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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

APRIL, 1901.

THE SPLENDID ISOLATION OF THE WOMEN IN
AUTHORITY.

BY ONE OF THEM.

THE title of this article may be a little misleading, but I merely wish to use it as a starting point on which to have a discussion of a few thoughts which are struggling for recognition in my mind. I refer to that august and dignified body of women who are filling the positions of "the Powers that Be," delegated or otherwise, in our various institutions of learning; the long-suffering and vilipended class known as lady principals, deans, preceptresses, etc., but not to any other body of women who may be in positions of authority in the business or professional world. It seems to be commonly recognized that the individuals in question are necessary—whether necessary evils or not does not call for an expression of opinion just here. But admitting, for the sake of argument, that such repositories of authority are necessary in schools and colleges where there are girls and young women, not to mention young men, it becomes a matter of interest to see how they are received and regarded by the young people under their care. Observation and reflection, both as a student and as a member of the class under discussion, have forced a few conclusions upon me that I should like to offer for what they are worth. I may mention, however, that I am still open to conviction, but I shall nevertheless present the thoughts that linger in my brain and refuse just now to be driven out. I may appear a little ministerial with my firstly and secondly up to the 'nthly, but I shall at once plead "not guilty" of ever having added the function of a priest to that of a preceptor. Now to my conclusions, and I shall use the term "principal" to denominate the people in question, thus obviating the necessity of repeating words, and at the same time eschewing the objectionable term "lady principal."

1st. The first impression of the student upon meeting the principal in her official capacity is one of tentative suspicion if not absolute fear or hostility. She may be a most amiable person but the student gives her the benefit of a doubt. If she is of pleasing appearance, it is in her favor, but if she is hampered with youth, her critics are hardly aware of it, for they are disposed to regard her as old anyway.

2nd. On the other hand, the first meeting may be very pleasant, and the young girl may have stored

away in the inmost recesses of her mind the impression that the woman she has met is "very sweet," but she is not likely to give utterance to this feeling among her companions for some time at least.

3rd. A respectable minority will always regard her with poorly masked aversion.

4th. Her short comings are freely commented upon in the presence of other teachers.

5th. She is liked in proportion as she extends privileges, not in the ratio in which she discharges her duty.

6th. She is rarely regarded in the light of a student's intimate friend.

7th. It is considered clever to make jokes at her expense—when she is absent—even though there be no feeling of ill-will.

8th. She is the *bete noir* of amorous youths who crave meetings with the young ladies under her espionage. She is commonly supposed to have had no practical experience in the tender emotions of the soul, and so is unable to understand them in others. She is also to be pitied because an opportunity in the future is not within the realm of possibility. Poor thing!

9th. Her ability as a scholar and instructor is frequently forgotten.

10th. She is usually on more or less intimate terms with a social scourge known as a chaperon, and thus from association comes to be regarded as a social nuisance.

Such then are my conclusions. As a student, I frequently felt the injustice of the position just outlined, and wondered if it was really necessary. As I grew older I saw that it was not, and I suppose the older students in Colleges sooner or later arrive at the same conclusion, and in Universities, among graduate women, the rational view is certain to be taken. But I am concerned

here with students in Schools and Colleges.

I have in mind some instances illustrative of this subject that I shall array as evidence. In a school I am familiar with, the principal was an earnest, upright, brilliant woman with a goodly amount of personal charm, and she gave of herself and her time to the students of the institution, yet there were not five girls out of the hundred who would come out boldly and defend her from unkind or flippant remarks. And of the faculty there the majority winked at the girls' outbursts while they had kindly feelings for their colleague. That woman held the reins of power in her hand, and she drew them gently but steadily without fear or favor.

Another case I remember is that of a woman clothed with authority who was placed in charge of the woman's department in a College of good standing. She lived in the residence hall, as also some other women members of the faculty, I among the rest, and so I had ample opportunity to take notes. The principal was well born, gently reared, kind and scholarly. The students were free from rules save those which good form dictated, and one might think that the family life would be free from restraint, but such was not the case. It was not long till some girls felt a lack of freedom in her presence, and later were keen to censure her most well disposed acts. I was the receptacle of many confidences concerning her, and I was at liberty to inquire into the reasons for their feeling. I asked again and again why they should feel differently toward the principal from any other members of the faculty residing there. The frankest finally analyzed the situation thus: We are supposed to be answerable to her, and that in itself

raises in us a feeling of opposition. The "mothering" is fictitious; it may assume the proportions of a dictatorship. That was the reason, as she had honestly thought it out. Is it, then, that we, as women, are so fearful of having our rights encroached upon that we in essence boycott the one to whom we are answerable? Can the restraint ever vanish in this relation? Can the woman who may say "don't" ever stand in a perfectly normal relation to the girl whose whole soul is bursting with "I will"? But that is an extreme case. To put it in another light, can the thin veil of authority ever be rent asunder so that the two women—principal and student—can see each other as they would in other relations in life? Is it desirable that they should? It is certainly interesting to speculate upon this, and it may not be wholly profitless to do so. The feeling of restraint may not be a bad thing. A good, wholesome fear may be the means of developing the one thing needful in many a girl. It may be the means of her intellectual regeneration.

I have not found that the relations are fundamentally changed when the principal has swerved from duty a little in the effort to gain popularity. She may be liked better at first for her laxity, but young people are usually quick to detect insincerity and despise it. I recall the case of a woman whose official duties did not include supervision of the dormitory life at all, but merely of the academic work, and I noticed that the girls' attitude towards her was practically the

same as that described in the other cases.

In my own not over-long experience as a principal, I believe the sentiment to be about as I have indicated it above. I have had the usual few admiring adherents, while the others, I am sure, regarded me in the light I have observed in other cases. I do not know that my administration has been weakened thereby; I do not know that I have suffered either morally or intellectually from the isolation. As an instructor only I was the confidante of many, and the repository of sacred secrets galore; as an instructor clothed with authority, I have noticed a distinct falling off of purely personal confidences, and I have talked with other principals who have said that, to be perfectly honest, they must admit the same thing.

Now, is our educational system suffering from this state of affairs? Is it true that, as Bernard Shaw said in a humorous address in London not long ago, that nine-tenths of education is nothing but the organized offence of the grown up person against the young person? And does the young person so regard the efforts of the woman in authority? Or is it that democracy engenders a spirit of aversion to a superimposed authority? Whatever the reason, there remains a barrier between the principal on the one side and the student on the other. Is it good, is it immaterial, or is it bad? Who shall say? Meanwhile the woman in authority stands alone in an isolation as unique as it is irresistible.

At the University of Michigan Prof. Hinsdale is succeeded by Wm. H. Payne, first incumbent of the chair of Pedagogy there, who left it

to become president of the University of Nashville, and now returns to it. He will be heartily welcomed back.

AIMS AND METHODS IN TEACHING LATIN.

HENRY BONIS, B.A., LEAMINGTON.

Continued from last issue.

Comparisons with the grammar of his own tongue, or more truly the absence of grammar therein, may, also, serve to excite admiration for the minds which conceived, and put in practice, a mode of expressing thought, so complicated, and requiring so much care and watchfulness to prevent error, and so certain in result that ambiguity of meaning is seldom found in it.

Even for those pupils who advance no farther than the primary book in Latin, we cannot say that the study has been for them unimportant in its influence on their minds. Besides the points already mentioned, there are others which need only to be mentioned to have their importance admitted. These include the great improvement in the pupils' knowledge of English grammar, a knowledge of Latin root-words found in English derivatives, and an often much needed training in accuracy of expression.

As the pupil advances and takes up the study of the authors, such as Cæsar and Virgil, Livy and Horace, the opportunities and means for mental training multiply. In addition, there is now the interest in the literature—the thought—which has heretofore been lacking, while the pupil was engaged on the exercises in the primary book. The question so often discussed at the present time as to whether Latin should be studied from the scientific or from the humanistic point of view must, as I have previously hinted, be answered differently at different stages of the pupil's course—certainly we cannot afford to overlook

the value of paying due attention to the literature of the authors read at this stage. Yet even here it may be said to be doubtful if this be the most important or most useful result to be obtained from this study.

When the student comes for the first time to read continuous Latin such as Cæsar, he becomes conscious of possessing at once a liberty and a responsibility unknown to him while he was confined to exercises carefully selected to exemplify some particular rules of grammar. This newly-acquired independence requires the constant watchfulness and advice of the teacher to prevent the development of undesirable modes of proceeding on the part of the pupil. He must be taught that the Latin construction *will not* be forced; and that the language is almost as exacting in point of conformity to law as is mathematics, or chemistry. Furthermore, he must be taught to feel that the liberty which is now accorded him in the expression of the thought in English must not be abused by carelessness in the choice of words, or the use of far-fetched or inappropriate expressions; or, on the other hand, by a slavish adherence to the form and the literal meaning of the Latin. If the pupil be taught from the beginning to turn the ablative absolute by suitable clauses and phrases, such as are used by good English writers and speakers, he will soon learn to do this regularly, and will not only thereby gain in apprehension of the thought of the rest of the sentence, but will take a genuine pleasure in achieving a true and elegant English form of expression for the thought. Surely this is an

exercise of the utmost practical value, and it has the further merit of avoiding those absurdities in literal translation which are at once a libel on the Latin author and a means of disgusting the student with the subject. If it be objected that literal translations are necessary to enable the teacher to test the pupil's knowledge of the Latin construction, it may be said that this object can be attained equally well by putting a few well-chosen questions on the grammar of the sentence.

In poetry and in rhetorical prose such as Livy the order of the words can often be followed in translating with great advantage in the way of accurate expression of the meaning. In Livy, in particular, by a simple change in the voice of the verb, or by using a noun in English to represent a Latin verb and *vice versa*, we may often follow the Latin order in translating with good results. And what a world of difference in meaning sometimes results from attention to the position of an adjective in Horace we all know. Why should we not more commonly strive to follow the Latin order in working out the translation? Assuredly the Roman mind must have proceeded in that way toward the apprehension of the thought. Is it not because we are hampered by rules of grammar which require us to proceed, for instance, from the subject to the predicate, and thence to the object? Granted that in many cases the order is such that our minds, accustomed to the English mode of arranging the ideas, refuse to work in the Latin way, yet when we find, as so often in Livy, the order of the sentence virtually reversed (as *we* should say), *e.g.*, "Augebant ingentis spiritus virune Sicilia Sardiniaque amissæ," we can

surely secure a better translation by following the *order*—"The proud spirit of the man was grieved at the loss of Sicily and Sardinia," than by following the *construction* and saying, "The loss of Sicily and Sardinia grieved this man of proud spirit." Again, in Horace, though much less reliance can be placed on the meaning of the position of words in poetry, shall we not come nearer the meaning of "dabimusque divi thura benignis," if we notice the position of the adjective at the end of the line—an emphatic position—and translate, "and we shall give incense to the gods because they are kind," than if we place the adjective before the noun and translate "the kindly gods"?

Many points in Latin syntax may be made to afford interesting comparisons between the Latin and our own language, in regard to the matter of clearness of thought. In these cases it will be found, usually, that the Latin has the advantage of English in this respect. The relations of time, for instance, were more clearly perceived by the Romans than by us. Hence the "If I go to Toronto, I will get you the book you speak of," must be transformed into "If I shall have gone to Toronto, I will get you the book you speak of," before it can don its Latin dress. The subtleties of the subjunctive mood, too, almost unknown in English, will open a field for thought and investigation, and will tend to place before the student ideals in the matter of expressing fine shades of meaning which the study of his own language would never bring. Parsing, too, often a bugbear with those who know no other language than English, becomes comparatively easy to the student who has gained a knowledge of Latin sentences where almost every other word is

already parsed, so to speak. This suggests another thought, namely, that the Roman who would use his language properly must have had a perfect knowledge of the function of every word in his sentences, whereas the English writer or speaker is under no such necessity. Rash, indeed, would it be to presume that all our public speakers who use even such simple sentences as "The river was nearly three hundred feet broad" could give the words *three hundred feet* their proper case endings, were that necessary—and yet we never find a Latin author slipping on such ground. In view of these facts I believe we may, in regard to many points, properly hold up Latin as a model language to our pupils, while at the same time we do not fail to point out those points in which the English language is decidedly superior to it. These are chiefly the greater richness of its vocabulary which admits of the expression of ideas, especially abstract ideas, with much more precision in English than in Latin, and the greater directness and freedom in expression, owing to the absence of inflections and the consequent flexibility of the language.

