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THE
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

OF THE
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

No. 3.

MARCH, 1889.

VOL. IX.

Articles: Original and Selected.

A CONCISE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

LANGUAGES KINDRED TO THE ENGLISH.

Anglo-Saxon, Teutonic, Indo-European.—The English language is the descendant and representative of the Anglo-Saxon. It has lost very much of the inflection, and very many of the words, which belonged to the parent language; and, on the other hand, it has borrowed words very largely, to the extent even of half its vocabulary, from other languages, especially the French and the Latin. Yet all the inflections that remain in it, and most of its formative endings, the pronouns and particles, and, in general, the words which are in most frequent and familiar use, have come to it from the Anglo-Saxon. With all its mixture of foreign elements, it is still a Teutonic language, like the German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, and others. These again make one branch in that great family of languages, which, as it extends from India westward, and covers nearly the entire area of Europe, is called Indo-European. Among all families of kindred tongues, the Indo-European is pre-eminent, both for the perfection of its organic structure, and for the value of its literary monuments. The parent of the whole family, the one primitive Indo-European language, has left no such monument of itself; but its forms and roots may be made out, to a great extent, by the scientific comparison of the languages which are descended from it.

THE ANGLO-SAXON AS A LITERARY LANGUAGE.

Name.—The emigrants from Germany, who invaded Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries, and after long struggles conquered most of the island, appear to have come in great part from the districts now called Sleswick and Holstein, on the eastern shores of the North Sea. The Angles, who seem to have been the most numerous portion, established themselves in the east and north of Britain, but left the Scottish highlands to their Gaelic population. The Saxons occupied the south and west, but left Wales and Cornwall to their Cymric population. A third fraction, of far inferior numbers, the Jutes, had possession of Kent in the south-east of England. There is reason to believe that there was a difference of dialect among these settlers; and, particularly, that the idiom of the Angles varied in some degree from that of the Saxons; but it cannot well be doubted that they all spoke substantially the same language. This common language bears a close resemblance to the Friesic and to the Old Saxon, holding in some respects an intermediate position between them. In its literary monuments, it is sometimes designated as the Saxon, sometimes as the English (*Englisc*, belonging to the Angles); but the latter became at length the established name for the language, as England (*Engla-land*, land of the Angles) for the country. The name Anglo-Saxon, which recognises the claims of both parties, is of later introduction.

INFLUENCE OF OTHER LANGUAGES ON THE ANGLO-SAXON.

The Keltic.—The Saxons and Angles, when they entered Britain, were brought into contact with a Keltic-speaking population. It is true that the Latin had been spoken by the dominant people in England during more than three centuries of Roman occupation. But it seems not to have established itself, as it did in Gaul and Spain, so as to supplant the native language of the country. It had rather the position which was afterward held on the same ground by its own child, the French, for more than two centuries after the Norman conquest. It was spoken by the ruling caste, while the mass of the people adhered to their own mother-tongue, though they naturally received into it, as time passed on, a considerable number of words learned

from their rulers. In Wales, which has retained the same population from Roman times, the vernacular idiom is not of Latin origin, nor is it very largely intermixed with Latin; it is true and genuine Keltic. The probability is, that the great body of those whose possessions passed into Anglo-Saxon hands spoke substantially the same language. This being so, it would not have seemed strange if the idiom of the conquered people had acted on that of the conquerors, so as to introduce a large Keltic element into Anglo-Saxon and English. But the fact is quite the contrary. The Keltic words in English are altogether few in number; most of them—as *bard*, *druid*, *crowd* (a fiddle), etc.—belong to objects which are specially Keltic; and a large part—including nearly all those of Gaelic origin, as *brogue*, *clan*, *shanty*, *whisky*, etc.—are of recent introduction. It would seem that in the slow and gradual progress of the Saxon conquests, the native British fell back from point to point before the invaders; or, if a part remained in their old homes, they were too few to maintain their old language, and had to exchange it for Saxon; while the independent Britons and Saxons, engaged in constant hostilities, were cut off from that free and peaceful intercourse which might have left a marked impress on the languages of both. In many cases, there is a real connection, but no borrowing—the words having come down both in the Teutonic and the Keltic from the common Indo-European stock. Thus *barrow*, which has been identified with *W. berfa*, is really derived from the root of the verb to *bear*, *Go. bairan*, *L. fero*; while *berfa*, if not taken from the English, was formed on Keltic ground from the same root, as seen in *Ir. beirim*. There remain, however, a small number of words—such as *basket*, *glen*, *lad*, *dun* (color), etc.—in which an early borrowing from the Welsh is either certain or probable. But the words *bran*, *cabin*, *piece*, *quay*, and a few others like them, if they are really of Keltic origin, have not come to us directly from the Keltic, but have passed from a Keltic source into the Romance languages, and from thence into the English.

