informed, has no sufficient fund of illustrations with which to refresh the tiresome facts of the page, and therefore they alone constitute the subject of his teaching. Too great stress is then necessarily laid on *verbatim* recitations, for there is nothing else with which to occupy the time. This is a sad difficulty, and it attends poor teaching in all subjects. I know of a case in which a teacher of history, feeling that his class was not doing work enough, required each student to memorize the names and dates of the Popes, in order to give more body to the class work—a poverty-stricken expedient. I have been told of another case in which a class in geology had to recite from Dana's *Manual of Geology*, word for word — a most shocking misuse of that excellent compendium. Is there, however, any subject in which this error is so common as in geography? It is not only the fault of the teachers. Many text-books are evidently prepared with the idea that every word is to be learned. How, except by rote, could a scholar make intelligent report of such a paragraph as this, extracted from a well-known English text-book of physical geography:

"The Danube receives a large number of tributaries, of which the most important are, on the right, the Isar, Inn, Raab, Drave, Save, Morave and Isker. On the left are the Altmühl, Regen, Waag, Gran, Theiss, Temes, Aluta, Sereth and Pruth. Many of these are large streams with other important tributaries. The Danube drains upwards of 300,000 square miles of country."

Pages could be filled with quotations of that kind; yet to what do they lead? If it be conceived that any one should ever wish to know facts so unimportant, let them be learned from the map, where they are more expressive than in a printed list. If it is important for the tributaries of all rivers to be stated outside of the maps, place them in tabular form, and utilize the space thus gained by inserting something worth remembering about one or another of the examples; something that is not better presented in maps or tables. It is sad to think of children being perplexed with such stuff as is given in the above quotation; yet the book from which it is taken reached a fifth edition only twenty years ago.

It should be noticed that the correction of this error does not lie so much in the substitution of one text-book for another, as they are now constituted, but in the improved use of books by giving less attention to the unimportant paragraphs. This correction is in the hands of the teacher; he must, from his own knowledge,

aided by wall maps and the school library, relieve the monotony of text-book teaching. If I should condense into the fewest words the intent of this part of my argument, they would be: "Avoid *verbatim* recitations; put something of life and nature into teaching."

Between the two extremes of superabundance and barrenness, a middle path must be selected by experience and good judgment. Facts that appear isolated must be bound together in their true relations; trivial matters must be lightly passed over; chapters of importance, in which the class finds difficulty, must be kept in hand and expounded till familiar. The best results of such a method can be gained only by a judgment so good and an experience so long, that nothing but the truly professional spirit of teaching, entered on as a life-work, will insure the improvement that we all desire and are striving for.

Lest some might misinterpret what I have just said, to mean that all memorizing of the facts of geography should be omitted, I must state explicitly that in geography, as in spelling, there seems to be no way of avoiding a large amount of memorizing, if the pupil is to have a sufficient fund of information with which to extend his own experience in later life. The labours of English spelling can be lightened by grouping words of similar derivation, as I used to learn them in my *Scholar's Companion;* but I cannot imagine any method by which the labour of learning to spell can be entirely done away with. So with geography; it is essential that every child should learn the names and positions of the larger geographical elements; but to learn them simply as recitations of words printed on the map is a fatal mistake. Several years must be included in the geographical course, during which the world has to be gone over and over, with more care and thoroughness at each repetition, before the familiarity that we all should have with it can be gained. This labour cannot be omitted; but it may be lightened by judicious illustration. Still, there is no royal road. I have no recipe by which all but the easy parts of the subject can be omitted and yet have the pupil well taught. Wide information on the part of the teacher and attentive effort on the part of the pupil, are essentials to success; but the labour thus thrown on both need not be dull and stupefying.

How shall the teacher know what need not be taught? What are the unessentials in the routine work of geographical teaching? We may learn something here by asking one another a series of questions that children may have to learn at school. The small value of some of the questions is not so well indicated by our having forgotten the answers as by our not caring if we have forgotten. It is natural enough that many things learned at school should be forgotten afterward when the mind is occupied with other things. It must not be inferred that Latin and Greek should not be studied in school, because they are afterward forgotten; we are sorry enough if we cannot translate from the ancient languages when we meet them in words or passages. But this is not the case with the names of the branches of the Danube. Who cares whether he can at all repeat them in order? He may know that the Inn comes in from the Alps and the Theiss from the plains of Hungary; the others may be looked for on a map, if they are wanted. It is this indifference to the facts of routine geography that tells us of their small value. It is the easy recovery of them, when desired, that makes the memorizing of their names so useless. They appear clearly enough on the maps. Leave them there till wanted, and select from the many a few about

which something more than a name can be given; not that name and incident both need to be learned by heart, but that the incident supplied by the teacher serves as a little barb to hold the fact in the memory. If the teacher, with all his preparation, has no incident or illustration pertinent to the facts, let them pass hardly noticed; if they are so unimportant that he knows nothing more than their name and place, as given on the map, and as anyone might know them, in spite of his having given time to careful preparation on the various sides of geographical study, then omit them and turn the attention of the class to something that he can tell more about. It may be that the choice of subjects made by the teacher will not always include the most important places and subjects; but it should at least include the things he can best teach; and, as such, the things of the highest value to the class under his instruction.

The incidents, illustrations, and explanations to which I have repeatedly referred should be introduced not only to help the pupil's memory, but also to increase the reality of the subjects that are studied. Take care that the names learned from the text or the map represent places and things, and not words or lines. We have all heard of the man who confessed that his chief recollection of Austria was as a red patch on the map hanging on his schoolroom wall. Last summer I heard of a similar example. A little boy was watching his aunt draw and colour a map of the United States: when Ohio was reached and a blue tint given to it the boy exclaimed, "Ohio is not blue; it is green." Emphasis in his teaching had been given to the unrealities of geography.—*The Educational Review.*

THE WATERWAYS OF THE NORTH-WEST.

BY H. N. RUTTAN, C.E.

THE three chief rivers of North America, east of the Rocky Mountains, are:

(1) The Mississippi, drainage area 1,244,000 square miles.

(2) The St. Lawrence, drainage area 510,000 square miles.

(3) The Nelson, drainage area 480,000 square miles.

It is proposed at present to consider the two last named in connection with the facilities which they afford for the transportation of the surplus grain of the North-West to the seaboard and to Europe. Chicago may be taken as the principal head of navigation on the St. Lawrence, and Winnipeg on the Nelson route. The railway haul from the great wheat producing area of the continent to Chicago may be stated at 1,000 miles, and to Winnipeg at 200 miles. The distance from Chicago to the head of ocean navigation at Montreal is 1,260 miles, and from Winnipeg to the head of ocean navigation at York is 660 miles. Montreal is distant from Liverpool 3,225 miles, and from York to Liverpool is 2,966 miles.

	Inland Navigation	Ocean Navg'n	Total Miles
Chicago to Liverpool	1,260	3,225	4,485
Winnipeg to Liverpool	660	2,966	3,626

The total distance from the centre of the wheat area to Liverpool is: via Chicago, 5,485 miles; via Winnipeg, 3,826 miles. The saving in distance by the Nelson route being 1,659 miles, made up as follows:

Railway, 800 miles; inland navigation, 600 miles; ocean navigation, 259 miles; total, 1,659 miles.

In view of the above facts it is certainly worth while to look carefully into the practical questions affecting the navigation of the Nelson route, and if the difficulties are such as can be readily overcome, the early adoption of that route for the great bulk of the export and import trade of central North America is assured. It is not considered necessary here to answer the statement, that is always made when the Hudson Bay route is mentioned. "That it is impossible to navigate Hudson's Straits." It should, in the absence of any proof to the contrary, be sufficient that one of the most practical officers of the navy, Captain, now Admiral Markham, after a personal examination, has reported strongly in favour of the contention that the navigation of Hudson's Straits is commercially practicable. In Hudson's Bay, between the straits and the mouth of the Nelson, there are no difficulties as Dr. Bell says, in speaking of the bay, "It is open all the year round."

Lake Winnipeg, at the bottom of a basin which, during the glacial period, had its outlet to the south, now receives the drainage from an area extending from the head waters of the Mississippi and the height of land west of Lake Superior to the summit of the Rocky Mountains, and from the watershed of the Missouri to those of the Athabaska and Churchill Rivers. This immense drainage area of some 480,000 square miles, had its outlet through the Nelson River into Hudson's Bay.

A short distance to the east of the Nelson and close to it is the Hayes River. The Hayes rises about twenty-eight miles from the Nelson at the outlet of Lake Winnipeg, and empties into Hudson's Bay six miles from the mouth of the Nelson. The Hayes drains a large district to the east and north of Lake Winnipeg.

The mouth of the Red River is, according to the Government maps, 710 feet above sea level. Both the Nelson and the Hayes offer practical routes to the sea from Lake Winnipeg. Enough is known about the Nelson to make it certain that, by the improvement of the channel, construction of ship canals, or ship railways, ocean steamers may be brought into Lake Winnipeg, and possibly into the mouth of the Red River. While there is not sufficient data to enable an estimate of the cost of the necessary work to be made, there appear to be fewer and less serious obstacles in the way than on the St. Lawrence route from Chicago.