In the higher forms, too, something may be done to cultivate a taste not only for the best literature of Greece and Rome, but for much English literature that is so strongly tinged with classic lore that the taste for it depends on the taste for the latter. Here, again, enthusiasm on the part of the teacher will be the key to unlock for the pupil the door leading to this temple. If by his manner and words the teacher leaves on the mind of the pupil the impression that these things are but antiquated relics of an age which had little in common

with ours, and are at best useful as material for exercises in mental gymnastics, or as subjects for idle curiosity, then will the pupil be little likely to see anything attractive in this study. *Si vis me flere, dolendum est primum ipsi tibi*, says Horace, and the precept would seem to be quite as true of the teacher as of the writer. On the other hand if, filled with a proper spirit of admiration for the manifestations of mental development of a high order which are exhibited in the literature of ancient Greece and Rome, the teacher sees in the mythology of those peoples true and often beautiful abstractions instead of senseless fairy tales; if he realizes that, spite of the cruelty and wrong, the grossness and immortality of those times, there were, nevertheless, among those peoples the seeds of all the virtues which adorn our present civilization; and that their failure to solve the deepest ethical problems of human life, as they assuredly did solve many of its intellectual problems, was, in the circumstances, inevitable; then may the humanistic value of even the limited portions of Latin authors read in our High Schools be for his pupils by no means inconsiderable.

In these suggestions—for in spite of their didactic form in some cases, a style into which a pedagogue is, I believe, peculiarly liable to fall, they are intended for nothing more—I have attempted to present my conception of some of the chief aims and most useful methods for the teachers of Latin in our High Schools.

If discussion of this subject shall, as is not improbable, bring out better methods, and more rational aims, I shall be among the first to adopt them.

ENGLISH LITERATURE IN THE 19TH CENTURY.

BY W. J. ALEXANDER, PH.D.

I.

THE Nineteenth Century has produced, there seems little room to doubt, not only a much larger body of literature, but a much larger body of literature of a higher order than any previous era in the history of English letters. Indeed, for literary excellence, we might well assign it the first place, were it not for the objection, in all probability justly taken, that one work of a higher order in art outweighs any number of productions of an inferior grade. For example, it might be argued that no number of poems of the character written by our present laureate could be held as compensating for the loss of a single great poem by either of his great predecessors in office. In like manner, from the purely æsthetic point of view, the dramas of Shakespeare may out-value the whole poetical product of the 19th century; not because we have lacked writers of lofty genius, but because none have written works which in breadth, profundity, and beauty can be ranked beside his.

Be this as it may, however, the nineteenth century stands conspicuous for the extraordinary variety, power and beauty of its literary achievement. Yet, at its opening it may be doubted whether, to a contemporary, the prospects of literature seemed much more brilliant than they do at the present time to those who are lamenting both the absence of works of genius, and the triviality, the lack of inspiration and ideas in current literature. The average observer in the year 1801 would not have been aware of the existence of a single writer of great

power. It is true that there were an unusual number of men of genius alive, but most of them, as yet immature, had given no clear proof of their powers; two of them, indeed, Wordsworth and Coleridge, had in the volume of *Lyrical Ballads* (1798), established their claims beyond a doubt; but few readers were aware of the existence of that volume; fewer, if any, of its merits and of its significance.

Though the orthodox critic of that date could see but little promise of the brilliant era which was dawning, we, in the light of subsequent developments, can see much. Not only have we apprehended the wonderful novelty and power of the poetry contained in the *Lyrical Ballads*, and the significance of the volumes by Burns, which by a few years had anticipated it; but we also perceive that, mediocre and ineffective as was the great mass of books appearing in those years, this literature was not merely imitative; there was a reaching out in various directions, a seeking after novel themes and methods, a spirit of experiment and expansion such as invariably precedes a great creative epoch. In this we have the outcome of a great wave of emotionalism (evidenced, for example, by the works of Rousseau, and the "*Sorrows of Werther*") which had been permeating Europe for a quarter of a century past—a reaction, in part, against the pure intellectualism, the hard common sense, the preference for cold abstractions of the generations immediately preceding. This accession of feeling lent, as emotion always does, a new atmosphere to the world, a new light and a new interest to things,—an essential condition of

novel and vigorous imaginative development; for the power of imagination consists in reproducing the concrete world, in literature or art, so that it shall have a fresh significance and a fresh beauty to the beholder. The most general formula for the *intellectual* change produced by this crisis, is that the dominant tendency to regard things as mechanical and arbitrary, was replaced by the tendency to regard them as organic and vital. Hume's conception of the mind as merely passive, a bundle of sensations and ideas imprinted by experience without relation to one another apart from accidental succession in time, is replaced by the Kantian conception of the mind as an entity which transforms all experience in accordance with the laws of its own nature. The universe ceases to be regarded as a machine ingeniously put together by the great Designer, but in itself dead and remote from human sympathy and assumes the guise of an organism shaped by the indwelling vital spirit, and akin in its constitution to man himself. Political and social institutions cease to be explained either as the arbitrary impositions of tyrants or as the result of specific agreement on the part of the governed, but are acknowledged (as they were by Burke) to be the gradual product of national growth, the expression of the indwelling national genius.

Now, though this new world of emotion and insight had already been more or less vaguely apprehended by Englishmen, and had found some expression, for the most part inadequate and incomplete, it was reserved for the generation, which reached full maturity about the year 1800, to feel the full inspiration of the new spirit and to embody it in great imaginative works. The first evidence within the limits of the new century of the presence

of great and original literary power was afforded by the publication of the *Lay of the Last Minstrel* (1805). It was Scott's distinctive office to reveal the historic past (brought close to his sympathies by ties of kinship and race and patriotic feeling) as no longer a bare series of names and events, but as picturesque and alive, and akin to the actual world through the presence of the permanent traits of human nature. Wordsworth, in the *Poems* of 1807 and subsequent volumes, following the lines laid down in the *Lyrical Ballads*, revealed the new aspects of material nature, and the poetic worth and beauty of the ordinary life of the peasantry, hitherto regarded as outside the realms of art. His work is probably the most original and substantial contribution made to the stock of English poetry by any single writer during the whole century. In 1812 Byron became the conspicuous figure on the poetic stage, and held public attention by a series of poems, many of which, different as they were in tone and matter, followed the style introduced by Scott. Scott, accordingly, sought a fresh and more congenial field in prose, and produced a series of novels unparalleled in any age or country. At the same time a much shorter series, but, in some respects not less remarkable, was being published by Jane Austen. Another prose writer of genius, whose work also belongs to the imaginative side, is Charles Lamb. As we approach the twenties, to the elder group of poets is added two men of extraordinary endowments, belonging to a somewhat later generation, Shelley and Keats; so that we have, about 1820, an epoch of extraordinary brilliancy in imaginative literature, embracing a larger number of great writers than does any other equally brief period in our history.

The poetry of the time was a re-

volt against the canons of the eighteenth century; such a revolt was neither so natural nor so necessary in prose. The eighteenth century, unpropitious as it was to the higher imaginative literature, favored the production of an effective prose style. Dignity, clearness, correctness had been the chief characteristics of the latter form of eighteenth century prose, and in the hands of great masters like Samuel Johnson, it was also eminently virile and forcible. The sense of dignity and propriety, however, kept it too far aloof from the living colloquial speech; in weaker hands it became stiff, cold, and abstract, and failed to accommodate itself to varying tone and thought. These weaknesses are very apparent in the prose of the first third of the following century when the traditions of the previous age still held sway; and there is no marked development in style to attract the notice of the literary historian.

II.

The first broad literary movement of the century may be considered as closing with the era of the Reform Bill, and therefore as covering one-third of the whole period. By the year 1833 the great spirits whom we have named had either passed away or practically finished their work; but the intellectual stimulus had by no means exhausted itself. It was strong enough to inspire another group of literary men, whose works made the second third of the century almost equal in brilliancy to the first. The force of inspiration, however, in the domain of poetry at least, is evidently on the wane. This is shown not merely by the general inferiority of the later group but by the special characteristics of their work. In Tennyson we find the effective combination of limits,

devices, phrases and ideas borrowed from predecessors, immediate and remote;—the work of genius, not, however, of genius working under a strong impulse and conviction, but laboriously elaborating, with taste and judgment and the finest technical skill, a wealth of material handed down from the past. In Browning, on the other hand, who does not yield to any of his immediate predecessors in originality and force, the intellectual and critical impulse is apt to be stronger than the imaginative and creative, so that there is an imperfect fusion of thought and form. In their later contemporaries the marks of exhaustion are clearer. Matthew Arnold is more manifestly imitative (his masters are Wordsworth and Goethe) than the poets of the earlier period. In both Arnold and Clough, one is conscious of the tenuity and uncertainty of the poetic afflatus; and in fact with Arnold, the inspiration gave out, and his riper years were given to critical prose.

But if, on the whole, then, the poetical product of the second third of the century, choice as it is, is inferior to that of the earlier, the converse holds, in the case of prose. There is in the first place a marked development of style—quite parallel to the earlier change wrought in poetry. The conventional propriety and regularity of the eighteenth century is abandoned and the reins are given to individual idiosyncrasies or even to caprice; hence the prose of this age becomes as varied as were the poetic styles of Wordsworth's contemporaries. Prose ceases to be abstract and academic, and draws closer to the language of ordinary life. It becomes more colloquial both in vocabulary and sentence-forms; its diction grows more concrete and imaginative, and is often impassioned or poetical.

Carlyle and Macaulay (the two most influential prose writers of the period), and the late Ruskin, sufficiently illustrate this; the same tendencies, though less conspicuous, are discoverable in the writings of Newman, the greatest master of English prose in the century. All these men were not merely great stylists, but producers of great works. To emphasize further the greatness of the period in prose, one may add to the names already mentioned those of J. S. Mill, Dickens, Thackeray, Charlotte Brontë, and later, George Eliot, whose best works were all published by 1866. This second period culminated about 1850, when, with the exception of the last mentioned, all these writers were successfully exercising their literary gifts.

The earlier period had been a time when novel ideas and methods were struggling for admission, and were opposed by authority and tradition. It was an era of bitter conflict; this is true not merely of literature and of the intellectual world in general, but in the practical sphere of society and politics. But at the opening of the second division of the century the chief obstacles had already been surmounted. Hence a sense of progress, of hopefulness, of room for "diffusive thought to work and spread." It was a time for optimism, for broad generalizations and sanguine projects; the germinal ideas of which we have spoken were energetically developed, and applied in every department. The prevailing tendency, already mentioned, to explain things as organic involved the idea of growth, of the influence of surroundings, and of the importance of following the successive stages of change. Hence the conception of development, of evolution, and of the historical method. These ideas received im-

pressive illustration in such works as Lyell's *Principles of Geology* at the opening of the era, and Darwin's *Origin of Species* towards its close; under their influence, not merely natural science, but every branch of thought was by degrees revolutionized.

III.

In time, however, as the wider and more striking applications were exhausted, the ideas themselves began to lose their freshness and stimulus. They seemed less satisfactory; their results were less positive than had been expected. Often they appeared to lead to mere scepticism, to be little else than destructive. The sources of faith and action were sapped. So, in the closing third of the century, the great wave of inspiration of whose beginnings we spoke at the outset, seems well-nigh to have spent itself. The hopefulness and energy of the middle years of the century have departed. There is an awakening from many bright dreams. The age of universal peace looked forward to in the early Fifties had not arrived. The great programme of political reforms which had been earlier sketched was with some completeness realized, yet the Golden Age was as remote as ever. And so in the world of literature, there are manifest indications of decadence, or, at least, of exhaustion. To be sure, the change is gradual; the dividing line is not as distinct as at 1833. Several of the great men of the preceding period continue to live and to write after 1866, but generally speaking their best and most significant work had been done. No genius of the same rank as the leaders of the preceding sixty-six years appears. Genius of any order is rare, although good writers are not uncommon. De-

cline is specially evident in the sphere of imaginative literature. Dante Rossetti is the one poet of unmistakable power, but his work is reminiscent of Coleridge and Keats. Even valuing very liberally the novels of Hardy, George Meredith, and others, the fiction of later years is not equal to that of the middle of the century. It is notable that writers of critical and scholarly, rather than of creative, works become more prominent than in the earlier periods. Authors like M. Arnold (as a writer of prose), Walter Bagshot, John Morley, Goldwin Smith, J. R. Seeley, Leslie Stephen are conspicuous figures in our later literature; as are also writers of exquisite but somewhat trivial verse, like Austin Dobson and Frederick Locker. Among younger and later writers, the common phenomena of literary exhaustion display themselves—supreme importance of technique, attention both in poetry and prose to style at the expense of thought, literary ambition and skill with but little or nothing to utter. Writers hit upon a happy vein, but it quickly gives out. With many clever men of letters prose becomes affected; ostentatiously select diction and epigrammatic expression serve only to veil vacuity or triteness of thought. On the other hand, it may be conceded that two writers of real genius (of what rank it would be presumption to attempt to determine) have appeared in the old age of the century, Robert Louis Stevenson and Rudyard Kipling. The works of the former have all the marks of the close, not the beginning of a literary epoch—of the aftermath, not of the spring-time of a literary movement. Perhaps the contrary may be true of Kipling.