The Latin.—The introduction of Christianity among the Anglo-Saxons at the opening of the seventh century, brought with it the study of the Latin. The cultivation of learning and letters belonged almost exclusively to ecclesiastics, with whom Latin was the professional language. Hence quite a number of Latin or

Latinised Greek words, most of them words connected with church or religion, passed into the Anglo-Saxon: thus:—

L.	A.-S.	Eng.
diabolus	deōfol	{devil
presbyter	preōst	priest
episcopus	bisceop	bishop
monasterium	mynster	minster
clericus	cleric	clerk
prædicare	predician	preach
G. kuriake } kuriakon }	cyrice	{church {kirk (<i>Scotch</i>)
eleemosune	älmesse	alms
L. pondo	pund	pound
moneta	mynet	mint

and several others. The names of months were also borrowed from the Latin. It is worthy of notice that while *minster* and *mint* have come to us through the Anglo-Saxon, we have the same Latin words by more recent importation in *monastery* and *money*, which come through the French *monastère* and *monnaie*.

The Scandinavian.—In the year 827, Egbert, king of the West Saxons, became the acknowledged lord of all the separate fractions into which the Anglo-Saxon England had been divided. Piratical rovers from the regions about the Baltic were at this period the scourge and terror of Europe. These Scandinavians—or Danes, as the Saxons named them all, whether coming from Denmark or not—infested the whole eastern coast of England, not only making occasional descents, but conquering large districts, and forming permanent settlements. Yet the Danes do not appear to have settled in large numbers, except in the eastern part of the island. A trace of their existence here is still seen in Ashby, Rugby, Whitby, and many other names of places with the same ending; for *by* is the Icelandic *by-r*, Swedish *by*, Danish *bye*, a town, village. There is no evidence that the Danes of England sought to perpetuate or to extend the use of their own language. Even under Danish kings, the Anglo-Saxon continued to be used in public Acts and laws. The truth appears to be that in England, as well as in Normandy, the Scandinavian settlers did not long retain their mother-tongue, but gave it up for the more cultivated idiom of the people among whom they settled. At the same time, they did not fail to communicate some of their own words to the new speech of their adoption.

The Norman-French.—The Normans (or Northmen) were a body of Scandinavian adventurers, who, while their country-men, the Danes, were making conquests in England, succeeded in establishing themselves on the opposite coast of France. In 912, King Charles the Simple ceded to Duke Rollo and his Norman followers the province which took from them its name of Normandy. Here they soon ceased to speak their own language, adopting that which was spoken by the native population. The influence of the Norman-French began to be felt in England even before the Norman conquest of the country. It seems to have been much used at the court of Edward the Confessor, who followed the Danish dynasty, and reigned from 1042 to 1065. This prince, though of Saxon birth, had spent his youth in Normandy. When he became king of England, he surrounded himself with Normans, exciting thus the jealousy of his native subjects, who, in 1052, constrained him to banish the obnoxious foreigners. After his death, Duke William of Normandy laid claim to the English crown; and the hard-fought battle of Hastings, in 1066, in which Harold, the Saxon king, was slain, and his army totally defeated, established the claim of the Conqueror. This event, which has affected the whole subsequent history of England, has had the most important influence on its language. It was not, indeed, the intention of William to suppress the language of his new subjects. He is said to have made an attempt, though an unsuccessful one, to acquire it himself. But the political and social conditions which followed the conquest were extremely unfavourable to the language of the conquered people. Their obstinate resistance and repeated insurrections led the Conqueror to treat them with the utmost severity. They were shut out from offices of state; they were removed from ecclesiastical positions; they were deprived of lands, and reduced to poverty and wretchedness. The court, the nobility, the landed gentry, the clergy, the army, were all Norman. The Anglo-Saxon language was banished from these circles, and the French took its place. The instruction of the schools was given in French alone. There was nothing to stimulate, there was everything to discourage, the cultivation of the native language.