The Hayes River offers an alternative route between Lake Winnipeg and Hudson's Bay. This is the old Hudson's Bay Company boat route, which has been used as the chief avenue of the company's European trade from the earliest times to the present day. From what is known of the Hayes, there appears to be no difficulty in the way of canalizing that river for inland boats of nine feet draught. The following summary of a description of the Hayes route is compiled from Dr. Bell's report, Geological Survey of Canada, 1878:

Norway House to Echimamish, 28 miles, by Nelson River, which is about a mile wide and full of islands, shores low but not swampy; Sea River falls, a chute of about 4 feet, occur at 17 miles from Norway House—boats run down. Echimamish to Painted Stone, 25 miles; two dams with a rise of about one foot each are passed in this interval; the Painted Stone forms the watershed of the channel, the water running both ways from it; it is 28 yards in width—boats are hauled over it. Painted Stone to Robinson Portage, 18 miles; the White Water River joins the eastern

Echimamish 7 miles from Painted Stone; the Robinson portage is 1,315 yards in length; the difference in level between the upper and lower ends of this portage is 45 feet. Robinson portage to Wapinapinis, 34 miles; two rapids occur between 7 and 14 miles from Robinson portage; Wapinapinis portage is 24 yards in length; the river falls by a chute at this point 6 feet. Oxford or Holey Lake, 30 miles; Oxford Lake to Knee Lake, 11 miles; Knee Lake, 40 miles. Jack River, Knee to Swampy Lake, ten miles. Jack River has considerable descent in the lower half of its length, the rapids being over ledges of Laurentian gneiss. Swampy Lake, 10 miles—the last lake on the route. From Swampy Lake the river is called High River as far as the junction of the Fox River, where it becomes the Steel River to its confluence with the Shamattawa, from which point to the sea it is called the Hayes River.

From Swampy Lake, 19 miles, the river flows through a labyrinth of islands; a great number of islands occur in this distance, all of which can be run by boats; bed of river and islands mostly gneiss; at end of this stretch clay banks first make their appearance on both sides and continue all the way to the sea. Labyrinth of islands to Brassy Hill, 5 miles. Brassy Hill to the Rock, 13 miles; several rapids and chutes over ledges of gneiss occur in this distance. From the Rock to the sea no more rapids occur. The Rock to Fox River, 39 miles. Fox River to Shamattawa, 29 miles; Steel River, width about three chains; clay banks average height of 70 feet. Shamattawa River to York Factory, 50 miles. Norway House to York Factory, 361 miles.

It is to be regretted that there is no data as to the volume of the Hayes; it is not likely, however, that there would be any difficulty in procuring the necessary quantity of water for lockage. The average dates of the opening and closing of the Hayes River for fifty years, on the authority of Mr. Wood, government meteorological observer, York Factory, are opening 20th May, and closing 23rd November. Dr. Bell says: "In regard to the bay itself there is no data for the opening or closing of navigation because the bay is open all the year round, like the ocean in corresponding latitudes." Temperature: The following is from the Meteorological Department, Toronto—mean average temperature at York Factory is about:—

May	35
June	55
July	66
August	57
September	44
October	25

Mr. C. N. Bell in "Our Northern Waters," says: "It will be understood that the readings at York are taken at the fort, which is on tide water, and has been described as most exposed. The fact of the water in the rivers rushing down before the ice is broken up at the lower levels, proves that the climate inland is more genial."

Lake Winnipeg is navigable from Norway House to the mouth of the Red River, and the latter stream can, at a moderate expenditure, be made navigable from its mouth to the city of Winnipeg. The following table shows a comparison in detail between the Nelson and the St. Lawrence routes, from the great wheat area to Liverpool. The dates for the St. Lawrence are on the authority of Mr. Corthell:

FROM WHEAT AREA TO LIVERPOOL.

	Miles.	Time in hours.	No. of days route open.	Cost per ton.
Via Chicago	5,488	414	225	$8.97
Via Winnipeg	3,826	287	170	4.00

The rates used in the above statement of list are:

Railway rate per ton, mile	....	.....	.....	.005
Lake	"	"	"	..... .0015
Canal	"	"	"	..... .003
Ocean	"	"	"	..... .0005

Present western rates are higher than the above, but in making the comparison it is of course necessary to use the same rate for both. The rates of speed from which time in hours is computed are: Rail, including stops, miles per hour, 15; canal and river, 10; lakes and ocean, 15. By reducing the time and distances to the equivalent number of round trips which can be made in a season from Chicago and Winnipeg to Liverpool, it is found that from Chicago seven and one-half round trips are possible, and from Winnipeg eight round trips are possible. That the Hudson's Strait may not open at the same time as the inland navigation, or that they may not be open as long each season, which is taking the worst possible view of the case, does not materially affect the value of the route, because it will in any event be necessary to elevate the grain at the ocean terminus. The straits are open a sufficient length of time for all practical purposes. The Dominion Government and the Winnipeg and Hudson's Bay Railway Company have demonstrated that fact in the interest, and to the satisfaction of the latter, and the railway, which has been commenced, will be in operation to York or Churchill it is expected in a year or two. It is certain that within the next decade the quantity of wheat for export from the Canadian North-West and the adjoining states of the Union will reach 200,000,000 bushels. This wheat can be delivered at Winnipeg with an average rail haul of about 200 miles, as against 1,000 miles to Chicago, the difference in favour of Winnipeg being equivalent to a saving of 12 cents per bushel, or in round figures $24,000,000; add to this a saving of $1 per ton to Liverpool via the Hudson's Bay route, and the outgoing freight alone shows a saving of $30,000,000 per annum in favour of that route.

By applying the above rates to the distances of the St. Lawrence route via Port Arthur or Duluth, it will be found that the Winnipeg and Hudson's Bay route is much superior in point of time, distance and cost; in fact, that it is the natural outlet and highway from western North America to Europe. As to whether the Nelson or Hayes route is the most favourable, or which is the best point on the bay for an ocean terminus, it is not intended to express an opinion. The object of this article will be attained if it has thrown any light upon the subject which will show the practicability and great importance of the Hudson's Bay route.—*The Manitoban.*

THE TRUE END OF EDUCATION.

BY EMERSON E. WHITE, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

TWO extreme theories are earnestly contending for the control of American education. The one asserts that the sole end of school training is the perfection of man as an intellectual, æsthetic, and moral being; and the other asserts that the supreme test of the worth of education is its practical utility in life's business and toil. The watchward of one is culture; of the other, utility. The one is represented by the Hellenism of Matthew Arnold; the other by the Utilitarianism of Froude.

These two extreme and opposing theories justify an earnest inquiry for

the true end of education. This is the more important since the present tendencies in education are clearly in the direction of utility in the sense of practical application to industrial pursuits. There are many indications that not a few minds are dazzled, if not dazed, by the brilliancy of our material civilization. The marvellous progress in invention and discovery in the past thirty years, and the tangible, sensuous and impressive character of its material products are, indeed, bewildering, and it is not strange that there is some confusion respecting the ends of human life. The garden of Eden, as we read, was made for our first parents, but the suspicion seems to be growing that they were created for the garden, and especially to till and dress it!

What is man's chief end in the present life? This is the fundamental question, for when we have discovered the end and purpose of human existence, we have, as a consequence, found the true function of education.

Man has two natures, the one spiritual, the other physical—the one a regal soul, the other a subject body. Man's spiritual nature is endowed with powers each capable of almost infinite expansion and culture, by activity and use. The soul's endowment is capability to know, to feel, to will, to enjoy, but all this heritage may be buried in a napkin or bartered for a mess of pottage.

But man has a body as well as an indwelling soul, and the former is the latter's agent, helper, nourisher. The soul's activity and perfection are limited and aided by physical condition and needs. But the body exists for the soul, and not the soul for the body. The soul is the supreme human fact and the perfection of the soul is man's supreme personal duty.

This law of subordination — the body to the soul—pervades all human activities and relations; those that relate to the soul and its needs being higher and more important than those that directly nurture and sustain the body. In the order of time, physical wants may take precedence, but the development and culture of the soul is the supreme duty and interest of life.

This view reveals the fatal defect in that philosophy of education which regards man as a grand physical organism, born of physical nature, the result of spontaneous generation, and reaching up to — *nothing*. Such a view of life subordinates the soul to the body and reverses the ends of human existence.

A true philosophy of human life affords the basis for a true theory of education — one that places man above, and yet prepares him for his life's work; that neither exalts him into an ethereal region of serene repose to be satiated with what Arnold calls "sweetness and light," nor trails his manhood in the furrows of life's toil. It unites man to nature, to society, and to God; to nature, that he may discover her laws, utilize her forces and enjoy her munificence; to society, that he may eradicate its evils, improve its condition and receive its protection; and to God, that he may be sustained, guided, purified and saved.

This philosophy of life emphasizes the importance of a general education as a foundation for a special education. Special preparation for given pursuits needs to rest upon a general preparation for all pursuits, and the more comprehensive the general training the more fruitful and useful the special. It is the remark of an English writer that "every honest occupation to which a man sets his hand would raise him into a philosopher if he mastered all the knowledge of his craft," but this method of making philosophers is hardly practicable in school or college. All experience shows that an education narrowed to

the facts that concern a given occupation defeats itself.

Moreover, were it otherwise desirable to narrow a boy's education to the groove of his future calling, such a plan would not be feasible in this country where the different pursuits stand with open doors, and neither the boy nor his parents know which he will enter, nor how long he will remain. How many Americans find themselves at forty in those callings which guided their boyish day dreams at fifteen? This one fact is sufficient to show the fallacy of deducing the necessity of a general system of industrial education in this country from the experience of countries where the occupations of life are inherited and predetermined.

A majority of American students come to the beginning of their college course ignorant of their real bent or aptitude. It is only after a wide and varied trial of their powers in the mastery of branches in all the great departments of knowledge, that they find out the studies and pursuits for which they have special fitness. It is one of the purposes of general education to disclose the pupil's bent and life-work.

Our schools and colleges for general education should have for their first aim the development and training of man *as man*, and his elevation towards the highest and best ideal of human existence, and, in harmony with this aim, they should also give such training as will prepare man for the duties and activities of life. The comprehensive end of education is to fit the pupil for complete and successful living. "Man does not live by bread alone." The artisan must also be the guide of the family, a member of society, a citizen of the State, the guardian of liberty and the subject of Divine government; and out of these relations flow duties of the highest importance—duties which are the chief concern of education.