Extreme lamentation and pessi-

mistic vaticination over the state of literature in these latest years are scarcely justifiable. There has been a period of comparative barrenness, and the past shows us that this is inevitable after one of extraordinary fertility. There is nothing strange or ominous in the mediocrity of the later production of the century as compared with the earlier. The past does not justify us in looking for an uninterrupted series of masterpieces. Great works are more sparsely scattered, even in the richest epochs, than we are wont to think; the perspective deceives us; they seem massed together as does a group of trees through the effect of distance. Works of genius are by their nature rare; were they common, we would forthwith reduce the number by raising the standard. Again, fears for literature based upon the growth of science are scarcely well grounded. Scientific men, it is true, are not likely to produce imaginative literature. But the knowledge of science does not prevent the enjoyment of literature; and men will continue to be born in the future as they were born in the past, with the desire and power to produce the beautiful—not to follow abstract truth. Literature is simply the most beautiful expression in language of our experiences and ideas—the expression of life and thought so that they will seem pleasurable, and come home to us with some of the vivacity of the actual. What has been lacking of late is not the demand for this sort of thing, or the power to appreciate it, or the mere technical skill to embody it, but ideas and experiences which are at once sufficiently fresh and inspiring and important to constitute the substance of great literature.—*The Varsity*.

GEOGRAPHY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

BY W. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

I.—ITS IMPORTANCE.

GEOGRAPHY in the school, when well taught, does more than any other branch to make the child at home in his environment ; to organize his experience into apperception ; to arouse in him a thirst for knowledge,—that is to say, to give him a many-sided interest, and to give him the general habit of looking upon any one fact as an explanation of another.

First, it is a corrective of superstition. The unorganized experience of man is held together by means of superstition. Imaginary connections of one fact with another, the explanation of one fact by a fact which has no real relation to it, constitutes superstition. The good school from the first begins to train the child into the habit of explaining, by means of one fact, other facts which are connected with it by causal relations. This is the opposite tendency from superstition, and geography, when well taught, is the one branch in elementary school instruction which does most for the child in organizing his experience in such a way as to eliminate the superstition which has come in through the exercise of the untutored imagination. For imagination it substitutes insight into causal relations.

Second, the child's experience reaches out on many sides, and touches many phases of nature. It is, therefore, a mistake to condemn geography because it is a composite of many sciences. It is in the nature of things that the elementary school must teach for its subject-matter that which appeals to the many-sided interest of the child, and

yet does not probe beyond a shallow stratum of experience. The experience of the child is shallow, first, because he has had little time to gain his experience, and, secondly, because he has not been able to gain it with the critical apparatus furnished by the systematized experience of mankind—what is called science. But the first cultivation of the ground of experience in the elementary school corrects the child's methods by giving him some insight into causal connections, and substituting these for the connections which fancy or untutored imagination has begun already to form. The child who has been at school only two or three brief terms shows already, in his habits of observation, a change of method from the use of imagination to the use of the causal principle. He has begun to substitute thought for fancy.

Once begun, the thinking habit continues, and gradually transforms the world. I have said that the experience of the illiterate person without association with scientific minds is organized on the basis of imagination, and is mostly a mass of superstition. It may be said of it that the greater its accumulation, the greater the proportion of error in it. But with the experience which is built up on the observation of causality there increases in the mind a power of thinking the true relations of things in the world, and the power to form a just estimate of the real forces that govern them. Hence, with the correction of one's habit of observation through a little schooling, there may result, in the course of a long life, a vast structure of well-organized experience ; whereas in the case of the mind that has

been controlled by imagination there is a vast heap or collection of data connected by fancied relations in such a way as to make all thought upon them a tissue of error.

There is another reflection which should be borne in mind in this consideration of the objection to geography based upon the fact that it is a composite science, and that one is this: There are very many composite sciences, and, in fact, there are very few sciences which do not, in some way, relate to other sciences as their presupposition, or which do not lead into other sciences in natural sequence. Human physiology presupposes animal physiology, and these presuppose plant physiology, and plant physiology again presupposes organic chemistry, and this again inorganic chemistry. The subject of sociology contains many sciences for its presupposition. Again, take pedagogy for an example of one of the most important fields of investigation for the teacher, and what a variety of sciences it includes! Medicine presupposes physiology, pathology, therapeutics, chemistry, pharmacy, etc. Take child study itself: It presupposes anatomy and physiology, anthropology, ethnology, folklore, psychology, philology, literature, art, science, religion, jurisprudence, politics, and more or less all the other sciences, sociologic or physical, in order to give the student an ability to apperceive or recognize the significance of the various acts of the child. If the observer of the child is ignorant of any one of these sciences, he will fail to see the significance of some phase or other of the activity of the child. Child-study is in fact, like pedagogy, so composite in its elements that we may say with more reason than was said of geography, that "if a serpent

could once be thought the appropriate symbol of wisdom, a still more fitting symbol for child study wisdom might be found in a sausage."

II.—GEOGRAPHY THE FOUNDATION STUDY OF NATURE AND MAN.

Geography starts from the child's immediate experience of his habitat, and moves towards the descriptive sciences or natural history. Botany, zoology, physiology, meteorology, mineralogy, all these and their infinite subdivisions have each some element which is simple enough to be observed by the child in his living experience, but no one of them contains many elements which the child experience can systematically arrange. In each of them the third or fourth lesson takes the subject into a region which is too abstract for the child in the primary school. Nevertheless, the co-ordination of the elements of these several sciences, found in the experience of the child, is a first step towards science, and the pupil who has taken his first lesson in this direction has acquired, in some feeble way, a scientific habit of mind which will, in anyone happily constituted, exercise its influence over all his future mental growth.

Those who would have geography limit itself to the scientific study of the surface of the earth and of the process of formation of elements of difference (such as the special forms of land and the special forms of water) do not consider that they lose one-half of the many-sided interest which these objects have for the child, by omitting the consideration of the human side of geography; namely, all the relations which man has to his habitat, and especially his reactions upon nature; his transformations of land and water, adapting them to his pur-

poses; his cunning inventions by which he conquers the most terrible elements of nature, such as the stormy ocean, by means of his invention of the ship; the conquest of the rigors of climate, by means of the house, the fire place, the furnace, the warm garment, etc. All productions of the earth have relation to man, in some degree, and man's action upon all these elements forms one of the most interesting stories that can be told to man, whether infant or sage. Geography unites the study of the natural elements,—land and water, climate and productions,—with the study of man's present conquest and use of the same.

Of course, in giving this human lesson in the study of geography, one draws upon the elements of many other sciences, as, for instance, the various social sciences explaining man's progress in agriculture, mining, manufactures and commerce; explaining the political differences that show themselves in the formation of the nations of the world which vary each from another in the degree in which they have realized individual freedom of the citizen, and in the creation of instrumentalities for giving all the people the opportunities of education in science, literature and the arts. Besides these tributary sciences there are others; the science of comparative religion and of comparative æsthetics of fine arts, and the history of the progress of men in four or five grades of civilization,—savage, barbarous, half-civilized, civilized and enlightened, for example. In general geography treats, in this phase, of the institutions of society by which the social whole is made to help the individual, and the individual made in turn to help all his fellow-men by means of the organized institutions in which he lives.

Every child holds in his consciousness some elements out of all these spiritual sciences, from jurisprudence down to the simplest arts of the savage, and the great work accomplished by the elementary school in the study of geography is this: It marshals the child's experience along each of the lines of the sciences of nature and the sciences of man (as society and individual), and makes him conscious of these apperceptive centres in his experience, and likewise gives him the outlines of the great provinces of human knowledge, to which these serve as keys. It is true that he does little more than apply his key and open the door, without advancing far beyond the threshold. But ever after he remembers, in relation to some or any of his experiences, that one of them unlocks the door which leads into mineralogy, geology, botany, physiology or meteorology; or, again, another experience explains for him the social combination of man in productive industry in some one department; or to the law-making and political activity of man, by which he organizes society in such a way that each individual receives freedom as his heritage; or another experience applies to religion and literature and the fine arts. What a difference it makes to the child to know that each fact of his humble experience is given him as a key to unlock some particular door leading into the great temple of human knowledge!

III.—ALL EDUCATION BEGINS WITH THE COMPOSITE, AND GOES TOWARDS THE SIMPLE BY ANALYSIS.

It will have struck all observers of school studies and practical devices for teaching them that the child does not deal, to any great ex-

tent, with pure and simple sciences, although he has to do with pure and simple elements. He passes from one simple element, derived from one science, to another simple element derived from a different science, but not straight forward on the same road of investigation. All his studies are composite. He learns a lesson in addition, or multiplication, or some other elementary process of arithmetic, and then he proceeds with it at once to applications which involve the combination of the arithmetical contingent with another contingent taken from geography, or history, or from one of the industries, such as manufactures or commerce, mining or agriculture.

It was pointed out, in the report of the Committee of Fifteen, that geography, one of the most important of all branches taught in the common schools, is a composite science, or a conglomerate of several sciences united with several arts. Instead of being a defect, this is a most important advantage to an elementary school study, provided the fragments of science brought together are such as may be easily grounded in the child's experience. The child of the primary school has not built up his apperception centres to such a degree as to follow pure science, nor can he be taught the methods of advanced and specialized science, at his age, without injury. Those authorities that are recommending the early introduction of specialization and advanced scientific methods do not consider that they are trying to demolish, at

one blow, all that has been learned with regard to the methods of instruction in elementary schools, for they sacrifice the many sided interest which is necessary for the best progress of the pupil. The child of four or five years of age has many interests, but he has no great stock of accumulations in any one direction. The good primary teacher ascertains these various elements of interest, and brings them up into consciousness, and skilfully combines these isolated elements. Each lesson should bring the child's mind from these elements of his experience toward the seizing of some phase of an abstract scientific principle. If, however, the line of investigation, which approaches a scientific principle, is to be followed indefinitely, the second or third step would bring the pupil into a region entirely beyond his experience, and it would not be possible for the teacher to retain his interest. Like Antaeus, the child's mind must be brought down and made to touch the ground of his experience again and again at every step, and this has to be done in many sciences rather than in the same science. But the child whose experience has been marshalled by the skilful teacher and made conscious, the child who has learned how to apply his experience as a key to the explanation of things just beyond the range of his immediate experience, is a child who has gained in power of apperception, and who has taken the first essential step toward attaining a scientific mind.—*The School Journal*.

THE NEW STAR.—A new star of great brilliancy has appeared in our evening sky. It was observed on the 22nd ult. in the constellation Perseus, and is very easily observed when the evenings are clear. New stars coming within the range of

sight by the unaided eye are not a common phenomenon, and the cause of their sudden emergence into visibility is not yet known with certainty. Probably light will be thrown on the point on this occasion by means of spectrum analysis.

EUCLID AND HIS MODERN RIVALS.

BY PROFESSOR KELLY MILLER, HOWARD UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE principal deviations of modern text books on elementary geometry from Euclid's model may be arranged under four heads: (1) Definition of an Angle. (2) Hypothetical Construction. (3) Treatment of Proportion. (4) Assortment of Original Exercises. On examining these topics closely, I think the balance of advantage will be found to lie with Euclid.

I. DEFINITION OF AN ANGLE.

Euclid: "A plane rectilinear angle is the inclination of two straight lines to one another, which meet together, but are not in the same straight line."