TRANSITION FROM ANGLO-SAXON TO MODERN ENGLISH.

Periods.—For five centuries after the Norman conquest, the language of England was in a constant and rapid process of change. During the first of these centuries, we may believe that it had not yet departed very widely from the earlier type. The last monument of the old language is the concluding part of the Saxon Chronicle, in which the history is brought down to the death of King Stephen in 1154. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, we find a vast body of French words mingled with those of native stock, while the old inflection is brought down to that minimum which remains in the language at this day. This is called the Middle English period. It must be remembered that the process of change was gradual and incessant: the language did not remain fixed for a time, and then on a sudden leap to a new position.

Changes.—The changes in our language, consequent on the Norman occupation of England, were mainly of two kinds:—1. The loss of the Anglo-Saxon inflection; and, 2. The introduction of new words from the French. The latter change did not go on to any great extent until more than two centuries after the Conquest; yet no one can doubt that it was caused by that event. But in regard to the earlier change—the loss of the ancient inflection—it is maintained by some writers that this was in no degree occasioned by the coming of the Normans.

Semi-Saxon Period, 1150-1250.—The Anglo-Saxon inflection is still in a great measure retained, but with *e* instead of other vowels in the endings, and with much confusion and irregularity of use.

Old English Period, 1250-1350.—Here the Anglo-Saxon inflection is to a great extent discarded, but only a moderate proportion of words is yet adopted from the French.

Introduction of French words.—In a vocabulary of the words used by English writers during the last half of the thirteenth century, only about 12 per cent. of the whole number are foreign to the Anglo-Saxon. If we take the words of any writer as they stand in pages, the proportion will be much smaller. But from the middle of the fourteenth century, English literature presents in this respect a different appearance. A multitude of Romance words is everywhere seen, mixed with those of Teutonic origin.

Even works which were intended for the people abound in words taken from the French. The difference between the English of 1300 and that of 1350, marks this as the time when the higher classes in England became generally acquainted with the English language. Up to this time the inhabitants of the country had been divided into two bodies, having each a language of its own. The nobility and gentry of Norman origin retained their French, and only in occasional instances acquired the Saxon, which they looked on with contempt, as rude in itself and spoken by an inferior race. They had a copious literature, consisting chiefly of poetry and romance, composed in French, but written, much of it, on English soil. On the other hand, the mass of the people spoke only English. Of course there must have been many individuals who knew both languages, and could act as necessary mediators between the great parties that knew but one. These, however, formed only a small fraction of the whole people. When the French possessions of the English crown were wrested from the feeble hands of John, the political ties were severed which had long connected the Normans of England with their brethren across the Channel. Henceforth England, not France, was their country; the English people, not the French, were their countrymen. At the same time, social barriers were giving way. Marriage ties were connecting the two races. Saxons were acquiring wealth, passing into the ranks of the aristocracy, or rising to high positions in the church. The feeling of a common nationality was coming to prevail over the alienating memories of race and conquest. Under such influences, it was natural that the French-speaking aristocracy should begin to learn English. They did this as a matter of convenience, to carry on the necessary intercourse of business and society, without designing to give up the French, which in many instances continued to be spoken in their families for two or three generations longer. The change, we may presume, commenced with that lower, but more numerous part of the Norman aristocracy, who resided constantly on their estates, surrounded by a Saxon population. Once fairly initiated, the movement must have gone forward with rapidity. The court was the last place to be reached by its influence. It is believed that none of the three Edwards was accustomed to speak English. In the schools, it is stated