I enter a respectful protest against the adoption of any philosophy of education that subordinates manhood to industry, and the soul to its physical conditions and needs; and my earnest plea is for an education which seeks the perfection of man in nature, enjoyment and labour—an education whose motto is, "not the mind only, but the man"; an education that prepares the mind to think the truth, the heart to enjoy it, the will to purpose it, and the hand to perform it.—*Education.*

USE AND ABUSE OF METHODS.*

BY EMMA. V. SHATTUCK, FLUSHING, N.Y.

SOME one has said, "Awaken an idea and you awaken a human soul; awaken a soul and you awaken an intellect; awaken an intellect and you may stir a century." The day has passed when argument is necessary to prove the need of getting the idea. Now it is an accepted fact that there is a logical development, a scientific basis in the education of the mind. The sister sciences have opened their charmed circle and taken by the hand the science of education; henceforth, their united power shall be potent for increased mental development. Every day there are more and more who accept the theories of the new education; the number who

* Part of a paper read at a teachers' convention.

contend for the memorizing of facts and definitions is rapidly decreasing.

Everywhere teachers are demanding ways and means to accomplish their work in view of advanced ideas. There is an earnest desire on the part of every true teacher to be abreast of the times. Teachers realize as never before the need of careful preparation and scientific methods. Anxious to secure the highest results they look about them for the means to accomlish the desired end. Believing that successful teaching lies along the line of a good method they select one of the excellent ones in which our educational papers are rich. They study the method carefully; in fact, every detail is committed. The teacher brings before her class the plan she is to follow. The questions are asked and facts called forth just as the method required. Yet, as she ends the lesson, she is conscious that something is wrong; she tries to close her eyes to the fact that her pupils have not grasped the thought. She tries again the next day, and the next with the same results. What can be the trouble? Surely, it cannot be the method. It must be her class are unusually dull. She begins to commiserate herself on having to teach such a class. She has followed her receipt. Is it her fault if the result is a failure?

An occurrence in the school of a large city may illustrate the case.

A class in one of the lower grades were to have a lesson in numbers. All the physical requirements were met, and the fifty pair of eyes were turned toward the teacher. As the lesson proceeded we watched with interest each stage of development. During the twenty minutes given to the lesson the teacher's mind did not once go out laden with the thought of the lesson to meet the little minds stumbling in the dark.

The wheels, 'tis true, went round and round,
But in that mill no grist was ground.

The little hands moved the beads and the class said the answers as directed, but beyond those beads and those answers their minds were not led. The smile of satisfaction on the face of the teacher showed she was content. On the part of the class there was no comprehension of the truth to be taught. Yet the method was taken word for word from a work of excellent authority. As the lesson ended we could not refrain from thinking truly, "It is the letter that killeth."

In how many class-rooms dry bones, in the form of a method, without the soul are brought before the classes. The body without the spirit, the machine without the power, the locomotive without the steam. What can we expect?

A teacher must be greater than her method. She must shine through it and around it. Her thought must be the steam that shall move the wheels that drive on the train of thought. Have you ever noticed what a simple thing is the telegraphic instrument apart from the wires? What a wonderful one when connected with the current! Our method may be but simple, but if we send through it a current of enthusiasm, we cannot fail to awaken the idea that may stir a century. Any method can be of use only when it leads along paths formerly traversed into newer and brighter beyonds; when the new comes upon the old so gradually that the old seems new and the new but a part of the old.

It is to unfold matter so logically that the learner hardly realizes he is taught until the fact is entirely within his grasp. Method is to the matter as is the brush to the artist, the pen to the writer; it is but a tool for the work. When matter is lost in method, then the usefulness of the latter is past. The cloth is not for the pattern, but the pattern for the cloth. We have all seen some of the most approved methods fail even in the hands of ex-

cellent teachers. Pupils and teacher were discomfited. No one seemed to know the cause. The same teacher would have succeeded with a method prepared by herself. All teachers are not adapted to all methods. All methods are not adapted to all classes. All classes are not in the same mental condition. Hence it behooves the teacher to form, not only her own method carefully but to keep a firm hold on the mental pulse of her class.

When the lesson prepared fails to reach the end, do not feel you are breaking every law of education when you depart from your plan if by so doing you awaken thought. The plan that may be adapted to your class may not be that one with which your fellow teacher will succeed; therefore, be broad. Your way may be good, but there are many "roads leading to Rome."

Said one teacher: "While I teach my way I get along very well, but I feel I must teach as Miss A. does, for she is such an excellent teacher." It was suggested that her own way should be used, and results compared with Miss A. at the end of the term. She did so, and discovered the progress of her class fully as great as the class of Miss A. We have all seen an idea, originated in one class, spread through a school until what was a benefit became an injury. We have enough repetition marks in our school-rooms.

If your fellow teacher is successful, rejoice with her, but do not imagine your success lies only along the path she has trod. Many teachers have learned this truth from sad experience. A power of discrimination is essential on the part of the teacher to enable her to select only such methods as are adapted to her class. But it is greater to create than to imitate, no matter how excellent the imitation may be. "The untrained mind is satisfied to accept a model to represent its thought; "the trained mind fashions its own model. The enthusiasm created by your own effort will flash out through your work, making it possible to awaken the intellect that may be felt in coming years. Remember it was original teaching that stirred the schools of Rugby.

Perception of values determines intellectual strength. An educated thinker sees the value in devices and constructs his own. The mind that selects a thought here and a truth there, culling only the best, is never at a lack for material with which to build. Edison was not the only man who knew there was a giant caged in electricity, but he was the only man who knew how so to turn its forces as to make its wonders known. Educated independence means much on the part of the teacher. A servile following of any system or method narrows the mind. Careful study, discriminate reading, will broaden the power of the teacher.

We are told that Pestalozzi's greatness consists in his working out the convictions of his own soul. The working out of the convictions of your soul may be the impulse that shall accomplish much. If it is true, "What's best administered is best," we shall then see, not only a more enlightened exemplification of the theories of the great masters, but greater results in our pupils. So far follow your individuality as a teacher, that it shall be after all the "teacher, teaches."

Remember, "Nor truth nor knowledge cometh from without."—*The School Journal.*

THE STATE, THE CHURCH, AND THE SCHOOL.

WE have referred to the contribution which America is making to the conception of Christianity in its separation of the functions of church and state, in its heroic use of the voluntary system, in the enlargement of religious freedom. Yet no one can take note of this momentous fact without observing also the existence in the United States of an ecclesiastical power which in its history, its official utterances, and its alliances stands opposed to the interpretation of Christianity which is denoted by American Protestantism. The Roman Catholic Church has thriven under the enormous advantages which our liberty has given it. No state alliance could afford it such an impetus as it has received from occupying the same privileges with other religious bodies in America. It lies within the great circle of American religious freedom, but by the very charter of its organization, so to speak, it is a protest against the life which nourishes it.

It is inevitable that in one form or another a conflict should arise between this body and American Protestantism, nor is it strange that the conflict should appear first and most emphatically in an arena of education. The theory of the Roman Catholic Church makes the prime element in education to consist in loyalty to the Church of God as interpreted by its tenets. The theory of Protestant Christianity makes the prime element in education to consist in the formation of right character. Hence the former says to the child, whatever else you may or may not learn, you shall first of all know your catechism and become familiar with the ritual of the church; the latter says: You shall learn all you can in school, but the end in view is always your character.

The Roman Catholic Church has begun to put its theory into systematic practice by the general adoption of the policy of parochial schools, into which are withdrawn pupils who would otherwise receive their training in the public schools. A test through results may therefore be looked for. By their fruits ye shall know them. I do not say that the parochial schools fail to give a thorough training in character and the development of the faculties, though I hear many complaints of the inferiority to the neighbouring public schools; we must bear in mind also that they collect boys and girls whose antecedents do not make the best material of them, and they deprive these pupils of contact with minds quickened by inheritance of generations of freedom. Nor do I say that our public schools necessarily produce boys and girls of a high type of character; on the contrary, those most familiar with the public schools are most sharp in their criticism of the results in this respect. What I assert is that we have the spectacle of two antagonistic systems, and that the issue will prove which of the two is more vital. In other words, we are witnessing a trial between two phases of Christianity—the Christianity of Hildebrand and the Christianity of Protestantism.

We who heartily believe in this later phase have a task before us which may well inspire us with enthusiasm. We have to convince an apparently securely entrenched Church that the God whom they worship is not, as each nation of antiquity fancied, their own peculiar divinity, inaccessible to the voice of any beyond the pale. We have to build an invisible temple, whose true catholicity shall render a material assumption of catholicity ignoble and self-destructive. The

Church of Rome, with its compact and magnificent visible strength, appeals to our imagination, and by its apparent solidarity seems to render the opposing force of American Protestantism broken and irresolute. How insignificant, how jealous of each other, how incapable of union, appear our separate bodies of Methodists, Congregationalists, Baptists, Presbyterians, Episcopalians! We cannot so misinterpret the issue. The opposition to this great hierarchy is not in any one of these churches or societies, nor in all of them combined. The true opposition is to be found in Christianity itself, in that larger, fuller conception of the life of God in the world which is only feebly expressed by our separate churches. The thought of Romanism is that God is manifest only in and through the Roman Catholic Church; and just so far as our Protestant churches faintly echo that same notion, and say, Lo, He is here, and only here, do they stand in the same category as against the eternal idea which was manifest to the world in the Christ.—*Horace E. Scudder, in June Atlantic.*

INSTRUCTION IN HISTORY.

PROFESSIONAL educators in this generation are probably not disposed to underrate the importance of the study of history. It has felt the potent impulse of that educational renaissance in which we rejoice to live. History has demonstrated that it is a "practical" study, and on that utilitarian test hang all the law and the prophets. History wins recognition as a preliminary discipline for the duties of citizenship, and with that end in view it makes its way into all secondary schools, either in its own name as a preparation for the university, or masquerading under the title "Civil Government," as a direct training for the polls. It is a pleasure to think of the improvement that modern pedagogical science has introduced into class-room work in history, in schools above the grammar grade. In the first place, many teachers, especially those who are college graduates, are deeply interested in this subject, at least so far as it relates to the growth of parties and to the elucidation of current politics. Where in the former generation there was here and there only one thoughtful scholar who found in history a basis for general culture, there are now a score of masters with a very considerable, special, individual equipment for teaching in this field of knowledge. Secondly, the universal application of the object method of study has benefited history together with its sister-studies. Among secondary schools the old fashioned *memoriter* repetition of pages of text-book matter is discouraged. School libraries afford a little historical laboratory and some materials for exciting discussion. Wherever a free public library exists the teachers can, if they will, make it a most efficient auxiliary to the exercises of the class-room. In such a neighbourhood the teacher of history ought to have no excuse for rejecting the topical method of historical study.