Modern writers define this concept variously.

Davies: "An angle is the amount of divergence of two straight lines lying in the same plane."

Olney: "An angle is the opening between two straight lines which meet each other."

Newcomb: "An angle is a figure formed by two straight lines extending out from one point in different directions."

Wentworth: "An angle is the difference of direction in two straight lines."

Many authors avoid the difficulty of an affirmative definition in this fashion:

"When two straight lines meet each other an angle is formed."

In this comparison Euclid certainly does not suffer in being pitted against his rivals, either singly or all taken together.

One of the most eminent of modern authors complains that "We find neither in Euclid nor among his modern followers any recognition of

angles equal to or exceeding 180° , or any explicit definition of what is meant by the sum of two angles." The omission cited in the last clause of this complaint is indeed a serious defect. But it is doubtful whether there is any advantage in introducing at the beginning of elementary geometry angular magnitudes equal to or greater than 180° . What a task it would be to impress upon the mind of the beginner "any explicit definition of what is meant by the sum of two angles" if each of such angles be greater than 180° . There is scarcely any need for such angles in elementary geometry, however useful such extension may be in astronomy and in the higher mathematics. It may not be out of place to remark that many authors seem to prepare their text-books with special reference to their bearing upon the higher mathematics, rather than as a collection of essential truths concerning the properties of space, arranged so as to develop the logical powers of the learner. Nothing can be said against such works as treatises on geometry, but they certainly are objectionable as text-books for beginners. It is a simpler process to remove restrictions when larger applications demand it, than to complicate an elementary study with wide generalizations. A *straight angle* or an angle of 180° , taken by itself, conveys no idea to the beginner, and he gathers only a faint notion of its meaning after all the explanations and illustrations that can be offered. It seems to be the fashion among some authors to make the properties of a straight angle, hazy as the notion of it is in the mind of the beginner, the

foundation of all subsequent propositions. Not a few authors define a right angle as one half of a straight angle, and set as their first proposition that all straight angles and all right angles are equal. The learner, as we have seen, having no clear conception of what a straight angle is, it is interesting to speculate how he is supposed to clearly perceive what a right angle (half a straight angle) is, unless, perchance, he is supposed to guess at twice its value and divide by two.

II. HYPOTHETICAL CONSTRUCTION.

Is the beginner not, as one may say, naturally prone to assumptions? If he is encouraged in this habit, is he not likely to assume too much? We have no guarantee that he will always confine himself to those assumptions which are possible. "Why should a beginner," asks Dr. Isaac Todhunter, in his essay on the *Conflict of Studies*, "why should a beginner not assume that he can draw a circle through four given points if he finds it convenient?" It is as easy, and as allowable, to assume that an angle be *trisected* as it is to assume that it be *bisected*, and yet the difference in difficulty of the two constructions has not been measured by two thousand years of study.

In my own experience I have several times had pupils, in proving "Pons Asinorum," to proceed thus:

"Draw CD bisecting the *triangle* ACB . Then angle A is equal to angle B , being homologous angles of equal triangles."

Such procedure always causes me to laugh in my sleeve, musing the while, that the poor pupil has as much right to assume that CD bisects the *triangle* ACB , as the author has to assume that it bisects the *angle* ACB .

In a text-book published in 1900,

which is perhaps more widely used than any other in America, the author deliberately proves (?) that a line can be drawn through a given point perpendicular to a plane, by assuming that *a plane can be passed through a point perpendicular to a line!* And yet they tell us that mathematics is a dry subject and wholly void of humor.

The principle of hypothetical construction is, that when the possibility of a problem is conceived, we may assume it solved without going through the process of solution. One is thus reminded of a comical situation in Gilbert and Sullivan's opera *Mikado*. Ko-ko succeeds in extricating himself from a very unpleasant position, by explaining that when his majesty, the Mikado, orders a thing done, it is as good as done; and if it is as good as done, we had just as well say that it is done.

III. TREATMENT OF PROPORTION.

Euclid's treatment of proportion is indeed a tedious and laborious study. But the learner is more than repaid if he succeeds in avoiding the mystery of incommensurables in which the algebraic treatment usually involves him. His treatment of proportion is regarded by many as his crowning excellence, and as the highest proof of his genius.

IV. ORIGINAL EXERCISES.

The lack of exercises in Euclid is indeed a serious omission, but it is one which any fairly competent teacher can supply. It seems to be the ambition of some authors to get together the greatest possible number of original exercises. Such exercises may be found scattered throughout our text-books by the hundreds, and even by the thousands. In the first place, it has been observed that these exercises,

especially such as present much difficulty, are not generally worked out by the student; these solutions become a tradition in the schools, and are handed down from year to year and from class to class. The value of the study of geometry does not depend wholly upon the test of ingenuity for difficult original problems. Such a test is out of the question for students of feeble or even ordinary power for abstract reasoning, while the study of geometry may be of incalculable benefit to them. This study should not be looked upon as one calling mainly for ingenious devices and mental dexterity. It is to be hoped that the time has passed when it was the ambition of mathematicians to propose brain-puzzling problems, and keep the neighborhood constantly perplexed over some useless question in arithmetic or geometry.

The number of questions which can be proposed is practically infinite. It is needless to attempt them all. What the learner needs is a few exercises, judiciously selected and adapted to his stage of mental development, to illustrate and enforce the principles laid down in the leading propositions. More than these is a useless waste of time and effort. Quoting again from Dr.

Isaac Todhunter: "When a mathematical subject has been studied so far as to master the essential principles, little more is gained by pursuing these principles into almost endless applications. Thus after a moderate course in synthetic geometry such as Euclid supplies, it may be most advantageous for the student to pass on to other subjects like analytical geometry and trigonometry, which present him with ideas of another kind, and not mere repetitions of those with which he is already familiar." The value of this view is heightened when we consider that many of the complicated questions of elementary geometry can be solved with great ease by the higher methods.

It seems that we have not yet learned all that old Greece has to teach us even about the study of elementary mathematics. "Socrates," so Xenophon tells us in his *Memorabilia*, "disapproved of the study of geometry when carried the length of its more difficult diagrams. For though himself not in conversant with these, he did not perceive of what utility they could be, calculated as they were to consume the life of a man and to turn him away from many other and important acquirements."—*Education*.

MANUAL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE average taxpayer probably knows little about the present condition of Manual Training in the Public Schools, and, since he hears much to its discredit, he is often inclined to think that it may be something of a fad. Certain members of the School Board confirm him in this view. They talk of children who are learned in drawing, modelling, and paper work, but are shaky on the three "R's"; they talk of the expense of conducting

the Manual Training course, recommend reductions in the staff, and actually hold up appointments when vacancies occur. This educational movement is more or less on the defensive, and the average father is probably in doubt whether it should be defended and improved, or done away with as an ill-judged experiment of impractical faddists. No thing will better clear up the situation than the simple statement of what Manual Training tries to do.

Manual Training, first of all, does not seek to make artists or artisans. It is simply a part of the general training of every child—as necessary in the eyes of the best authorities as geography or mental arithmetic. It should be remembered that the early stages of education consist simply in teaching the child how to do things. Where naturally he would think, or say, or do purposeless, or useless, or even harmful things, he must be taught to do playful, orderly, and helpful things; or, as Prof. William James sums it all up: "Education [is] . . . the organization of acquired habits of conduct and tendencies to behavior."

The older education, with a just but partial instinct, trusted chiefly to the verbal memory of the child, neglecting his other faculties. Modern education requires that no faculty of the child shall be neglected; that the eye and the hand shall reinforce the lesson in the mind. The aim is not an arbitrary training of the hand, but to train the hand to express what has interested the child, and what it is important for him to recognize in the nature about him, in the books he reads, and in the life he leads. The point of departure is always the regular school work. Take a specimen course for the children of the first grade. The time is autumn. The child draws the commoner flying seeds, paints the trees and the vegetables of the season, models in clay the commoner animals. The reading lesson is, say, Longfellow's "Village Blacksmith"; a child takes the part and the others attempt to draw him in the pose. and similarly the children illustrate their other reading. As a beginning of geography and history, the class is told about the Eskimo, and model Eskimo houses, sleds, clay dishes, etc. Finally, the

observation of his own life is taught to the child by having him draw or paint children at play, or make simple playthings or household articles. All this may seem a little obvious to those who were lucky enough to be country children, with the multitude of occupations that the country affords, but to the child whose life is bounded by the city street such training of the eye and hand is not superfluous.

Manual Training, therefore, is only a method of applying to the purposes of education the instinct that leads the normal child to scribble his text-book full of pictures—to make that occupation count for the school work, instead of against it. The hand work must, except in the higher grades, be so closely related to the head work that one teacher can manage both, and nothing has been more creditable than the enthusiasm with which thousands of the teachers of the Primary Schools have followed the voluntary courses and taken hold of a work that, for a time at least, was an additional burden. This training is most valuable and necessary in the elementary grades, where it is least showy and least expensive. Until the child has shown a preference for one means of expression over another, all his possibilities of expression should be equally cultivated. The success of the movement, then, depends, not on the specialists of the upper grades, but on the regular teachers of the Elementary Schools. And it is the success of the movement in these grades that is its best testimonial.

But some one may ask, If the educative value of Manual Training is fully recognized by the competent, if the movement is spreading throughout the country, and is firmly established in States, like Massachusetts, which lead the educational

movement, why this constant criticism and opposition? It would take long to answer the question satisfactorily, but this much is clear—the chief obstacle to the movement is ignorance of its purposes and ends. If people would go to the schools and see the exercises in progress, if they would talk with the educators, who study educational problems as sanely and as thoroughly as the financier studies the course of the markets, they would cease to talk about “paying teachers to make the children play jack-straws”—they would gain confidence that the movement was grounded in good sense.

It was, perhaps, unfortunate that the movement started in the High Schools, where its educational value was slightest, where the expense (for workshops, etc.) was considerable, and where the apparent competition with the traditional studies was most felt. It is possible that, like every new movement, its advocates have been intolerant at times of the prejudices they had to deal with. It was inevitable that in what was a new departure, a wholly tentative movement, mistakes should be made. Here the Manual Training people may have failed to con-

ciliate their natural supporters, there they may have boggled their own science. But all these things are the incidents of a new movement, and it does not appear that Manual Training has sinned above other reforms. It is enough to look back to 1877, when the Massachusetts Institute of Technology borrowed bodily the Russian system of Manual Training exhibited at Philadelphia, to see that the whole movement has advanced normally, and in obedience to the real needs of modern education.

That the system is still far from perfect, none know better than its friends; that it has established itself as a useful and necessary part of our school system, no one who will look fairly into the matter can deny. At present the movement encounters a certain amount of misrepresentation—some quite innocent, some malicious. What it has chiefly to fear is ignorance and indifference. If the fathers and mothers of this city will inform themselves as to the actual conduct of the courses to-day, the permanency of the system will be assured—for the common-sense of this great city will have judged it and found it good.—*Evening Post, March 6, 1901.*

THE UNIVERSITY ALUMNI'S DEPUTATION.

BY PROFESSOR A. H. YOUNG, TRINITY

THE Alumni Association of the University of Toronto has, since its inception, displayed praiseworthy activity. Its attention has been devoted mainly, though not solely, to money considerations, money, in the opinion of the University authorities, being, as it would seem, the University's chief, perhaps only, need at the present moment. Accordingly the large deputation of the 13th of March concen-

trated its energies upon that one point—with the result familiar to the whole of the University constituency, a part of which is decidedly unsatisfied, if not dissatisfied, with the answer made by the Premier on behalf of himself and his colleagues.

What more the honorable gentleman could have done in the way of making promises it is difficult to conceive. The deputation had em

phasized (and rightly) the correlation of the University to the industrial and commercial life of the province as the one thing to be desired, and the assurance was given that the natural science departments would be strengthened. This means probably that both pure and applied science will be better provided for than they have been heretofore. It is to be hoped that, taking into account the few pointed words from Mr. Clergue, the new equipment will be of the most practical kind, and not of such a character as will make it possible for critics, hostile or friendly, to say truthfully what has been said in former days, that a large part of the apparatus was not only unused, but useless. And above all, the new men who are to make use of the new apparatus must be at least equal to those at present on the staff, not only in their attainments, but in their ability to impart knowledge, to inspire their students with a love for their subject, and to perceive what changes in methods are required from time to time by the ever changing social conditions of our country.