that, during the first half of the fourteenth century, French was still used as the language of instruction and the medium for learning Latin, but that, during the last half of the same century, the English gradually took its place. The body of the English people were now for the first time brought into oral communication with their rulers. Hearing the French words with the Saxon, they were able to understand their meaning. Hearing them from the lips of their superiors, they naturally imitated and adopted them. Thus the new importations, bearing the stamp of elegance and fashion, passed from the circles of polite society into the language of the vulgar.

Middle English Period, 1350-1550.—The old inflection undergoes some further losses; the unaccented final *e* (as in *love, fame, etc.*) begins to disappear in pronunciation; but the great characteristic of this period is the immense accession of words taken from the French.

The century from 1450 to 1550 might be regarded as a distinct period. the unaccented final *e* was now generally neglected, and at length wholly lost in pronunciation; and in many ways the language assumed a more modern aspect. Literature received a new impulse from the art of printing. Among the most important of the numerous books which issued from the celebrated Caxton press (1470 to 1490) was the *Morte d'Arthur*, by Sir Thomas Malory, a prose compendium of the poetical legends concerning King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. The translation of Froissart's *Chronicle*, by Lord Berners, which appeared in 1523-25, was not unworthy of the rich and glowing original. We may mention, also, as excellent specimens of the language at that time, the writings of Sir Thomas More, and the New Testament translation of William Tyndale, which was printed in 1526. As for the poets of that most unpoetic age, it is enough to name the rude but vigorous Skelton. The poems of Surrey and Wyatt, though written before 1550, belong more in language and character to the following period.

Commencement of the Modern Period.—With the middle of the sixteenth century, the English enters on a new stage of its history. Many words which were in use three hundred years ago have since become obsolete. A much larger number have

been added to the language, including not only technical and scientific terms by the thousand, but a multitude of words which belong to the common stock of literature and society. Words which have been retained have often lost their old meanings and taken on new ones. In the combination and construction of words, in phrase and idiom, the changes have been yet more numerous, and the general colour and flavour of English style are quite different now from what they were in the last half of the sixteenth century.

Introduction of Latin and Greek Words.—We have already seen that a number of words passed from the Latin into the Anglo-Saxon. The same process has gone on in the subsequent stages of the language. The admission of foreign words in great numbers from the French, a daughter of the Latin, made it natural and easy to admit them also from the mother-language. In many instances it is difficult to determine whether a word of Latin origin has come to us through the French, or has been taken directly from the Latin. The practice of adding to the English vocabulary, words adapted from the Latin and the Greek, is still carried on with activity, and there is little prospect of its ceasing. It is almost necessary, as a means of denoting those new objects, ideas, and relations which are continually appearing and demanding expression. The resources of the English for the formation of new words from elements already existing in it are so limited that aid from other languages is indispensable. The new terms which are required by the progress of science are almost wholly drawn from these sources, especially from the inexhaustible storehouse of Greek expression.

THE ENGLISH A COMPOSITE LANGUAGE.