In the third place the text-books in history have undergone, and are still undergoing, vast modification for the better. They are provided with good maps and sometimes with instructive illustrations. Some of them are written by competent persons who have a wide knowledge of their subject and

can set it forth in proper perspective with some clear definition of its salient features. In the fourth place the fine specimens of map and atlas making which have attended the revolution in the teaching of geography have brought within reach valuable aids to the study of history, although I fear that assistance from these sources is too much neglected. All these improvements in the theory and application of historical teaching in the public schools have been as yet too few to leaven the whole lump satisfactorily. A great deal of light shed upon the study of history in some of our high schools and in fewer of our grammar grades serves to bring out by way of contrast the darkness that obscures knowledge in the public-school system as a whole. From the observation of our schools that I have been able to make and from the output of those schools which comes annually under my inspection, I will venture with much diffidence to offer this analysis of faults in the present system of historical training in our public schools. Scholars fail to perceive causation in history. Frequently I find boys who like algebra or geometry because, as they say, they can reason out each statement, can argue from page to page and leave no chasm in the understanding, but they hate history because they find no continuity in it. When I demonstrate to them some bits of the splendid progress of causation in history, I have never yet in a single instance lost the reward of a kindling look and an interested exclamation, "I see that I have never read history in the right way." Show the pupil that history is an argument, with God and nature for premises and men and women among the conclusions; show him that it is a drama which involves his own life, and he will not be likely to evince a a lack of interest.

In all grades of our public schools, both text-books and teachers of United States history exhibit a defective sense of proportion in their presentation of the subject. They linger lovingly ever the Northmen and over the era of discovery and colonization, for the reason that a little mystery hangs over Leif Erikson, and a little visible romance hovers around Miles Standish and John Smith. I know one young man who began the study of United States history with three successive teachers, and the furthest limit reached under any of them was the French and Indian War. Then there is the tiresomely familiar blunder of stringing American history on the names of the Presidents. This is the worst sin against historical proportion that I know. There is a river of history and there are currents in its waters, but we should not name them by the chips bobbing on the surface of the stream. Scholars do not receive aid as they ought from the correlative studies of language and geography. Either the reading of history or the talking of history requires and should produce a good vocabulary. Our high school pupils are so often afraid of words of more than three syllables that I am continually wondering how they ever ran the gauntlet of composition work. They recognize only what they have previously committed to memory. A new expression, a new imagination, is not an object of interest to them, but of terror and wonder. Are they so crammed with bits of unassimilated knowledge that their minds lose the power of digestion?—*Prof. Charles H. Levermore, in School and College for April.*

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

THE SCHOOL'S IDEAL. School is not only a preparation for the ideal life; it is itself an initiation into that life. For every good school has an ideal of its own, which determines its individuality, and permeates its life and its work. Such ideals, perhaps, more than anything else, unite the members of a school, and suggest the ideals of after life.—*Mary A. Woods.*

WORTH CONSIDERING. — A careless teacher can undo in a single month what it took another a year to accomplish. In this way there is much energy wasted, and the question is worth considering whether in graded schools it would not be better to let each teacher keep the same pupils several years and to advance with the class, thus giving a good teacher an opportunity to show what she can do and compelling the poor teacher to improve her methods, or, if utterly incompetent, to demonstrate her failure and seek a more congenial calling.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

WHAT WE ARE. — What we are fixes the limit of what we do. Our words and our acts are measured by our personality. Our teaching is conditioned on our characters, rather than on our knowledge. Indeed, as Professor Corson says, "Being is teaching, the highest, the only quickening mode of teaching; the only mode which secures that unconscious following of a superior spirit by an inferior spirit, of a kindled soul by an unkindled soul, "as the water follows the moon, silently, with fluid steps, around the globe." — *The Sunday School Times.*

ALUMINUM MONEY. — Sir Henry Bessemer suggests that instead of the proposed £1 note, aluminum coin of that denomination be made, redeemable on presentation. This coin would be as acceptable as a printed promise to pay, while its durability and freedom from dirt that collects on paper, would make it popular. Aluminum may be slightly alloyed so as to harden and increase its durability, and at the same time raise its fusing point, and thus render the casting of it in plaster moulds by counterfeiters quite an impossibility. —*The School Journal.*

EAST VICTORIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Two teachers' Institutes under the directions of the above association were held, the one at Bobcaygeon on Friday, Oct. 16th; the other at Kinmount on Friday, Oct. 21st. The attendance of teachers was good, and the subjects discussed interesting. Mr. S. McClelland, chairman of the school board, Bobcaygeon, presided at the evening entertainment in that village, and Mr. J. H. Knight, public school inspector, at all the other sessions. Mr. J. C. Brown, public school inspector for the county of Peterboro, attended all the meetings at Bobcaygeon, and at the morning session at Kinmount. Dr. Curry, public school inspector for the county of Haliburton attended at Kinmount during the afternoon. Several teachers from the counties of Peterborough and Haliburton were present. The evening entertainments were well attended. The following subjects were discussed. 1, What literature should be taught in the second class? 2. Public school examinations and exhibitions. 3. Pronunciation. 4. Uniform promotion examinations. 5, Relation of words. 6, Writing. 7, Circles on the terrestrial globe. 8, Fractions and compound rules.

[The Editor will be glad to receive condensed accounts of the proceedings at Teachers' Institutes and Conventions.]

PUBLIC OPINION.

A FAMILY RESEMBLANCE —Mr. J. G. Bourinot, in a very able paper in the October number of the *Contemporary Review*, tells the world how very English Canadians are from a political point of view. He directs attention to the fact that there is a family resemblance of the strongest kind between the political institutions of Canada and those of Great Britain. Canadian institutions show their parentage in every feature. Canadian Parliaments, great and small, are like the British Parliament in their constitution, in their forms, and in their modes of procedure. The principle of responsibility to the representatives of the people is acknowledged and practised in all of them. No Government in the Dominion of Canada or in any of its provinces can live a day after it is known that it cannot command a majority in the popular branch of the Legislature. What is seen in the United States — an executive favouring one policy and a House of Representatives favouring another and a very different one—is as impossible in Canada as it is in the Mother Country. Mr. Bourinot shows that the French-Canadians take as kindly to and are as tenacious of responsible government as are English-Canadians. This is the more surprising as government of this kind is very different in principle from that to which the French in America were accustomed previous to the conquest. Mr. Bourinot says: "The history of Canada as a French colony which ended in 1759, was a record of autocratic government which gave no opportunity to the expansion of Canadian energy and intellect. The history of French Canada as an English dependency, like that of the other provinces of the Dominion, has been the record of a people working out their political destiny on the well understood principles of that wonderful system of government which the experience of centuries teaches us is admirably calculated to develop individualism, and a spirit of self-assertion and self-reliance to enable a people to solve successfully those great political problems on which rests the happiness of mankind." Although the French inhabitants of Lower Canada were so determined to retain their language, their religion and their laws, they soon saw the merits of the English system of government, and became as eager to take advantage of the powers and privileges it gives the people as were the settlers of the Anglo-Saxon race. And now they are as great sticklers for parliamentary privileges and as resolute in asserting the principles of responsible government as are the inhabitants of any other part of the Dominion. Canada, like the Mother Country, enjoys the British blessing of an independent judiciary. The judges of the Canadian Bench are independent, not only of the caprices of the populace, but of the strife of parties. They exercise their high functions in an atmosphere untainted by the breath of political corruption and undisturbed by the storms of political contention. Canadians can only appreciate the value of an independent judiciary when they see the terrible abuses which its absence causes in the neighbouring republic. Mr. Bourinot traces the resemblance from point to point, and Englishmen, when they read his article, must be obliged to confess that Canadians, taking into consideration the differences between the circumstances of the new country and the old, have kept to the old ways and the old institutions with wonderful fidelity. And they have done this not on compulsion but of their own free will, because they had an intelligent love for

the British Constitution and for British freedom. Mr. Bourinot only gives utterance to the simple truth when he says: "Canadians have every confidence in their system of government —in its ability to make them a prosperous and great people; but at the same time their own history teaches them that the most admirable constitution may be relatively worthless while the large powers and responsibilities entrusted to the governing bodies — powers and responsibilities never embodied in Acts of Parliament — are forgotten in view of party triumph, personal ambition or pecuniary gain." — *Victoria Weekly Colonist.*

GEOGRAPHY.