It has been freely asserted that the Premier said he had no intention, for the present at least, to add the mediæval departments of classics, etc. Such may be the case, though I, for one, did not quite understand his utterance to mean that literally. It seemed rather as though he intended to emphasize the fact that general interests weigh more with him than special ones do. In other words, the University is to be extended at the Government's expense, so far as the country's resources and due regard to other demands upon the treasury admit of the pursuance of such a policy. The College, however, restricted, as it is, to one

faculty and being a special interest, as it were, (and a competing one at that) is not to expect so large a proportion of Government aid as is obtained by the University which touches at every point the activities of most, if not all, of the faculties which are comprised in it.

If this view of the case is not entirely mistaken, it is in keeping with the spirit of the Federation Act of 1887 as fairly and properly interpreted. Many men may possibly object to any form of federation and to any such deductions being drawn from the Act and from the Premier's reply as have been drawn just now. But, unless they are prepared to take upon themselves the responsibility of reverting to the evil position of affairs which existed before the passing of the Act of 1887, they must hold their peace or they must try by fair and courteous means to obtain for University College such changes in the present arrangements as shall place her on a better footing than that she now stands upon.

Summing the whole situation up, so far as it concerns University College, it means that the College must be made as independent of the University as are Victoria, Knox, Wycliffe and St. Michael's. The actions of its teaching staff should no more be subject to review by the University Senate than are the actions of the teaching staff of any other of the Colleges named. The administrative officers should in no case be those of the University, since occasions have already arisen, and will in future arise, on which the interests of the one institution are not identical with, but are indeed opposed to, the interests of the other. And finally there is no good reason why the fees of University College students should be pooled with the University's funds any

more than those of the students from the other Colleges of the University. Victoria, Knox, Wycliffe, and St. Michael's all control their own fees and spend them for the benefit of their own students severally. To this few persons object, but in all justice University College ought to be empowered to do the same. Till these changes take place, there cannot be peace or the fullest measure of prosperity either for University College or for the University as a whole.

In connection with pooling the funds many questions might be raised, but the one touched upon by the Premier must suffice for the present. Why the Senate under took in the impoverished condition of the University to offer so-called post-graduate courses in any subject whatsoever passes the comprehension of the ordinary mind. In itself, apart altogether from matters of finance, the wisdom of the Senate's action may well be doubted. Considering the possibilities of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, and their capacities for being made to do work far more advanced than that they are now doing (if they were regulated and reformed a bit), it does seem that, instead of following American models (to which I have no objection simply because they are American), it would have been far wiser for the Senate to have legislated upon totally different lines, such as are found in Great Britain and Germany.

It is notorious, as Mr. President Loudon has himself stated, that a large part of the time and energy of the various instructors, in both the University and the College, is consumed in doing for the students what ought to have been done at school, to say nothing of the process of undoing which has likewise to be gone through. To address itself to the removal of these difficulties,

which I know are also a part of the financial question, would have been a better occupation for the Senate than establishing post-graduate courses, which the Premier took care to say he did not intend to provide for in connection with the aid he proposed to ask the Legislature to grant to the University before the end of the present session. So long as the very unsatisfactory practice continues of admitting non-matriculated students to University classes with the intention of allowing them to proceed to a degree, just so long are post-graduate courses a trifle anomalous, and just so long will friendly critics feel themselves justified in expressing the sort of opinion expressed by the Premier.

The average man will heartily sympathize with the Premier's utterances upon the question of travel as a means of education, and upon the advisability of promoting, rather than restraining, the tendency of Canadians to go abroad to continue their studies. Even if we had the most perfect system of post-graduate study in full working order in Toronto, it would still be a good thing for our young men and young women to go to other lands to learn at first hand what others are doing and thinking. The more travelling scholarships the University authorities can establish themselves, or can induce men like Mr. Flavell to establish for them, the better. We do not want our graduates to be parochial in their views, but we do want them to have a cosmopolitan flavor in their patriotism.

This cosmopolitan flavor will lead men to discern the good not only in the Universities of other lands, but in those of our own country and of our own province also. It is much to be regretted that some members of the Alumni Association who probably have great weight in de

termining its policy, not to say the policy of the University, have sometimes spoken and acted as if the University of Toronto possessed all the educational good to be found in this province. In these matters, as in most, charity of judgment, and generosity of conduct pay. If the one and the other of these qualities had been displayed consistently in the past, the University of Toronto would probably have been richer in money today. Instead of making war upon a sister University in order to bolster up her own cause it would have been more seemly and more profitable for the University of Toronto, in the light of the history of the past fifty or sixty years, to make every possible alliance with other representatives of the higher education in trying to lead the people of the province to see that the Univer-

sities of the present and the future within its boundaries ought to be supported under proper conditions and restrictions) as liberally and as bountifully as the Public and the High Schools. If such a policy is adopted by the Alumni Association and the University generally, larger deputations will not be necessary in the days to come, for support will probably be cheerfully given wherever it is needed and whenever there are means of providing it. To a task such as this the Association may well turn its attention, and to the work of procuring for the University a liberal constitution to be liberally administered in the interest of the successive generations of students and of the country at large, to which after all, and not to the graduates, we must all of us remember at all times the University itself belongs.

THE CLAIMS OF AGRICULTURE ON OUR SCHOOLS.

BY G. K. MILLS, B.A., HARRISTON.

OUR present educational system is the outcome of centuries of thought and progress; a kind of evolution. The subjects of study proscribed are those which our ablest minds of the present have selected as best suited to the most harmonious development of the human faculties. This being true, the man who would lay rude hands upon our curriculum, to tear some of it away and replace it with new, should do so only after very careful study and the fullest possible knowledge of conditions and necessities.

While fully alive to all this, it is felt by very many, and that feeling is now rapidly spreading to the general public, that the remarkable progress made during the last quarter of a century, in all departments

of manufacture and conditions of life, has found a very slow response in our subjects and system of education. We seem to be bound to the traditions of the past, and to be unable to adapt ourselves to changed conditions. Why the concrete and practical problems of actual life cannot be made as much use of for mental training as the abstract and theoretical subjects of school life, is difficult to understand.

That we are at last making some progress is shown by the modification of our High School curriculum giving commercial classes a prominent place. It is further shown by the equipping and maintaining of technical schools, and still further by the establishment of manual training classes. In connection with some of our Collegiate Institutes

and Public Schools. While these are departures in the right direction, it is to be regretted very much that more has not been done for that class which is without doubt the bone and sinew of our country—the agricultural class.

Our country is largely an agricultural country, and our educational system leads directly to the so called professions. Every assistance is given by our Public and High Schools to enable the clever boy to leave the farm, but none to place him in a position to see the beauties and possibilities of agricultural life. A text book on agriculture has been authorized for use with grades IV. and V. of the Public School, but a similar futile attempt has been made every few years for the past half century.

The difficulty is said to be, that agriculture is a science as well as an art, and can no more be taught in our rural schools than law, engineering, or any other profession. Everybody who thinks of the subject at all knows that it is a very complex and comprehensive science, and has its roots imbedded in several sciences, such as botany, zoology, chemistry, geology, cosmology, and physiography. All this is granted, but no one will claim that in order to become a successful farmer a boy must be learned in all these subjects. The reason for the continued failure to teach agriculture successfully has been that we were striving to force the dry facts of these sciences into the minds of children, too immature to know what the teacher was talking about.

While a knowledge of these sciences, as such, is not necessary, a knowledge of the underlying principles and methods is absolutely necessary, and the question is, How are the pupils to obtain this?

To begin with, the teacher must

be interested in the subject, and imbued with the spirit of the thing. He must have no method but his own, but the keynote of this method must be investigation by the individual, guided and aided by careful suggestions from the teacher.

How are we to obtain such teachers? First, the curriculum of our High School must be modified sufficiently to permit of the necessary subjects being taught and sufficient time given to them to enable the teacher to treat them scientifically. There are very many good Science Masters in the High Schools of this Province, who, if given the necessary time and freedom, would handle these subjects scientifically, and thereby arouse an enthusiasm among their pupils that would go far to correct crudeness of method. These pupils having seen good methods would not fail to use them in their own teaching.

Second, our Normal Schools must be made centres in which both professional and non-professional work in this department must be taught. There is a tendency in most Normal Schools to adhere to method rather than matter. By so doing the future teacher has his mind directed to some hide-bound method instead of the life and spirit of the matter in hand. Our Normal School teachers should be men, not only capable of demonstrating the best methods, but men of learning and culture, alive to the possibilities of our young country, men from whom the young teachers under them would derive the inspiration and enthusiasm that is necessary for the putting forth of their best efforts for the proper development of these great resources.

Now we approach the difficult problem. What are we to do with those teachers who graduated at our High Schools and Normal Schools before this subject became a real

live one, and before methods of individual investigation (aided by cautious directions from the teacher) were seriously demonstrated? This is a difficult subject, and hardly to be discussed within the bounds of this article, but it is by no means an insurmountable obstacle. A model text-book, summer classes, and Public School Inspectors alive to the importance of the subject, would go far to solve the problem. If we combine with this the issue of bulletins and normal lessons occasionally, by Guelph Agricultural College, the appointment of some officer, or even officers, who would give intelligent attention to this department, great benefit would accrue to the agricultural classes, and the rural youth of this country, at a cost not much greater than that of commercial classes and very much less than technical schools or manual training classes.

The question might be asked, "What would be the nature of the teaching?" If, by the time the boy reached the third or fourth book in the Public School (say at an age of from twelve to fourteen), he had become impressed with the idea that it was within his power to find out for himself the life history of the various insects met with, the reason for the various phenomena met with in his daily experience on the farm, who will say that incalculable good has not been done, not only to the individual, but to the nation? Even though all were not so impressed, would it not be possible to lead a few in each school to that point? Would their influence not spread throughout the neighborhood? Would not their parents become interested and learn from them, as well as assist them in their endeavors to unravel the mysteries of nature for themselves?

Being given teachers, who, although they may not be learned in

the subjects themselves, yet have sufficient intelligence to suggest and guide aright, what is to hinder the young pupil of the Public School from following out for himself the life history of such insects as the cabbage worm, the tomato worm, the potato bug, the tent caterpillar, the worm found in apples, the worm found in green pea pods, the grasshopper, the wiggler in the rain-barrel; or any other of a thousand insect and weed pests that the farmer has to contend with? Knowing the life history, would he not readily apply methods of extermination? What is to hinder him from learning experimentally and practically the nature of the different kinds of soils? In what one excels and in what another lacks? What are the effects of drainage on the different soils, and why? What is the need for manuring? What kind of manure is adapted to a certain soil? When a new pest appeared, would not these children, grown to men and women, know how to trace its history, watch its depredations, and find an intelligent method of combatting it?

Even though these hopes are Utopian, would not pupils who had received such training be awake to the fact that there is a right way and a wrong way in agriculture? Would they not know that there is a science of agriculture and be more ready to receive instruction and to follow right methods? While it is not claimed that the introduction of these methods, of what might be termed Nature Study, into our Public Schools, would be a cure for all ills of our educational system, yet it is the correct method psychologically and practically. It certainly should produce a more inquiring cast of mind, a mind that asks the reason why and is not content with traditions.

Many farmers acquire this power

of observation and of reasoning as to cause, but it has cost them dearly, and these are the men who regret most that in their youth they did not have the guidance of a trained teacher. It would have been of great benefit in the practise of their art and would have imparted to their surroundings an interest that would have made their lives much more pleasant.