Proportion of the Elements.—There is no language, probably, in which all the words are formed by its own processes from roots that originally belonged to it. What is peculiar to the English is not that it has words borrowed from other languages, but that it has so many of them; that a large part of its vocabulary is of foreign origin. The French words which have been engrafted on the native English stock are, with few exceptions, derived from the Latin; and when added to the almost equal

number which have come directly from that language, they make, perhaps, four-fifths of all our borrowed words. Much smaller, though still considerable, especially in scientific use, is the number of words taken from the Greek. The remainder of our foreign words can hardly exceed a twentieth part of the whole vocabulary, and are drawn from a great variety of sources—Keltic, Danish, Dutch, Hebrew, Arabic, Turkish, etc. If all the words in a large English dictionary were classed according to their origin, it would appear that the foreign or non-Saxon words make a decided majority of the whole number. If we take all the distinct words used by particular writers, we shall find a different ratio between the Saxon and foreign elements. Of those used by Shakespeare, it is said that sixty per cent. are of Saxon origin: and the ratio is about the same for the common version of the Bible. The style of Johnson abounds in words of Latin origin; but in the Preface to his Dictionary there are seventy-two per cent. of Saxon words. In Milton's poetical works, about two-thirds of the vocabulary are foreign; but in the sixth book of *Paradise Lost*, four-fifths of all the words are Saxon.

Different Character of the Elements.—The borrowed words, taken as a class, have a peculiar character, which separates them, even to the feeling of uneducated persons, from those of native stock. There are, indeed, particular cases in which the ordinary relation does not hold; there are some in which it is actually inverted, as in *sign* and *token*, *color* and *hue*, *power* and *might*. Here the familiar *sign*, *color*, *power*, are from the French, and the more poetical *token*, *hue*, *might*, are from the Saxon. But in general, the Saxon words are simple, homely, and substantial, fitted for every-day events and natural feelings; while the French and Latin words are elegant, dignified, and artificial, fitted for the pomp of rhetoric, the subtlety of disputation, or the courtly reserve of diplomacy. The difference arises partly from the fact already noticed, that the most familiar objects, qualities, and actions have generally retained their primitive Saxon designations. The foreign words bear an impress derived from the courtiers and scholars who introduced them. To a great extent they stand for ideas which belong especially to disciplined thought and cultivated feeling. The Saxon are shorter, in great

part monosyllabic, and often full of consonants; while the French and Latin words are longer, smoother, and have greater breadth of vowel-sounds. It cannot well be denied that this marked diversity of character between native and foreign words gives to our language a somewhat heterogeneous and incongruous aspect. Yet it furnishes means for great variety in the expression of the same thoughts, and serves to distinguish and individualise the styles of different authors. Among writers who, in this respect, occupy an extreme position, may be named, on the one side, Bunyan, De Foe, Franklin, and Cobbett; on the other, Hooker, Milton, Johnson, and Chalmers.

It was natural that, when a multitude of foreign words were brought into our language, many should coincide in meaning with words that already belonged to it. In some cases, as in *will* and *testament*, *yearly* and *annual*, *begin* and *commence*, etc., the two words have continued to be used with scarcely any difference of meaning. But the tendency has been to turn the new material to good account by giving to the words of each pair senses more or less clearly distinguished from each other. In *body* and *corpse*, *love* and *amour*, *work* and *travel*, *sheep* and *mutton*, etc., the distinction is a broad one; in *bloom* and *flower*, *luck* and *fortune*, *mild* and *gentle*, *win* and *gain*, etc., it is slighter and more subtle. The discriminations thus established have added much to the resources of the language, giving it a peculiar richness and delicacy of expression.

DIALECTS.

The English language is not spoken with uniformity by all who use it. Nearly every county in Britain has its local dialect, its peculiar words and forms, which are used by the common people of the lower classes. This diversity is, in part, of long standing; in some points, doubtless, it goes back even to Anglo-Saxon times. The great variety of local idioms is said to divide itself naturally into two main classes—the one belonging to the east and north of the island, the other to the west and south.

In every dialect, apparently, there are preserved a certain number of old words and forms which have passed out of use, or have suffered alteration in the common language; but it is equally true that every dialect has lost or altered some which

remain unchanged in the common language. Thus, if the Scotch *kye* for *cows*, *brak* for *broke*, etc., are closer to the Anglo-Saxon than are the corresponding English words, the contrary is true of *gie* for *give*, *fa'* for *fall*, *houd* for *hold*, *winna* for *will not*, etc. It is believed that, on the whole, the common English stands nearer than any of the dialects to the early form of the language.