THE NIAGARA TUNNEL — The great brick tunnel on the American side at Niagara is about finished. It is nearly a mile and a quarter long and was built through the solid rock. The water of Niagara river will be conducted to four great turbine wheels in a row; others will be added. A village has already been started along the river margin, and dozens of buildings and factories are going up, with arrangements for sewering, grading, and lighting the district. The company will be ready to furnish power by the first of March or before, at very low rates as compared with steam. Much of the power developed here will be converted into electrical energy for distribution at remote points. — *The School Journal.*

PYTHAGORAS, a philosopher of Greece, taught the System of the Universe, which was conceived as a *Kosmos*, or one harmonious whole, consisting of ten heavenly bodies revolving round a Central Fire, the *Hearth* or *Altar* of the Universe; and the celebrated doctrine of the Harmony of the Spheres—the music produced, it was supposed, by the movements of these heavenly bodies. Thus Pythagoras suggested the spherical nature of the entire System, and, of course, the rotundity of the earth. This proposition was demonstrated by Sir John Mandeville in a book published in 1356; the theory was fully elaborated by Copernicus, and was incontestably proved by Columbus in 1492.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

WHY RAILS CREEP.—The creeping of rails has attracted some attention of late, and while we do not attempt to explain it, we offer a point on the fact that on lines running north and south the western rail "creeps" faster than the eastern rail; that is, this strange movement of the rail toward the south is more marked in one rail than the other on the same track. Furthermore, it has been noticed that on such a line the eastern rails wear out the fastest. Both of these points, we think, can be explained by the motion of the earth as it turns from the west toward the east. Motion tends to overcome gravitation. A rapid skater flies over the thin ice without breaking through, and a train at high speed has been known to leap a broken bridge unharmed. Momentum overcomes gravitation, and the greater the speed the less the weight on the rails. Everything that has free motion is dragged after the whirling globe. Every wind that blows and every tide that moves feels the influence, and our train going north or south is pulled over toward the east, and naturally presses the eastern rail most heavily. The western rail, being relieved of its share of

weight, "creeps" more freely and quickly. It is also noticed that the wheels that run on the eastern rail wear out first, and we can but think that this earth motion is the true cause. The practical side of this is that the eastern rail and wheels should be stronger.—*Scientific American.*

EDITORIAL NOTES.

VICTORIA.

OLD VIC., as it used to be proudly, lovingly and familiarly called by its sons, left its first town of habitation, and is now becomingly and well sheltered in a fine new building in Queen's Park, Toronto. Victoria is now a member of the Confederation of Colleges in Ontario. The fact of the new college being completed and ready for occupancy was duly and auspiciously celebrated early in October last. The Lieut.-Governor and Mrs. Kirkpatrick were present. His Honour welcomed Victoria College and University to the capital city of Ontario, and also to the membership of the Confederated Colleges.

In past years Victoria contributed a fair share towards the love of letters in Ontario. We doubt not that in the future of our country the old college (as we count colleges) will equal and excel its work in the past. THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY salutes Victoria, and hopes that her career will be great and noble, worthy of her founders and supporters.

EXAMINATIONS.

THE discussion on making the standing of candidates for teachers' certificates or for admission to colleges and professions solely dependent upon examinations, is attracting much attention on the part of men engaged in work of education. The subject was fully considered at the annual meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, which met on the 14th and 15th October in Boston.

For admission to colleges in the United States, there are two plans in vogue: students are admitted upon examination and also by certificate given by the principals of preparatory schools. These two modes had advocates at the meeting in Boston. But by the most ardent advocates of either plan, it was admitted that the results obtained were unsatisfactory not only to the student but also to the preparatory school.

The opinion seems to have been very general that examination results should be modified by the school record. This view appears to be gaining ground very generally. The subject was remitted to a committee for enquiry and report to next meeting of the Association.

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association met in the Examiners' Room of the Education Department on the evening of the 11th of Novembe- to prepare for the next Convention, which will be held in Toronto on the Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday of Easter week. A novel and pleasing feature of the meeting was the appearance of the chairman, secretary and one director, as representatives of the Trustees' Association, which at its last meeting decided to become part of the Ontario Educational Association.

. The first matter considered was the appointment of officers for the College and Training Departments. As the former had not yet organized it was not considered desirable to appoint officers, but for the Training Department Mr. Kirkland, Principal of the Toronto Normal School, was appointed Chairman; Mr. J. J. Tilley, Director of Teachers' Institutes, Secretary, and Dr. McLellan, Principal of the School of Pedagogy, Director. The Board then proceeded to make provision for addresses at the evening meetings of the Convention, after this work was completed the representatives of the various sections met and prepared programmes of business for their forthcoming meetings.

POLITICIANS ON EDUCATION.

THE following article from the *Educational Times*, London, is so much in harmony with the teaching of this Magazine, that we give it special prominence by inserting it in our Editorial space:—

Three politicians have discoursed on education during the month of October, from three different points of view, and have jointly proved the many-sidedness of the subject, and its perennial freshness. The three addresses deserve to be studied together; they are like the three legs of a tripod: when used together they give great stability to that which they support.

First, Mr. Joseph Cowen, at Newcastle, advocated the claims of the Graces and the Muses; secondly, the Duke of Devonshire, at the Harris Institute, Preston, those of practical skill, the applied arts and useful sciences; and thirdly, Mr. Gladstone at Oxford, those of the spiritual forces of religion and faith. According to Mr. Cowen, education ought to include everything that is calculated to promote mental activity, awaken curiosity, exercise ingenuity, arouse reflection, incite the imagination, regulate the appetites, control the passions, and exalt men to a sense of their moral dignity. An American would call this a "large order." His special contention, however, is that a rigidly utilitarian training, from which the Graces and Muses are banished, has a depressing, hardening and mind-benumbing tendency, and that classical studies, on the other hand, have an exhilarating and refining influence. "It is not easy," he says, "to infuse spiritual transcendency into the tame actuality of common things. We have no mental lens to reduce the scale and preserve the proportions of ethereal and earthly influences. But, if amidst our affluent activities we could mingle more of the poetry of existence, we would give elation and freshness to the prosaic routine of daily experience. Mechanical as is the age, wide as is the empire of utility, and prosperous as selfish prudence may make us, as long as the stars appear nightly in the heavens, and the golden clouds gather round the departing sun, as long as life is encircled by mystery, ennobled by affliction, and solemnized by death, so long will the poetic spirit mellow the pictures of memory into pensive beauty, and throw a redeeming grace around the objects and the scenes of being."

The address of the Duke of Devonshire attacks the tendencies of our present system of instruction to foster the idea that manual labour is essentially of a lower kind than clerical work, and asks for improved opportunities of widening the basis of the technical skill of artizan and manufacturer, by a training which "is intended to develop dexterity and intelligence, and a knowledge, among workers of all classes, of the why, as

well as the how, of the work in which they may be engaged."

The Duke warns us against the notion that higher education, necessarily, in any degree withdraws a man from the ranks of manual labour. "We ought," he says, "to guard against any idea that there is anything more noble, refined or respectable in the labour of a clerk, who sits behind a desk, that in that of an artizan, who works in a factory or in the mine. On the contrary, we ought to inculate the ideas in the minds of every one of our young men that a good, sound and practical education, extended far beyond the years of his school life, is just as necessary for the man who works in his shirt sleeves as for the man who works in a black coat. We want to guard against the impression that we desire by conferring higher education, to withdraw any one, now usefully employed, from the ranks of manual labour. All that we desire is to help him, to help his fellows, to become better artizans, better workmen in those useful occupations in which they are now engaged."

The lecture in the Sheldonian Theatre, at Oxford, on Monday, Oct. 31st, by our academic Prime Minister, was a remarkable performance in every way. It was, of course, crammed with detail, but it was also, in many places, bright and sparkling, and drew forth sympathetic cheers, or provoked appreciative laughter, again and again.

According to Mr. Gladstone, the chief dangers before the Universities are two—one, that, in research, considered as apart from their teaching office, they should relax, and consequently dwindle; the other, that, under pressure from without, they should lean, if ever so little, to that theory of education which would have it to construct machines of so many horse-power rather to form characters, to rear into true excellence that marvellous creature we call man—which gloats upon success in life, instead of studying to secure that the man shall always be greater than his work, and never bounded by it, but that his eye shall boldly run, in the words of Wordsworth,

> "Along the line of limitless desires."

He contends that the knowledge which reverently deals with our relations to the Creator of the Universe can hardly be other than the ground of human knowledge, offering the richest reward, as well as advancing the most commanding claim to the service and devotion, not of stunted or of crippled intellects, but of the very flower of our youth.

In his peroration Mr. Gladstone summed up his chief lesson. "Whether, as some think, the idea of a university in its comprehensive fulness has ever been, or has not, an essentially Christian conception, it cannot be open to the smallest historic doubt that the central idea of our ancient English universities is an idea essentially Christian. It is nowhere more simply and nowhere more nobly conveyed than in the motto of Oxford—'Dominus illuminatio mea.' May the day never come when that ensign shall be changed, or when there shall be the smallest inkling of a desire to change it to its opposite, and to proclaim 'Dominus obscuratio mea,' 'Dominus obtenebratio mea.' May that root and atmosphere and light which yield the bests in life of flower and fruit, feed humanity up to its highest excellence for the performance of its great work in creation, be more and more the root and atmosphere and light which shall sustain the life of Oxford in the generations to come."

Here, then, the tripod is complete. Culture, utilitarian training and religion are shown to constitute education.

THE COLLEGE FOR WOMEN.

THE lady teachers who have been paying special attention to the education of women, whether such education has been conducted in colleges where co-education, so called, is the rule, or in colleges for women only, are not satisfied with the results thus far attained. The idea seems to be that in working out what is called the "Emancipation of Women," one mistake at least is that we have been copying too slavishly the curricula and traditions of colleges for men. Unless we misread the signs, women appear to say that from experiment they are now able to state with considerable certainty that the college which has served well for the purposes of men is not well adapted to supply the best course of studies for women. We cordially say, equal education to women in every respect, but at the same time let them be perfectly untrammelled by traditions inherited from institutions designed originally for men.

We give extracts from an able article by Mary A. Jordan in October *Atlantic Monthly:*

The college for women must solve the problem of education at first hand. To that end, it must cut loose from the traditions of men, not because they are men's, nor indeed because they are traditions, but because the best men have no saving faith in them. It would require a good deal of intellectual boldness, at the present day, to assert that the superlative in education, represented by our leading colleges for men, is even remotely suggestive of anything absolute. Why insist upon sharing the wreck of educational dogma? Why insist upon ranking as "advantages" the under-inspiration of our under-influenced, over-marked, and over-examined young men? In its almost total exemption from the practical embarrassments of tradition and superstition, the work in a woman's college offers an ideal field for experiment. Here alone, perhaps, exist the conditions for the most thoroughgoing cultivation of the teacher, for the speediest extermination of the martinet. There is little to hope from the woman's college in the direction of restoring a fixed meaning to the Bachelor's degree. Instead of trying to establish some one of its various forms and stages as permanent, its aim will be more and more to make the discipline perfectly elastic, while of equal efficiency, at any point of application. . . .