A question that is being constantly asked, and a question that is of vital interest in this young and agricultural country is, "Why does the boy leave the farm?" Various reasons are given and cures propounded, but I do not think that anything we could do would have such

a beneficial effect as to open his eyes to the fact that he is living in the midst of plenty and beauty, if he is prepared to make use of his opportunities. His calling would be clothed with a new dignity and value and he would not only cease to be envious of the boy who is shut up in the city from year to year, but learn to pity him. Only in this way can you stay this great exodus. Teach him to see that the farm may be made profitable, if he will bring intelligence to bear on his work; teach him to see some of the beauty and possibilities of his surroundings, and he will be more satisfied and crave less after the uncertain struggles of the town.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

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

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

"We must take a forward position in educational matters or else consent to be left hopelessly in the rear." These words were spoken by Mr. Whitney, the leader of the Opposition in the Ontario House of Assembly in concluding his speech on the Budget. The whole of his statement on the educational question, as it is at present, is given in another part of this issue. The statement, it seems to us, is fair, able and statesmanlike. We heartily congratulate Mr. Whitney on the important announcement he has made in the House and to the people of Ontario.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE. — Frequently we meet the statement: "All the children of Ontario are educated in the Public Schools, except five per cent, who are found also in the High Schools." We have on more

than one occasion directed attention to this sweeping assertion. The ground for it is the following: The total registered attendance in the Public Schools of Ontario, as per Minister of Education's last report, just received, is 429,227; in the High Schools, on the same authority, it is 22,460. If we obtain the percentage that 22,460 is of 429,227, we get it to be 5.23. This is the origin of the misleading assertion, that only 5 of every 100 in the Public Schools ever attend a High School. In the table of the actuary, it is shown that of all persons born 73 per cent. reach the age of 5 years, the legal school age; 69 per cent. reach the age of 14 years, the usual age of admission to a High School, and 66 per cent. reach the age of 18 years, the age for leaving the High School.

Let us assume that every child born in Ontario was able to satisfy

all these tests, living, passing the entrance examination to the High School, and leaving at 18 years old, and also assuming the number of births to be constant and the same as last year, viz., 46,019, for the past four years, we have the following figures: 33,594 at 5 years old, 31,293 at 14 years old (age of admission to High School), 30,373 leaving High Schools at 18 years old, and the total enrolments of the High Schools should be 121,492. But by the Minister's report it is only 22,460, giving us a percentage of 18½ almost. Too few by far, only 19 out of every 100 who ought to be there, but still 19 is better than only 5. We have put the case ideally severe as against the High Schools, and this is the showing. Under these ideal conditions we have 19 out of every 100 possible in our High Schools.

Let us look at this question from another standpoint. The Minister of Education presented his report to the Legislative Assembly of Ontario the other day. The report contains the statistics for 1899. This report is full of interesting reading, and we beg to state that the most valuable and interesting part is that which relates to the teachers and pupils. We thank the Minister for the copy sent us, and at present deal with the attendance.

The number of pupils given as being in the First Reader for 1899 is 174,442; the number in Second Reader is given as 93,076, a number less than the former by 81,366! In regard to the number of pupils reported as being in the First Reader, viz., 174,442, considering the birth rate given for the past four years, we most heartily congratulate the parents, especially the mothers of Ontario, on the large number of children for admission to the First Reader. THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY rejoices with them. The

large number in the First Reader gives some support to the suspicion that the birth rate for the preceding four years was put at too small a figure, but even if we allow a deduction on this account still the result would be ample reason for congratulating the parents. But what shall we say to the difference in attendance in the First and Second books—81,366! We confess to a feeling of depression every time we look at it. What does become of these children? And such a number of them! Does the Minister of Education, as the Roman Emperor did to Varus, cry aloud to the Inspectors of the Public Schools for these sons and daughters, the hope of our province? Practically the Fourth Reader is the end of the Public School course. The number reported in this class is 86,500. That is, the Public Schools have lost from the First Reader to the Fourth Reader class 87,942, more than one-half the total number in attendance. At the end of the school work of the Fourth Reader the pupil has the choice of either passing on to the Fifth Reader class or of going to a High School.

It is only at this point that it is possible that the High can come in to divide the attendance with any other class of schools. Suppose for a moment that every one of the 86,500 in the Fourth Reader tried the Entrance Examination and passed, then the attendance in the High Schools is only 26 per cent, but it is 26 per cent.

But the Report gives us accurate information in regard to the number who tried the Entrance Examination to High Schools, and also the number who passed. Taking 4 years for comparison, we find that the average number who applied each year was 16,491, and the number who

passed 9,786, almost 60 per cent. The reader will observe that of the 86,500 reported in the Fourth Reader only 16,491 tried to enter a High School, and that not quite 60 per cent. of these scholars succeeded in passing this test.

Assuming that everyone who passed entered a High School and continued in attendance for the four years, under review the total attendance would be 39,144. but it is only 22,460, *i.e.*, 57.4 per cent. But again we say it is 57.4 per cent. of the possible attendance.

In the Fifth Reader, for the whole province there were only 19,303. Our space compels us to close with the following extract, with which we fully agree, from the Hon. Mr. Harcourt's report :

All the provisions respecting courses of study have less significance in the interests of the schools than the best means of providing a class of teachers eminently qualified for their duties. The main difficulty regarding the

question as it pertains to Public Schools, is the short time which the average teacher remains in the profession. Young men of ability can scarcely be expected to continue teaching unless higher salaries are paid. In Ontario, as in most places on this continent, the majority of teachers of elementary schools are women. For obvious reasons, the teaching profession, so far as concerns Public Schools, is, therefore, lacking in permanency. The abolition of the Primary examination was doubtless a step in the right direction. With the higher qualifications required, the large surplus of teachers noticed a few years ago has disappeared ; indeed, in a few parts of the Province a scarcity of Public School teachers has arisen. The excellence of the training which is given to Public School teachers is well recognized. The advantages of lengthening the term of the Normal Schools, as well as that of the County Model Schools have long been apparent.

CURRENT EVENTS.

The marriage on February 7 of Queen Wilhelmina to Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg Swerin, comes in curious contrast to the funeral ceremonies of Queen Victoria. The young queen, now the only woman sovereign in Europe, has the good wishes of everyone, and apparently all prospects of a happy career.

*

Miss Alice Rosebrugh, who has been appointed teacher in the Carthage High School, is a graduate of the Ontario Normal College and of the University of Toronto, with experience in Syracuse and in Little Falls as well as in Toronto.

*

In consequence of Dr. D. J. Mc-

Leod's resignation from the position of superintendent of education. Dr. Anderson has been appointed to that position. Prof. S. N. Robertson succeeds Dr. Anderson as principal of Prince of Wales College, and Cyrus J. Macmillan, B.A., has been appointed to the position previously held by Prof. Robertson. These changes took effect on March 1.

We congratulate Dr. Anderson on his well-earned promotion, and hope that for years to come the schools of Prince Edward Island may have the benefit of his professional knowledge and experience.

*

Prof. Le Baron Russell Briggs, dean of Harvard University, is, by

his office and work (instructor in English of the freshman year), brought into close relation with many students, and therefore his observations about the kind of students and their preparation for college and life are most valuable. We hope all our readers, teachers and workers of all industries will carefully read the admirable article by Dean Briggs.

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The recent completion of the great dam across the Nile at Assouan will bring under cultivation 600,000 acres of land, and increase the value of 5,000,000 acres heretofore subject to the risks of flood and drought. This immense work was undertaken two years ago; and is not the least of the benefits that Egypt has received from British occupation.

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The Cuban constitutional convention has finished its work, and nothing but the consent of the United States is now needed to make Cuba an independent republic. It is probable that the Government of the United States will insist upon retaining some control of affairs, but there is a strong party in Cuba opposed to submission to any foreign rule, and ready to take the field in another war for "Free Cuba."

*

COMPARATIVE SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.—The tables accompanying the annual report of the United States Commissioner of education show that New York State has 16.94 per cent. of its population in the Public Schools. Kansas has 27.87 per cent., the highest of any State. Utah follows with 26.78 per cent., and Iowa with 26.42 per cent., while Pennsylvania, with a smaller population, has a larger number of pupils enrolled than New York, the figures

for Pennsylvania being 1,186,146, against 1,179,351 for New York.

*

Much light has been thrown upon the history of ancient Babylon by recent explorations. We may now read, in a book of translations just published in London, official communications which were sent four thousand years ago to and from the seat of government, in the form of small clay tablets, each in a carefully addressed envelope; and learn from them much of the life of the people, which is curiously like our own in some respects. Canals instead of railways, furnished means of communication. Taxes were collected, government works built and controlled, justice administered and business transactions recorded very much as they are to-day in Eastern lands. All this is learned from the little clay documents which are found buried beneath the ruins of an ancient Babylonian city, and which were written about 2200 B.C. It is beyond the range of probability that any trace of our own paper libraries will last so long.

*

With the progress of the child through the schools, manual training should occupy a less and less important place, except for those pupils whose wills in maturity are to be manifested primarily in energizing and coordinating muscular action. A boy who is to be a carpenter should continue, in all stages of his educational course, to make manual training of this special sort his most important occupation; his organism should keep adjusted to this way of action. But a boy who is to deal with questions of jurisprudence or medicine or education will suffer arrest in his evolution if he is kept too long at work with his hands.—V. V. O'Shea, *University of Wisconsin*.

The *British Weekly* is publishing a number of letters from correspondents on "Working Men and the Churches." In a recent issue a workman expresses the belief that one cause of the alienation of men from the Church is found in the Sunday school. A large proportion of the working population passes through the Sunday-school, and if the affection of the children is not gained, it will be impossible to gain these persons when other cares have twisted themselves about them. Sunday-school methods are at fault, he thinks. "Those who can do nothing else are asked to 'take a class,' and the children have to endure it. While this branch of work is treated thus, is it any wonder that boys and girls are glad to escape, and, having gone, are swelling the number of the indifferent? We call the Sunday-school the 'nursery of the Church,' and yet we put there to do the nursing men and women whom we consider too clumsy to take the collection at our ordinary services." There can be no doubt that our Sunday school methods need to be greatly improved.

*

"How do you teach spelling?" asked Miss A. of Miss B., the senior teacher in the village schools.

"Well," she replied, "I think some learn to spell by sight, and some by sound, and some by combination of the two. That is, we recognize the correct or incorrect spelling of a word just as we do a correct or an incorrect picture of a man. If a letter is gone in one case or an arm in the other, the picture is imperfect."

"But how does a child first come to know a *correct* picture of a word?" asked Miss A.

"By frequently seeing it and writing it. In reality he learns words as he learns faces."

"But are not some children very dull about perceiving and remembering exact forms?" again queried Miss A.

"There is no doubt about that," was the reply, "and so also in the recognition of sounds and their proper order. Some people never know one tune from another, and they easily forget the order of sounds in the spelling of a word."

"Miss B., please tell us how you have your class study and recite."

"My grade you know is third year. My methods might not be adapted to higher grades, but this is what I do. I write the word on the board, and have the pupils begin their study by spelling and pronouncing each word three times in concert and aloud. This is the *ear* work. Then they spend fifteen minutes in writing the words on their slates, copying from the board. This is the *eye* work. Then they recite by erasing the words from their slates and writing while I pronounce. While doing this the words upon the board are covered by a small curtain that slides upon a wire.

"After the spelling I pass around and mark the misspelled words, then draw back the curtain, have the slates cleaned, and the missed words reviewed by writing them several times upon the slates, after which the pupils come to me singly and spell the words orally. Then about once a week I give for a lesson only those words that have been misspelled"—*Intelligence*.

*

The elective system is excellent for those who are born with a manifest destiny toward some particular line of work. It is safe to grant its privileges to geniuses, to exceptionally bright and thoughtful pupils, and to those who are fully amenable to the influence and advice of espe-

cially intelligent parents or instructors. But the fundamental danger is, as Professor Münsterberg has pointed out, that "a child who has himself the right of choice, or who sees that parents and teachers select the courses according to his tastes and inclinations, may learn a thousand pretty things, but never the one which is the greatest of all—to do his duty." Here is the danger point of the new education with its electives and specialization. It is in serious danger of failing to give that thorough discipline and all-round development of mind character which was secured by the hard work required of all by the older system. Very large numbers of our youth are now seeking extended courses of education. But few of them will become specialists. Most of them need the training that will develop latent powers, broaden the outlook upon life, give vision of high ideals and power to realize them. This must follow wholesome discipline, patient effort to master difficulties, deliberate resolve to overcome natural distaste for what is inevitable. If something of this kind is not accomplished in the secondary schools, we ask where will it ever be accomplished?—*Education.*

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HELPING TOO MUCH.

Many teachers err in helping their pupils too much. There is no way for the child to grow strong, mentally or physically, but by encountering and overcoming difficulties. It is a sad state of things when the pupil comes to think that he must seek the teacher's aid the moment he meets with a difficulty. And it is quite as bad when a teacher feels that she must smooth out all difficulties before the pupil has grappled with them. Let the amount of help rendered be the

least possible to enable the pupil to do his own work; and, generally, it is better that the pupil feel his want before even that help is given.