Editorial Notes and Comments.

Mr. Hewton's paper, which appeared last month, will probably bring up the question of school visitation by parents. The industrious teacher honestly strives to make a reputation for himself; and notwithstanding all the forces arrayed against him, is encouraged in his ambition to do well for himself and others, by the spirit of fair-play which he finds in the majority of his many critics. But when he works from month to month in his school and sees no parent's face in his school-room, to smile encouragingly upon his work, he begins to think that he must look for his reward elsewhere. And when he thinks of the one or two ill-disposed boys he has to contend with daily, and feels how biassed their opinion must be of his determination to uphold his authority over them, and how easily parents can be convinced of anything which their children tell them, he begins to fear that the tribunal which is to pass verdict on his work is a very incompetent one. How would he fare, he thinks, if anything should occur in his school beyond the ordinary routine of enforcing discipline? Is there any public opinion on which he could rely? Does any one in the district know how anxiously he labours in the interests of his pupils from day to day? Is there any one to raise a voice in his favour, should some unruly boy or pouting miss excite the ire of father or mother against him? Besides, how unreasonably some people judge of a man's work, when they have nothing to go upon in forming a judgment, but some silly prejudice, which they think intuitive? They don't care for the new man, simply because they were intimate with his predecessor and admired him. No, they never have visited the school since he came; they don't know what his system is; but can it be supposed for a moment that one who keeps himself so much to himself can be

much of a teacher? And from such a standpoint,—a standpoint which has no foundation but pure and unadulterated nonsense, the imagination often weaves a record for the teacher in a community. A paper was lately read before the Teachers' Association of Wisconsin, on the forces available for the development and propagation of a better educational sentiment; and among others the following is written of school visitation by parents: It may be questioned whether the visiting of schools by parents is a means by which to mould public sentiment or a direct result of it; but, like all social forces, it is both. It has been asserted that the average visitor does not know dress parade from substantial work, that he wants to be amused, and that his taste craves only spicy intellectual food. If it is true that the motives of the circus-goer actuate the school visitor, it behooves us, indeed, to look about for forces available to develop higher educational ideals. But surely we may assume that the judgment of most parents is sufficiently sound to prevent their being duped by the educational decorator.

Besides the fact that frequent, informal visits from parents tend to establish frank and cordial relations between the school and the community, they make the people more liberal toward the school, provided always, the intelligent visitor finds what he has a right to expect—that his money is not being squandered upon incompetent instructors or needless appliances.

To encourage school visitation and make it most effective, the notion that a school visit is a matter of formality should be dispelled. If parents are informed of the order of daily recitations, and invited to come, some will find opportunity, and through them others will be moved. The old-time school entertainment—even the spelling school—was not without some good results in directing public attention to the school. Exhibits of pupils' handicraft, not only of things made in the school, as maps, drawings, manuscript matter, etc., but also of articles for use or ornamentation made at home from plans suggested by the teacher, may properly be employed as a means to the same end.

—The Report of the Commissioner of Education has been received from the Bureau of Education, Washington; and we feel convinced that it is one of the best which has been issued from that Bureau. The Hon. Mr. Dawson, whose term of office is about

to expire, has left behind him a record of industry, which will be recognized even by those who wish him out of office. From the date of his appointment he busied himself with the re-organizing of his department, and in this report he is in a position to tell the story of his success. He has been able to reduce the number of divisions from seven to three, called respectively, the Division of Records, the Division of the Library and Museum, and the Division of Statistics. The former is charged with the correspondence and the distribution of the publications of the Bureau. The second has the care of all the books, pamphlets, journals, apparatus and collections, while the third has for its work the compilation of the report before us. It consists of nearly twelve hundred pages, and is replete with information of the most interesting character, even to those who live beyond the limits of the great republic. In view of the fact that our own Government sympathise with the project of having a museum in connection with the Education Department, Mr. Dawson's remarks on the museum in connection with his bureau we have read with interest. Its history is very much the history which Mr. St. Cyr has published of the collection in his charge. The library now contains twenty thousand volumes, and is ever on the increase to such an extent that Mr. Dawson makes a request for a new building for it and the museum.