The woman's college is in danger from its own success. Its growth has been unprecedented and unexpected; to a certain extent inexplicable. Among those who have been attracted is the social being. She would naturally find her proper place in the fashionable finishing school, it might be thought. But she chooses college, as likewise does her prototype, the business man. They are alike in many points. Both are admirably competent and limited. Because they are competent they succeed in passing examinations for entrance to college, and term examinations afterwards; because they are limited the examinations are necessary; and because they worship their limitations they are a menace to scholarship. Nevertheless they have rights, and rights in the college, and a clear discrimination of these rights is due them. At present the entire relation is ill adjusted. The social being is perfectly certain of her ultimate aims, but is quite at sea as regards those of scholars. She does not appreciate the fact that her seventy-five per cent. ambitions are eternally different from intellectual aspiration—in short, that she is a drag; nor indeed has the college appreciated this until a comparatively recent date. It is becom-

ing daily more evident that some adjustment is necessary to secure their rights to the two contrasted types of student. The distinction between required and elective work afforded the college adequate protection for a considerable time. But now the better preparation and the desire to have what anybody else enjoys combine to make the average student inconveniently experimental. The result reverses St. Paul's dilemma. The weakness is not of the flesh, but of the spirit. The free growth of the scholar is obstructed, she hardly knows why. The mediocre performance of the society girl does not give satisfaction, but she firmly declares the injustice of finding fault with her. By honour divisions, by group systems, or by a compact course of essentials, the needs of one of these classes would be met, and free scope left for the other. The whole course must not be subject to the friction from which it suffers at present. . .

At this point the reader probably feels that a very satisfactory demonstration has been offered of the straight road that leads to co-education. Granted that the woman's college has the lead in its freedom of experiment, it cannot hope to keep that forever, and afterwards what ground is there for its separate existence? A very simple one, and one capable of expression in a single word —taste. Without pressing too far the interpretation of the phrase about the still air of delightful studies, or insisting upon the breathing-space provided by four years of exemption from certain of the experiences more imminent in the companionship of men, it is safe to say that there will always be women who will prefer, if they must study away from home, to do so in the society of women rather than of men. There are preferences for all sorts of exceptional and possibly inexplicable things. The woman's college is neither markedly exceptional nor inexplicable, and if it is true to itself its future is assured.

IT IS NOT GROWING LIKE A TREE.

It is not growing like a tree
In bulk, doth make Man better be:
Or standing long an oak, three hundred year,
To fall a log at last, dry, bald, and sere:
A lily of a day
Is fairer far in May,
Although it fall and die that night—
It was the plant and flower of Light.
In small proportions we just beauties see;
And in short measures life may perfect be.

—*Ben Jonson.*

SCHOOL WORK.

CLASSICS.

By PRINCIPAL STRANG, Collegiate Institute, Goderich.

QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR.—BOOK III.

Translate into idiomatic English, chapter 14, "*Compluribus. . . . accideren.*"

1. Parse *nostris, adversæ, satis, has, missa.*
2. Construction of *fugam, genere, tribunis.*
3. *His nocere posse.* Why not *hos?*
4. Account for the mood of *agerent*, and *accideren* respectively.
5. Give the principal parts of *sumi, adigi, uprimi, profectæ.*
6. *Quæ ubi convenit.* What difference between Latin and English idiom is illustrated by the use of *quæ* here? Mention and exemplify any other meanings and uses of *convenio.*
7. What peculiarity of *compluribus, portu, turribus, loco, autem,* respectively?
8. Compare *inferiorem, gravius, satis.*
9. *Tamen.* Show the force of this word

by expanding the preceding phrase into a clause with a conjunction.

10. Distinguish *oppugno* and *expugno; consto, consisto* and *constitus; tantus labor* and *tantum laboris.*

Translate into idiomatic English, chapter 18, "*Hac confirmata. . . . oportere.*"

1. Parse *quendam, quid, prematur, angustiis, quod.*

2. *Secum.* What other words take *cum* after them?

3. *Ferendi.* Is this the gerund or the gerundive? Why?

4. *Persuadet uti transeat.* What other mood may follow *persuadeo,* and when? Exemplify.

5. Account for the mood of *velit* and *educat* respectively.

6. *Quid fieri velit.* In what other ways may "to be done" be rendered into Latin, and when is each to be used? Exemplify.

7. Distinguish *diligo* and *deligo; perfuga* and *transfuga; amitto* and *perdo.*

8. *Transeat, fieri, velit.* Give the 2nd sing. of each tense of the indicative mood of each of these verbs.

9. *Quendam hominem callidum.* Decline through the plural.

10. *Delegit.* What compounds of *lego* make the perfect *lexi*?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. Translate idiomatically

(*a*) "Cui rei parum diligenter ab iis erat provisum."

(*b*) "Fecit hostibus potestatem pugnandi."

(*c*) "Galli natura novis rebus student."

(*d*) "Longe alia est navigatio in concluso mari atque in apertissimo oceano."

(*e*) "Neque quo se reciperent, neque quem ad modum oppida defenderent habebant."

2. Mark the quantity of the penult of *perfuga, edocet, educat, velit, commode, arcessiti, totius, conspirant, conclamant, ancoræ.*

3. (*a*) What mood and tense follow *ubi*?

(*b*) What compounds of *sum* have a present particle?

4. Translate *pro* in each of the following "pro castris," "pro velis," "pro natura loci," "oratio pro Archia," "pro talibus meritis."

5. Exemplify different ways of expressing a purpose in Latin, using the sentence, "He sent a messenger to warn the soldiers."

6. Translate into Latin:

(*a*) The battle lasted from noon to midnight.

(*b*) These vessels will be of great use to our men.

(*c*) We thought we were at liberty to do this.

(*d*) This will give the impression of fear.

(*e*) A few of the cavalry reached the camp by another route.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Editors. { H. I. Strang, B.A., Goderich. W. H. Fraser, B.A., Toronto.

EXERCISES IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

H. J. Strang, M.A., Principal Goderich Collegiate Institute.

"Crossing himself as he viewed the dark mass of rolling waters, in colour as in quality unlike those of every other lake, the traveller shuddered as he remembered that beneath those sluggish waves lay the once proud cities of the plain, whose grave was dug by the thunder of the heavens, or the eruption of subterraneous fire, and whose remains were hid, even by that sea which holds no living fish in its bosom, bears no skiff on its surface, and, as if its own dreadful bed were the only fit receptacle for its sullen waters, sends not, like other lakes, a tribute to the ocean." (*Talisman,* chap. I, para. 4.)

1. Write out in full the clauses beginning with "as;" classify each and give its relation.

2. Classify the following phrases according to their grammatical function, and give the relation of each: "in colour," "beneath those sluggish waves," "in its bosom," "like other lakes," "to the ocean."

3. Classify the following words according to their grammatical function, and give the relation of each; "Crossing," "rolling," "unlike," "those," "eruption," "even," "sends," "like."

4. "If it were." Is "were" correct here? Why? Give if you can, with examples, some rule or principle to determine when to say "If I (he) (it) were," and when to say "If I (he) (it) was."

5. Classify the finite verbs as Transitive or Intransitive and justify your answers in each case.

6. "Lay." What is the subject of this verb? Account for its position.

7. Give all the other inflected forms of the verbs "lay," "hid," "bears."

8. "As he remembered." Substitute (1) a phrase, (2) a word for this clause.

9. "Like other lakes." Substitute a clause for the phrase? What objections are there to passing "like," as a conjunction, or as a preposition? Account for the objective which follows it, as in "he looks like *me*."

10. Form adjective from "mass," "colour," "wave," "heaven," "fire," "tributary," "ocean."

11. Form nouns from "remember," "sullen," "unlike," "remain," "fish."

12. Give as many English derivative words as you can with the same roots as "quality," and "eruption,"

13. Point out any examples of parallel construction in the sentence.

14. "Sends not a tribute to the ocean." Point out, name, and explain the figure in this clause, and then express the thought without figurative language.

15. What sea and what cities are meant?

Ah! what would the world be to us,
If the children were no more?
We should dread the desert behind us
Worse than the dark before.

What the leaves are to the forest,
With light and air for food,
Ere their sweet and tender juices
Have been hardened into wood,—

That to the world are children;
Through them it feels the glow
Of a brighter and sunnier climate
Than reaches the trunks below."

1. Select, write out in full, classify, and give the relation of all the subordinate clauses.

2. Classify and give the relation of the following words: "what" (l. 1), "more" (l. 2), "worse," "before," "what" (l. 5), "with," "ere," "that," "reaches," "below."

3. Select from the last four lines all the words that show inflection.

4. Justify the use of "should," instead of "would" in l. 3. "Ah!" On what grounds have interjections been denied a place among the parts of speech?

5. Write sentences giving "no," "desert," "for," "ere," "through," "glow," a different grammatical value from that which they have in the passage.

"Shut in from all the world without,
We sat the cleaned-winged hearth about,
Content to let the north wind roar
In baffled rage at pane and door,
While the red logs before us beat
The frost-line back with tropic heat;
And ever, when a louder blast
Shook beam and rafter as it passed,
The merrier up its roaring draught
The great throat of the chimney laughed.
The house-dog on his paws outspread
Laid to the fire his drowsy head;
The cat's dark silhouette on the wall
A couchant tiger's seemed to fall;
And for the winter fireside meet,
Between the andirons' straddling feet,
The mug of cider simmered slow,
The apples sputtered in a row,
And, close at hand, the basket stood
With nuts from brown October's wood.