Any student of children will find that they have a disposition to encounter difficult things, they have an ambition in this direction, and glory in doing hard things. It will not take much observation of children on the play-ground to make this evident. What else is it that makes the boy so ready to climb a difficult tree, or to attempt a risky leap, when he is "dared" by his fellows?

Another thing I wish to say, and that is that teachers are likely to under estimate the power of pupils to do hard things. Give them a chance. Encourage them to try, give a hint or suggestion only, and their success will often surprise both themselves and their teacher. Nothing will do more to develop that genuine power and self-confidence so necessary in the battle of life. Let us take heed that we do not train up a generation of weaklings, ready to be appalled at any difficulty and to follow blindly any leader who is stronger than themselves—*School and Home Education.*

*

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT.

As the mind has only what it creates, develops and uses, it follows that the teacher cannot give the pupil anything. What most distinguishes the trained from the untrained teacher is the art of keeping comparatively quiet during the recitation, the art of drawing out of the pupil by direct, concise questions what he knows about his lesson. The art of questioning seems to be one of the lost arts in too many schools. The pupil should be trained from the start to regard the school as a business institution and the recitation hour the most important hour of the

school day. The recitation should be an experience meeting for both teacher and pupils. The art of education is the art of furnishing the best possible conditions for self-development.

The primary function of the teacher is training the pupils for power. Every recitation, no matter what the subject of the lesson is, is an opportunity to train pupils for power. Learning is valueless, if the learner cannot use it. The mere ability to state facts does not necessarily denote culture. Culture is the power to think, to reason, to assert, to prove. It is a condition developed by the mind's own activity. Method should compel the pupil to think. The liberal use of the little word "Again" will keep the pupil alert. Do not scold the blunderer, nor use his time in a wordy explanation. The less you talk and scold the more the pupil will think and do. Teaching that does not train a pupil to think is destructive teaching; teaching that does not train a pupil to believe in himself is worthless teaching; teaching that consists chiefly in telling is ignorant teaching.

There is no one best method of presenting any subject. One learns to teach by teaching, by seeing others teach, by reading books on teaching and school management and by thinking into practice sound methods. The most profound pedagogical maxims have no meaning to a teacher that does not think. "Much talking wearies," has no meaning to the teacher that has realized his ideal, yet it contains more food for teachers than many books on pedagogy. "Learning without thought is labor lost," though thousands of years old, contains much food for young teachers. "Telling is not teaching," is another foundation stone. Many teachers

never learn what it means. "Teaching a pupil is training him to help himself," contains the essence of the teaching process, yet many teachers never get a glimpse of its meaning. "Get wisdom, but with all your getting, get understanding," is a whole volume of pedagogical wisdom.

The ability to interest pupils depends almost wholly on the teacher's presence, knowledge of the subject, and enthusiasm. As a desire for knowledge is more valuable than the knowledge itself, the method of the teacher should compel the pupil to concentrate his attention on one thing till he knows it, and until he can give expression, in clear and concise language, to his knowledge of it. Expression is the test of the pupil's knowledge as well as the key to his habits. Method should compel the pupil to realize his best effort in all he does in the schoolroom.

The teacher that unceasingly crams his pupils with individual facts does not in any true sense train them. Cramming is not training. Training is a drawing-out process. Training is the drawing out of pupils what they themselves have learned, not what was once poured into them by the teacher. Teaching means training or it means little or nothing. The merely formal, superficial, and traditional work of the schools does not train a pupil to think, feel, or act. Only to the extent that the method of the teacher stimulates self-activity in the pupil is the teacher helpful. In nearly every case of educational failure, the fault is not in the pupil, but in the teacher, or in the method, or in both.

Two kinds of knowledge are indispensable to the teacher. The first is a thorough knowledge of the subjects he teaches; the second is a

conscious knowledge of the fundamental laws that govern the development of mind. Without ample knowledge of the subject teaching tact is impossible. An explanation that pupils cannot understand on account of the teacher's scanty knowledge of the subject, and the verbose and slovenly language used discourages pupils. To teach effectively the teacher must know his subject, and must use clear and concise language in explanation and illustrations. Conscious ignorance of the subject dampens the teacher's enthusiasm and weakens the pupil's confidence in the teacher. Without some knowledge of "How the mind grows," the teacher must follow traditional methods or guess at how to present the subject as well as how to approach the pupil. The teacher that is deficient in either of the foregoing essential particulars is a mere recitation hearer. The teacher, who feels that he knows the subject as well as "How the mind grows," stands before his pupils confident, aggressive, persuasive, inspiring. An incompetent teacher is usually conscious of his incompetency, hence he is timid and hesitating in his work. He is a discouraging presence.—*J. N. Patrick, A. M., St. Louis, Mo.*

REPORT OF ROYAL COMMISSION ON RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

The following extracts are some specimens of the Scripture lessons embodied in the report :

SUPPLEMENTARY LESSONS.

THE CRUEL SIN AND CRIME OF COVETOUSNESS AND PERJURY.

"Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbour."

"Thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's house, thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's wife, nor his man servant, nor his maid

servant, nor his ox, nor his ass, nor anything which is thy neighbour's."—Exodus xx. 16, 17.

And it came to pass after these things that Naboth the Jezreelite had a vineyard, which was in Jezreel hard by the palace of Ahab, king of Samaria. And Ahab spake unto Naboth, saying—"Give me thy vineyard that I may have it for a garden of herbs, because it is near unto my house, and I will give thee for it a better vineyard than it; or, if it seems good to thee, I will give thee the worth of it in money." And Naboth said to Ahab—"The Lord forbid it me that I should give the inheritance of my fathers unto thee." And Ahab came into his house heavy and displeased, because of the word which Naboth the Jezreelite had spoken to him, for he had said—"I will not give thee the inheritance of my fathers." And he laid him down upon his bed and turned away his face, and would eat no bread. But Jezebel, his wife, came to him and said unto him—"Why is thy spirit so sad that thou eatest no bread?" And he said unto her—"Because I spake unto Naboth the Jezreelite, and said unto him, 'Give me thy vineyard for money; or else, if it please thee, I will give thee another vineyard for it.' And he answered—'I will not give thee my vineyard.'" And Jezebel, his wife, said unto him—"Dost thou now govern the kingdom of Israel? Arise, and eat bread, and let thine heart be merry. I will give thee the vineyard of Naboth the Jezreelite." So she wrote letters in Ahab's name, and sealed them with his seal, and sent the letters unto the elders and to the nobles that were in his city, dwelling with Naboth. And she wrote in the letters, saying, "Proclaim a fast, and set Naboth on high among the people. And set

two men, sons of Belial, before him to bear witness against him, saying, 'Thou didst blaspheme God and the king.' And then carry him out and stone him, that he may die." And the men of his city, even the elders and the nobles who were the inhabitants in his city, did as Jezebel had said unto them, and as it was written in the letters which she had sent unto them. They proclaimed a fast, and set Naboth on high among the people. And there came in two men, children of Belial, and sat before him, and the men of Belial witnessed against him, even against Naboth, in the presence of the people, saying, "Naboth did blaspheme God and the king." Then they carried him forth out of the city, and stoned him with stones, that he died. Then they sent to Jezebel, saying—"Naboth is stoned and is dead." And it came to pass, when Jezebel heard that Naboth was stoned, and was dead, that Jezebel said to Ahab—"Arise, take possession of the vineyard of Naboth the Jezreelite, which he refused to give thee for money. For Naboth is not alive, but dead." And it came to pass when Ahab heard that Naboth was dead, that Ahab rose up to go down to the vineyard of Naboth the Jezreelite, to take possession of it. And the word of the Lord came to Elijah, the Tishbite, saying—"Arise, go down to meet Ahab, King of Israel, which is in Samaria: behold, he is in the vineyard of Naboth, whither he is gone down to possess it. And thou shalt speak unto him, saying—"Thus saith the Lord, hast thou killed and also taken possession?" And thou shalt speak unto him, saying—"Thus saith the Lord. In the place where dogs licked the blood of Naboth, shall dogs lick thy blood, even thine." And Ahab said to Elijah—"Hast thou found me, O mine enemy?" And he answered

—"I have found thee; because thou hast sold thyself to work evil in the sight of the Lord."—I Kings xxi. 1-20.

O Lord, do not thine eyes look upon truth?—Jeremiah v. 3.

Incline my heart unto thy testimonies,

And not to covetousness.

—Psalm cxix. 36.

Speak a gentle word, boys!

Let your daily life

Tell of love and peace, boys!

In the world of strife.

Boys and maidens, never

Fear to own the Lord;

Treasure up His thoughts, boys!

Every loving word.

Children of your Father,

Offering good or ill,

Moulding every action

To His mind and will.

At your daily task, boys!

Act as in His sight;

Honest in each deed, boys!

Never fear the light.

Boys and maidens, never,

Never be cast down;

Yours the song of triumph,

Yours the victor's crown.

Children of your Father,

You shall come at last

To His golden city.

All life's battle past.

Amen.

—Australasian Schoolmaster.

*

Mr. Whitney, in concluding his speech in the Legislature winding up the debate on the budget, dealt with the educational policy, and made an important announcement respecting the Opposition's attitude on the question of aiding the Provincial University. At first the Government had, he said, sneered at the representations of the Conservatives to make the Public School a substantial institution instead of a stepping-stone to something else, and to make the High Schools something more than a mere manufactory for teachers, but now they were beginning to realize that the great mass of the

people were a unit on these questions, and they were at length beginning to listen to what the Opposition had to say. Mr. Whitney's words on this question were as follows :

"The Public School system should be remodelled. The number of examinations and the expenses of them should be lessened. The curriculum, a scheme of studies, should be so arranged that the ninety-five per cent. of the children in the province who go no further than the Public School shall there receive the best possible education suited to their needs, and having regard especially to the fact that their education begins and ends in the Public School.

"A consultive council or body should be created, comprising representatives of the teachers of the Public, Separate and High Schools, and of the professors in the Colleges and Universities. This body should give the Minister of Education their advice and assistance with regard to the many questions of administration and detail which come within the purview of the Department of Education, but the Minister should be at liberty to act upon or reject such advice, and thus his responsibility as a Minister of the Crown would not be interfered with.

"Greater care should be taken to prevent frequent changes in text books and to enable pupils to obtain them at the lowest possible price. The people approve of these suggestions, and all classes and shades of thought are dissatisfied with the present system and working of it. The changes above outlined we believe to be the first duty of the Government with respect to the educational question. The High Schools should no longer be practically given over to the instruction of pupils for the teaching professions.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

"With a true foundation thus laid, and the interests of those who can not hope to go further than the Public School in the acquirement of education, and whose interests should be our first care, duly safeguarded, we then come to the question of University education. Those who are watching the signs of the times must believe that we are approaching a period of great changes in educational methods. Just what form or shape these changes will take we cannot yet see, but the true lover of the educational interests of the province will not be afraid to take steps to be ready for changes that may come, nor be astute in discovering obstacles in the way of preparation. We must take a forward position on the university question or else consent to be left hopelessly in the rear with disastrous results, one of which will inevitably be that our young men will go elsewhere for higher education.

"It is too late now to discuss academically the question of the advisability of a State or Provincial University. It is a condition, not a theory, with which we have to deal. The Provincial University, which is at once a provincial asset, so to speak, and a public trust, has been dragging along for many years, doing noble work, considering the means at its disposal. Several other colleges have come in under the federation scheme, and the University has struggled manfully under great difficulties. Year after year those connected with it and best able to judge of its requirements, have pressed upon the Provincial Government its urgent needs, but practically a deaf ear has been turned to all their appeals.

"The situation has at last become acute, and indeed intolerable. We must either support or abandon the

University. We have arrived at the parting of the ways, and we must decide whether we will go forward or drop back.

"Being convinced that the people of the province are unwilling that the present condition of blight and mildew shall become chronic and permanent, we, on this side of the House are determined that, so far as lies in our power, a remedy, immediate, permanent, and lasting, must be applied.