—*Whittier's* "*Snow-Bound.*"

1. Select, write out, classify and give the relation of the subordinate clauses.

2. Show by examples what other kinds of subordinate clauses *as* and *when* may begin.

3. Give the detailed analysis of the first two principal clauses.

4. Classify the following words and give their grammatical relation: *shut, without, about, content, ever, the, merrier, up, outspread, meet, slow, close.*

5. Show, by using them, that each of the words mentioned in 4 may perform a different function, and give the classification in each case.

6. Classify the finite verbs (*a*) as transitive and intransitive; (*b*) of the old conjugation or of the new.

7. Select examples of as many different kinds of inflection as you can find in the passage.

8. Select all the compound words, distin-

guishing between temporary compounds and permanent compounds, and point out any differences between them.

9. "To let the north wind roar." Give as many other words as you can after which the syn. "to" of the infinite is omitted.

10. "Hearth." Pronounce and exemplify other sounds that the diphthong *ea* may have.

11. Point out any figures of speech made use of.

12. Explain *clean-winged, silhouette, couchant,* the *andirons' straddling feet.*

POETIC LITERATURE FOR PRIMARY EXAMINATION.

Examination Paper on Lesson XC. "Rugby Chapel," by Miss H. Charles, B.A.

1. Describe in your own words the scene the poet has before him in the beginning of the poem, expressing the feelings it awakens in him.

2. Give a description of the journey to which he compares the "path of advance."

3. Describe the character of Dr. Arnold from the poem.

4 Quote the fifteen lines beginning "What is the course of the life."

5. Explain fully the meaning of the following expressions:

(*a*) "In the sounding labour-house of being."

(*b*) "Those who with half-open eyes
Tread the borderland dim
'Twixt vice and virtue."

(*c*) "Something to snatch
From dull oblivion, nor all
Glut the devouring grave."

(*d*) "Such, so soulless, so poor,
Is the race of men whom I see."

(*e*) "Seemed but *a cry of desire.*"

CLASS-ROOM.

THE HIGH SCHOOL PRIMARY, 1892.

FRENCH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

Examiners: John Petch, M.A.; Alfred H. Reynar, M.A., LL.D.; John Squair, B.A.

Translate:—

1. (*a*) His white hand, his white hands, her old glove, her old gloves.

(*b*) Her friend (fem.) and his, her friends and his and yours.

(*c*) It goes from him to her and from her to them; they keep it,

(*d*) It is I, it is not they; they see it, I do not see it.

2. (*a*) Five times three are fifteen, six times ten are sixty.

(*b*) The animals are killed in the country, the meat is sold here.

(*c*) Had the boys not flattered themselves? They had.

(*d*) In the kitchen, behind the table, up stairs.

3. (*a*) Do they owe more than you? No I owe a hundred thousand francs.

(*b*) Will you pay what you owe? I always pay my debts.

(*c*) Would they pay their debts and ours if they had money enough?

(*d*) They are our best friends, they will do all they promise.

4. (*a*) He comes from the village and goes to the city.

(*b*) We shall come from the fields and go to the gardens.

(*c*) They have some letters but they have no papers.

(*d*) It was cold in the morning, it will be warm at noon.

5. (*a*) My brothers and sisters will be here this evening.

(*b*) Do they live in Canada? Yes, they are Canadians.

(*c*) Have you more than six? I have only five.

(*d*) You will be glad to see them I am sure.

6. (*a*) These houses are higher than those.

(*b*) Yours is not so small as mine, it is a little larger.

(*c*) How many windows has our friend's house?

(*d*) It has a great many, seventy-five or eighty-five.

7. (*a*) What are you reading? I am reading my French grammar.

(*b*) Do you speak French? Not yet, but I intend to learn it.

(*c*) Which school do you go to? I go to the college.

(*d*) Does your cousin go, too? No, he is not well.

8. (*a*) Tell me what you are doing, if you please.

(*b*) I am writing a letter. Will you send it to the post office?

(*c*) I shall give it to the little boy when it is finished.

(*d*) Give it to me and I will take it there for you.

9. (*a*) Some persons become rich without working.

(*b*) Some who work every day remain poor.

(*c*) We must work if we wish to be happy.

(*d*) You are right. I shall not forget that.

10. (*a*) Who are these men with that Englishman's fine horses?

(*b*) The gentlemen with new hats? Don't you know them?

(*c*) I have often seen them, I have never spoken to them.

(*d*) The old man is called A., the other is Dr. B.

FRENCH AUTHORS.

NOTE.—Candidates will take section A and either section B or C.

A.—(Sight Translation.)

Translate:—

Elle a toujours aimé les belles choses et elle allait apprendre le latin, seulement pour lire Virgile, quand une maladie l'en empêcha. Depuis, elle n'y a pas songé, et s'est contentée de l'espagnol. C'est une personne habile en toutes choses. Elle fut ellemême l'architecte de l'hôtel de Rambouillet, qui était la maison de son père. Mal satisfaite de tous les dessins qu'on lui faisait, un soir, après y avoir bien rêvé, elle se mit à crier: "Vite, du papier; j'ai trouvé le moyen de faire ce que je voulais." Sur l'heure elle en fit le dessin, car naturellement elle sait dessiner; et dès qu'elle a vu une maison, elle en tire le plan fort aisément. De là vient qu'elle faisait tant la guerre à Voiture de ce qu'il ne retenait jamais rien des beaux bâtiments qu'il voyait. On suivit le dessin de madame de Rambouillet de point en point. C'est d'elle qu'on a appris à mettre les escaliers à côté, pour avoir une grande suite de chambres, et à faire des portes et des fenêtres hautes et larges et vis-à-vis les unes des autres.

Faire la guerre à, to reprove, find fault with; *retenir*, to remember; *escalier*, staircase.

1. *Le latin.* Translate: I speak Latin.

2. *Songé.* Translate: He thinks of nothing.

3. Translate: I am going to learn to draw. She does not know how to do what I wish.

4. Give the present subjunctive in full of: *voulais, sait, fit, mit, appris.*

B.

Translate:—

Il faut savoir que je suis grand . . . en Angleterre, une semaine trop tard seulement pour fermer les yeux à son frère.—De Fivas, Introduction, Can. Ed., p. 42, l. 1.

. . . . . .

On m'établit sur une banquette, . . . j'étais en nage. Et voilà ce qu'ils appellent un grand plaisir, une fête!—De Fivas, Introduction, p. 76, l. 22.

5. *Mon sang me monte au visage.* Translate: Her blood rises into her face.

6. *Me fit éviter.* Is *me* direct or indirect? Give your reasons.

7. Translate: I have never heard of it.

8. *Vint.* Give reasons for the mood and tense of this verb.

9. *Un chaud.* Why is the article used here?

C.

Translate:—

"Je ne te gronderai pas mon petit Frantz.

"Vos parents n'ont pas assez tenu à vous voir instruits. Ils aimaient mieux vous envoyer travailler à la terre ou aux filatures pour avoir quelques sous de plus. Moi-même, n'ai-je rien à me reprocher?"—High School French Reader, p. 52, l. 19.

. . . . . .

Autour de la fontaine le gazon est rouge. Elle s'est approchée sans défiance; mais il a ranimé ses forces, et, du tranchant de son sabre, il balafre ce visage si beau.—High School French Reader, p. 73, l. 7.

10. *On se dit.* Translate: She has said to herself that, etc.

11. *Noir Tuzani.* Write a note on the position of adjectives of colour.

12. Translate: We shall not send them to work, we prefer to go (there) ourselves.

13. From cases occurring in these two extracts construct a grammatical paragraph on the use of *que* and *qui* as relative pronouns.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT: THE SENATE.

PETER MCEACHERN, B.A.

(*Continued.*)

Maximum number of Senators:

28. "The number of Senators shall not at any Time exceed Seventy-eight."

NOTES: S. 28 must be construed along with s. 147.

As to representation of Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island in Senate:

147. "In case of the admission of Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, or either of them, each shall be entitled to a Representation in the Senate of Canada of Four Members, and (notwithstanding anything in this Act) in case of the Admission of Newfoundland the normal Number of Senators shall be Seventy-six and their maximum Number shall be Eighty-two; but Prince Edward Island when admitted shall be deemed to be comprised in the third of the Three Divisions into which Canada is, in relation to the Constitution of the Senate, divided by this Act, and accordingly, after the Admission of Prince Edward Island, whether Newfoundland is admitted or not, the Representation of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick in the Senate shall, as Vacancies occur, be reduced from Twelve to Ten Members respectively, and the Representation of each of those Provinces shall not be increased at any Time beyond Ten, except under the Provisions of this Act for the Appointment of Three or Six additional Senators under the Direction of the Queen."

At the beginning of 1892 the number of Senators was 74.

Tenure of place in Senate:

29. "A Senator shall, subject to the Provisions of this Act (*a*), hold his place in the Senate for Life."

NOTES:

(*a*) "Subject to the Provisions of this Act," has general reference to the spirit of the Act as a whole, and particular reference to ss. 30 and 31 which relate to the Resignation and vacancy of the place of Senator.

Senate of United States: Each State in the Union is represented by two Senators elected by the State Legislature. One-third of the Senators is elected every second year. The Executive of the State temporarily fills any vacancy that may occur during the recess of the Legislature.

British House of Lords: Ireland has 28 Representative Peers in the House of Lords. Scotland has 16 Representative Peers who are elected by the Peerage of Scotland at the beginning of each Parliament. Besides these, there are entitled to seats in the House of Lords, 26 Episcopal Peers, representative of the Church of England, together with a varying number of Hereditary Peers of the United Kingdom, so constituted as to tend to absorb all the Hereditary Peers of Scotland and Ireland who are not Representatives of these two countries in the House of Lords.

Resignation of Place in Senate:

30 "A Senator may by Writing under his Hand addressed to the Governor General resign his Place in the Senate, and thereupon the same shall be vacant."