"We take the responsibility, sir, of insisting that the finances of the University be put on a sound, stable and permanent footing, by providing such an annual payment as will fairly and fully meet the desires and propositions of those best able to judge of its necessities to-day, and that this be done forthwith

"Further, that as soon as reasonably may be, with a due regard to the financial ability of the province, and to careful outlay, appropriations for necessary buildings should be made, and, in order to the due carrying out of this latter suggestion, it may well be considered wise and prudent to submit the question of buildings to a commission of gentlemen who from their standing and experience may be trusted to arrive at a conclusion which will be satisfactory to the Legislature and to the people. Such a commission need not be costly.

"We further urge that in thus dealing with the Provincial University, the direct control of the Government over it be relaxed to a certain extent, so that the experience and judgment of the governing body of the University shall have more influence and power in the appointment of professors and in the internal management of the institution than at present.

"The fees should be so regulated

that the sons and daughters of the relatively poor may find practically an 'open door' at the University.

"We believe that the funds provided by the succession duties should be drawn upon for, at any rate, the annual payment to the University, or a per centage of the amount realized from such duties should be devoted to that purpose. If it be objected that the charity moneys arising from the succession duties were to be devoted to keeping up the asylums and charitable institutions, the answer is that educational institutions are 'charities' in the eye of the law. This is well settled doctrine.

"It is not possible to ignore, in the consideration of this very important question, the subject of Queen's University. Its standing as a great educational institution is well known. From a small beginning, its foundation caused and justified by the then condition of our educational system, it has gone on growing deservedly in importance and influence, until to-day it is not too much to say that it is no small part of the educational life of the province. It cannot be lightly passed over. However, sir, as I have said, we are dealing with conditions, not theories. We believe that the steps I have indicated should be taken without delay with reference to the Provincial University, and then any claim that may be advanced by the sister institutions should be considered fairly and equitably on its merits, and not lightly dismissed.

"I am convinced that if the policy on this question which I have proposed be adopted, it will meet with the cordial approval of the people. It is a policy which should not be tossed back and forth between political parties, and if it be grappled with earnestly, I be

lieve the result will be that we will hold our own, in an educational sense, among the other communities on this continent, and the way of life will be made easier for those who will come after us".—*Mail Empire*, 13-3, '01.

PRACTICAL HYGIENE FOR TEACHERS.

THE School Board for London, England, have decided to accept the certificate of the Sanitary Institute for the purposes of the Board's Certificate of Proficiency in Physical Education.

The lectures of the course will be given at Bedford College, York Place, Baker street, W., and at the Sanitary Institute, 72 Margaret street, W.

The Board of Education Act, 1890 arranges that the Board may inspect schools for the purpose of ascertaining the provisions made for the teaching and health of the scholars, and Secondary as well as Elementary Schools are now beginning to appreciate the advantage of having upon their staff one or more teachers acquainted with the theory and practice of hygiene, more especially in its application to school life: moreover, the Act provides for a register of teachers, in which they will have an opportunity of stating the various qualifications which they hold.

The course will consist of thirty lectures, given on Saturday mornings throughout the three terms of the year 1901, and will be held partly at Bedford College for Women and partly at the Sanitary Institute; it will include practical demonstrations, and visits to schools and places where the application of hygiene in practice may be seen. The various subjects—Sanitation of Schools, Physiology for Teachers, Psychological Attitude of Mind towards the Study of Childhood, will be dealt with by well-known authorities, and will be illustrated by ex-

periments, diagrams, drawings, models, and lantern slides. Opportunities will be given to students to obtain practical acquaintance with the various subjects dealt with, in the laboratories of Bedford College, and for practical demonstration of Sanitary Appliances in the Parkes Museum.

The course is open to women students over 19 years of age who hold either a teacher's diploma or certificate, or have had at least two years' experience in teaching in a secondary school, or who can produce satisfactory evidence that they will be able to benefit by the instruction afforded them.

The libraries of Bedford College and of the Sanitary Institute and also the Parkes Museum of Sanitary Appliances, will be open free during the three terms to students attending the course.

SYLLABUS OF LECTURES.

WINTER TERM.

10 Lectures on Physiology and Allied Sciences.

Lecturer: J. S. Edkins, M.A., M.B.

EASTER TERM.

7 Lectures on Construction and Practical Sanitation of Schools.

Lecturer: Henry R. Kenwood, M.B., D.P.H.

General.—Individual and social hygiene as far as regards school life, including the necessary municipal and legal sanitation; sites of private dwellings or schools; effect of neighborhood, of sea, of large

sheets of water; effect of vegetation; soil in town and country; natural drainage of subsoil; artificial drainage of subsoil; local elevation; aspect with reference to sun and winds.

Water Supply and Distribution.—Wells, causes of pollution and means for their prevention; constant and intermittent systems; cisterns, material and construction, position and cleansing, separate cistern supplies for closets; domestic filtration of water; distribution of water in schools and public buildings; provision for cleansing drinking vessels.

Furnishing.—Seats and desks, slopes, adjustments; teacher's platform; books and printing; color of walls.

Lecturer: J. Osborne Smith; F.R.I.B.A.

Planning of houses.—

Warming.—Of halls and corridors, lavatories, class-rooms, etc.; by stoves, hot water, hot air, open fireplaces; effect of radiant heat on atmosphere and health; position of open fireplaces in class rooms; time occupied in warming a room, including the walls and furniture; fire screens and guards.

Lighting.—Natural: position and size of windows, with regard to ceiling and floor; how light should fall on occupants of a room; artificial; purposes to be considered, method, arrangement of lights, shading, pavement lights for passages, etc.

Ventilating.—Quality of air; amount required; floor space and cubic space required; renovation of air; organic impurities; ventilation of buildings, of class rooms occupied, of corners where air stagnates; mechanical ventilation, propulsion, and extraction; consideration of the daily use of the different parts of the building; a practical demonstration will be given at a school building.

MICHAELMAS TERM.

5 Lectures on Education.

Lecturer: Miss H. Robinson, B.A.

HYGIENE IN EDUCATION.

Healthy Mental Life and its Physical Conditions—

(a) Efficiency of the Nervous System as determined by sufficiency and quality of Blood Supply. Connection of this with air, exercise and nourishment.

(b) Efficiency of Special Sense Organs as determined by congenital peculiarities, exercise and surroundings

Detailed consideration of these Conditions of Healthy Mental Development at different stages of growth.

1. During first three years of life.

2. During kindergarten stage.

3. During subsequent stage of school life.

Special opportunities of development afforded by circumstances of each stage, and special attendant dangers.

8 Lectures on Infectious Diseases and Disinfection.

Lecturer: W. C. C. Pakes, D.P.H. Camb., F.C.S.

Lecture 1.—General Diseases and Conditions incidental to School Life, their Causes and Effects.

Lecture 2.—Infectious Diseases: their nature and history, and means of prevention. Tuberculosis, Diphtheria, Scarlet Fever.

Lecture 3.—Infectious Diseases—Chicken Pox, Measles, Whooping Cough, Mumps, Ophthalmia, Small Pox, etc.

Lecture 4.—Law and procedure relating to Infectious Diseases.

Lecture 5.—School Accidents.

Lecture 6.—Demonstration at Bedford College upon School Accidents.

Lecture 7.—Disinfectants and Disinfection.

Lecture 8.—Demonstration upon Disinfection.

BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

To accommodate readers who may wish it, the publishers of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY will send, postpaid, on receipt of the price, any book reviewed in these columns.

The Studio for February contains an extremely interesting account of the work of Edwin Blashfield in art decoration by Mr. Ernest Knauff. The reproductions of his more recent work, such as the Power of the Law in the Appellate Court House, New York, are very fine. A second article which also appeals strongly to the general art public is on the work of Mr. George Frampton in the Glasgow Art Gallery.

In "Tristram of Blent," which is at present appearing as a serial in *The Monthly Review*, Mr. Anthony Hope has made a distinct advance in his art. It was evident in his political novel that preceded this that Mr. Hope meant to leave the highly popular field of historic romance in which he had been working, and devote himself to the broader study of humanity. In "Tristram of Blent" Mr. Hope has made an entirely successful transition. George N. Morang & Company, of Toronto, have become the Canadian agents for *The Monthly Review*, published in England by John Murray. The contents for the March number include "Training of Naval Officers," by Admiral Fremantle; "The Overcrowding of London," by Mrs. Philimore; "Trade and the Siberian Railway;" "London: a Seaport;" "The Evolution of the Boer," by Poultney Bigelow; "Two Poets of the New Century;" "Giuseppe Verdi," by J. A. Fuller-Maitland; "A Study at Toledo," by Arthur Symonds, and "A Reading of Life," by George Meredith.

Graduates of the Toronto Normal School will hear with pleasure of the success in writing of Mr. Sydney Herman Preston, who was for many years an instructor of music in that

institution. The August number of *Scribner's Magazine* contained Mr. Preston's first story, "The Green Pigs," a delightful account of a summer holiday experiment that proved the writer to be a humorist of rare quality. The present (March) number of *Scribner's* contains a second short story by Mr. Preston, "Our Two Uncles," as full of humor and of irresistible situations. A second quality which Mr. Preston possesses, of even greater value to an author, is the power of expressing his personality most charmingly in his work.

Mr. W. T. Stead contributes a character sketch of King Edward Seventh to the March number of the *American Monthly Review of Reviews*.

The "Pets of Noted People" is an entertaining article in the March *St. Nicholas*, by Bury Irwin Dasent.

Emily Crawford's article on the Queen, which attracted considerable attention when it appeared in *The Contemporary Review*, is reprinted in *The Living Age* for March 9.

James Bradley Thayer is the writer of an excellent article on John Marshall, whose centenary has lately been celebrated, which appears in the March number of *The Atlantic*.

The Cosmopolitan Magazine for March contains a heartrending story, entitled "A Dark Brown Dog," by Stephen Crane.

In an article on "Whistler and the Woodcutter" by E. L. Cary, in *The Book Buyer* for March, there are included some good reproductions of this artist's charming early work in illustration.

The complete novel in the March *Lippincott* is "Rosalynde's Lovers," by Maurice Thompson.

Mr. Augustine Birrell contributes a second delightful paper on the Rhine to the March *Century*. Two other notable contributions are a short story by Mrs. Steel and Personal Recollections of Johannes Brahms.

Eugene Field's "Armenian Lullaby," set to music by Hattie Stirling Howard, is one of the best features of the *Ladies' Home Journal* for March.

"Physiology for High Schools." A General Physiology based upon the Nervous System, by Macey and Norris: *American Book Company*, New York.

The aim of the writers has evidently been to popularize this most important subject without the sacrifice of scientific accuracy, and they have succeeded admirably. They have incorporated the results of the most recent research along physiological lines, and have produced a most interesting treatise, intelligible to any reader of ordinary intelligence. General readers will find it abundantly and accurately illustrated, and a mine of information on all questions concerning the functions of the body. Teachers as well as special students of physiology will be glad of this new help in their work.

"Winning Out," by Orison Swett Marden, editor of *Success*. Lothrop Publishing Company, Boston, \$1.25.

It is well for the teacher to cultivate the art of telling stories to children. The story that is told has an element of life which is not found in the story that is read. There is no barrier between the story teller and his audience; the book often makes a gulf between the reader

and his hearers. Practice story-telling. Let the children's indifference teach you wherein you fail; your unconscious tutors will show you what to omit and what to magnify. Their training will help you in other directions. If you yield yourself to the teaching of the children, you will be repaid by a new readiness in story-telling before less kindly and less candid critics. Do not forego this privilege.

"Winning Out" has first-class stories and anecdotes for the teacher to provide himself with for use in the classroom. We urge all classes of teachers in all kinds of schools to avail themselves of such books as this one is to press home definitely their more formal instruction.

A volume of unusual scientific interest, issued by the University Press, Cambridge, is Sir Robert Ball's "Primer of Astronomy." It has been well-known for a long time that this distinguished astronomer possessed in an uncommon degree the power of making his subject both clear and fascinating. The book contains the latest facts and theories with regard to astronomy. 50c.

English Grammar and Composition, by G. H. Armstrong, M.A., B.Paed. *The Hunter-Rose Co. Ltd.*, Toronto. 25c.

Books received:—

From *Longmans, Green & Company*, through *The Copp, Clark Company*—

Macaulay's "Essay on Clive," edited by A. M. Williams, pp. 134, price 50 cents.

Ginn & Company, Boston:

Juvenal, edited by Henry P. Wright, pp. 240, price \$1.35.

Easy Stories, by Elizabeth A. Turner, pp. 152.