Disqualification of Senators:

31. "The Place of a Senator shall become vacant in any of the following Cases:

(1.) "If for Two consecutive Sessions of the Parliament he fails to give his Attendance in the Senate;

(2.) "If he takes an Oath or makes a Declaration or Acknowledgment of Allegiance, Obedience, or Adherence to a Foreign Power, or does an Act whereby he becomes a Subject or Citizen, or entitled to the Rights or Privileges of a Subject or Citizen, of a Foreign Power;

(3.) "If he is adjudged Bankrupt or Insolvent, or applies for the Benefit of any

Law relating to Insolvent Debtors, or becomes a public Defaulter;

(4.) "If he is attainted of Treason or convicted of Felony or of any infamous Crime;

(5.) "If he ceases to be qualified in respect of Property or of Residence; provided, that a Senator shall not be deemed to have ceased to be qualified in respect of Residence by reason only of his residing at the Seat of the Government of Canada while holding an office under that Government requiring his Presence there."

NOTES:

A Senator becomes disqualified for holding his office in consequence of neglect of duty, becoming or tending to become an alien, poverty, dishonesty, treason, crime or illegal non-residence from his constituency. Some of these disqualifications are suggestive of the censorship in Ancient Rome.

S. 74. "The Place of a Legislative Councillor of Quebec shall become vacant in the Cases, *Mutatis Mutandis*, in which the Place of Senator becomes vacant." The constitution of the Legislative Council for Quebec is like that of the Senate of Canada.

Quebec Conference Resolutions, 1864.

12. "The members of the Legislative Council (name afterwards changed to Senate of Canada) shall be British subjects by birth or naturalization, of the full age of thirty years, shall possess a continuous real property qualification of four thousand dollars over and above all incumbrances, and shall be and continue worth that sum over and above their debts and liabilities, but in the case of Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island the property may be either real or personal."

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

THE November number of the *Overland* has been received. A particularly interesting article is on the "Lick Astronomical Department of the California University."

THE *Lake Magazine* published in Toronto has in its November number several important articles, such as, "Woman Suffrage," by J. W. Longley, "Home Rule for Ireland" by F. T. W. Anglin, and "Would it Mean an American Empire?" by C. A. Stewart. There are a number of short stories and poems.

THE first magazine Christmas number ot arrive is *Scribner's*. The frontispiece is a fine coloured reproduction of an Aquarelle painted by Marchetti. There is a fine poem entitled "A Shadow of the Night," by Thomas Bailey Aldrich. "An Assisted Providence." is number five of Octave Thanet's clever Stories of a Western Town. There are many interesting art papers, finely illustrated, such as, The Mural Paintings in the Panthéon, the Decoration of the Exposition, the Nude in Art and Norwegian Painters. Space fails to mention each of the merits, but we must mention H. C. Bunner's charming poem, "One, Two, Three."

INTERESTING serials are begun in the December number of the *Quiver*, one by Evelyn Everett Green, and the other by S. Southall Bone. The opening article is on "Philanthropists in Parliament" with portraits. There is also a pleasing coloured picture for frontispiece entitled "The First Born."

THE November number of *St. Nicholas* begins a new volume, and here we find a charming serial of girl life, by Kate Douglas Wiggin. The "White Cave," by William O. Stoddard will captivate the adventure-loving boy. Merry pictures are scattered among the pages, "We All's Gwine Swimmin'" being particularly fine.

IN the November *New England Magazine* we find more than one mention of the dead poet Whittier. There is also a portrait of George William Curtis, and a poem on him by W. P. Andrews. "Catnip for Two," is a bright, short story by Ethel Davis. "Old Hadley" and "Wellesley College" are interesting articles, the former by Julia Taft Bayne, and the latter by Louise M. Hodgkins.

Primary Latin. Fletcher and Henderson. (The Copp, Clark Co.) Carruthers and Robertson. (The Methodist Book Room, Toronto.) $1.00. These two books take the place in our High Schools of such grammars as that of Harkness and also of Arnold's Latin Prose. From masters we have good reports of the aid which these books afford to pupils beginning the study of Latin. Better adapted for this purpose than the books used in our schools heretofore, is the verdict given.

A CHARMING fairy tale by that good fairy, Mrs. Molesworth, catches your eye first when you open the pages of the Christmas *Illustrated London News.* Barry Pain contributes a poem and a story. There are many illustrations; it would be hard to choose among them, but "An Old-fashioned Christmas Story," is very beautiful. Grant Allen has peculiarly blood-curdling illustrations for his weird story. Frank R. Stockton and T. F. Aus·in both contribute stories.

WE have received from Messrs. Macmillan & Co., London and New York, through The Copp, Clark Co., Toronto:

Tennyson. Gareth and Lynette. 2*s.* 6*d.* With Introduction and Notes. G. C. Macaulay, M.A. Mr. Macaulay, referring to previous numbers of the series for general introductions, gives his readers an interesting essay to be appreciated by all lovers of Tennyson, on the "Idylls of the King" as a whole, and an outline of this story. Like all the other English Classics, this is an admirable text-book. No one could reasonably ask a better.

FOUR more of the pretty and altogether delightful *Golden Treasury Series* have recently appeared from the press of Messrs. Macmillan & Co., in the monthly re-issue form. 2*s.* 6*d.* These are:—

Tom Brown's School-Days.

La Lyre Française. By Gustave Masson.

The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe.

The Song-Book.

It was a happy thought to put "Tom Brown" and "Robinson Crusoe" into this outward guise. *La Lyre Française,* (new edition) is well known as an almost unrivalled collection of French chanson literature. The Editor presents a historical introduction and valuable notes. *The Song-Book* is a fine collection of good old English songs, words and tunes from the best English poets and musicians, selected and arranged by John Hullah. In a series which is truly a treasury, this book has a right to its place.

Chemical Theory for Beginners. By Leonard Dobbin, Ph.D., and James Walker, Ph.D., D.Sc. Anyone who has even a small acquaintance with chemical studies will feel the truth of a remark in the preface of this work in regard to theoretical matters. "The student is usually brought face to face with them prematurely, at a time when he can neither understand their origin nor appreciate their import; and later, when he begins his more advanced studies, he is often assumed to be quite conversant with them." Even so. This gap must therefore be filled by the efforts the teacher or by the private study of the student, and we know no book which would be a more efficient aid than this. It discusses chemical notation, chemical action, etc., and explains clearly the great laws of general chemistry, so far as they are now understood. The authors are assistants in the Chemistry Department of the University of Edinburgh.

A NEW edition of the *Standard Arithmetic for Schools,* (4*s.* 6*d.*,) by the late Rev. Barnard Smith, M.A., has recently appeared. Prof. Hudson, of King's College, London, is the editor. The chief changes are made in arrangement of the matter. There are more than a thousand new examples. There is no better English arithmetic—few as good.

Algebraic Factors, Classified and Applied. By J. Abbot Jarman, Military Tutor. 2*s.* Many small hand-books of factoring have already been issued, but none, we think, is so complete and satisfactory as this. A thorough mastery of algebraic factors and their use is simply indispensable to students. The number of questions and problems given is large and the explanations good. We are surprised to see in the preface that the author presents his acknowledgments to the

Rev. E. Kaye Kendal, LL.D., late Principal of the University, Toronto !!!

A Short History of the English People. By John Richard Green. Illustrated Edition. Parts 12 and 13. 1s. each. With every part the interest of this edition grows. We are now in the time of Henry VIII., and how much it adds to the story of the printed page to see opposite portraits of John Colet, from the "Heroologia," and Erasmus, after Albert Dürer, Lydgate in his Study, and a fac-simile of Caxton's Advertisement.

Imperial Federation. By George R. Parkin, M.A. Our feelings in regard to this book cannot be expressed better than in the words of the author's preface. "In most of the chief centres of the British world, both at home and abroad, I have found men of all classes and not seldom large masses of men, who agreed on the whole with the line of thought which I here try to follow; agreed too with an intensity of belief and a warmth of enthusiasm which are, I think, rarely found except in connection with great and true causes. This concurrence of other minds has deepened the profound conviction which I have long felt that the completion of a closer and permanent political unity between the British communities scattered throughout the world, should be the first aim of national statesmanship." Mr. Parkin's book belongs to a small and a rare class. He was well-fitted to write it, and has discharged his task with distinguished success. After the introduction he treats of Federation, Defence, the United Kingdom, Canada and French Canada. Then Mr. Goldwin Smith has a chapter. Mr. Parkin understands Mr. Smith. The last three chapters, after others have been devoted to Australia, South Africa, India, etc., are on Finance, Trade and Fiscal Policy and Plans. We can only say, most emphatically, that everyone should read this book. The questions discussed are of paramount importance, and the facts, arguments and suggestions are all well worth careful thought. The closer political connection of the British Empire is the next great problem demanding solution, and may that Providence which has guided the Empire to a solution of so many perplexing questions send the light and the leading for the solution of this.

THE American Book Company has recently issued a book which "real teachers" will take pleasure in reading. It is called "The Schoolmaster in Literature," and has been compiled by some worthy (and anonymous) person. Edward Eggleston, himself one of the authors represented, writes a preface which should by no means be "skipped." The book is a collection of extracts from the writings of Ascham, Goethe, Dickens, Thackeray, George Macdonald and sixteen other authors, describing members of the teaching profession, their character and work. The influence of this book over the reader cannot but be good. We are very glad to see it. $1.40.

Syllabus of Elementary Mechanics. By James Loudon, M.A., Professor of Physics, University of Toronto; President of the University. With Suitable Exercises and Examples. Prepared by C. A. Chant, Lecturer in Physics, University of Toronto. (Toronto: Rowsell and Hutchison.) 75 cents. It will be a convenience not only to the hundreds of students attending lectures at the University of Toronto, but to many others engaged in the study of mechanics, to have access to this work, which contains an outline of the work dealt with for some years by Professor Loudon in his lectures on elementary mechanics. Prof. Loudon's experience in the class-room is a sufficient guarantee of the value of the book, the mechanical execution of which reflects credit on the publishers. Answers are given to the problems.