—One of the most important of the Bureau's enterprises, however, is the investigation of the history of education in America from its earliest beginnings. This new work was begun, as the report says, in a very modest way by a study of the history of the College of William and Mary, the oldest collegiate institution of the South. The favourable reception given to this, the first fruits of the new enterprise inaugurated by Mr. Dawson, encouraged him to arrange for the publication of a second monograph on the University of Virginia, and we need hardly say that this, a volume of over three hundred pages, has realized all the success the authors could possibly wish for his work. On a more modest scale, the *Record* has been trying to inaugurate such a movement as this, and proposes to continue the work with the assistance of our teachers, if they can only be encouraged to take up the pen in favour of such work. If we only had the pecuniary assistance, which they have in the Education Bureau of the

United States for publication, all of us would possibly be more confident that our labours would eventually see the light of day. The Report before us closes with the description of a tour of school inspection made through Alaska by Dr. Sheldon Jackson, which is almost as interesting as a novel. When the last Report was taken notice of in these pages, it was pointed out how necessary a Bureau of this kind was for the country, and how Canada would eventually be led to imitate the United States in this respect. The arguments in favour of a Canadian sub-department of this kind need not be repeated. The principal duty of such a Bureau, is the collection, preparation, tabulation, and publication of statistical information in the form of reports, and such other methods as shall seem best fitted for the benefit of the public schools and the improvement of the means of education. In other words, the Education Bureau is a kind of general moral "suasion" force at work co-ordinating the efforts of the various States towards a higher degree of proficiency in school appliances, and educational work.

—The annual report of the McGill University has been issued and is addressed to the Governor-General as visitor. The office of chancellor, which was held for so many years by the Hon. James Ferrier, and which involves much unpaid labour, has not yet been filled, and in connection with this statement in the report, a record is made of the deaths which occurred of those who were actively engaged in the work of the university during the year. In the thirty-nine pages of the report, there is the usual information in regard to the faculties and affiliated institutions of the university. The university includes McGill College, Morrin College, St. Francis College, four theological schools, and the Normal School. The development of the Faculty of Arts in recent years has been very rapid, chiefly in connection with the Donalda course for women, which has attracted a large number of students. As the *Gazette* says,—when it is considered that McGill has adhered to the system of exacting a regular determined course in the old subjects of Latin, Greek, mathematics, logic, English and modern languages, in the case of all students in the first two years of a course consisting of four long sessions of eight months, and has allowed no escape into options and honors till the senior years, this must be regarded

as an evidence that a large number at least prefer this to the more attractive method which allows the student options from the first. The reason probably is that experience proves a course of this kind better adapted to the subsequent requirements of professional and business life. An impression has been cultivated in some quarters that McGill has devoted more of its energies to science than to literature. This is, however, a mistake, except in so far as it has provided special means of study in its museum and laboratories and its faculty of applied science for scientific study, and that it has given to this a practical character which has fitted many of its graduates for science teaching, for the work of scientific surveys and similar employments. It is perhaps the main cause of success in the faculty of arts that while it has possessed a large body of able teachers, it has been induced by its connection with schools of theology, of pedagogy, of law, medicine and engineering, to shape its course of study so as to fit its men as well as possible for these various callings and professions, as well as for the pursuit of abstract learning. Much greater success might no doubt have been achieved but for that narrow policy which has prevented the Province of Quebec from recognising as in other countries the sufficiency of the degree of B.A. as evidence of preparation for entrance into professional study. Against this the university has kept up an almost continuous protest for thirty years, and it is hoped that in the progress of enlightenment, the evil may soon be remedied. The Faculty of Law has suffered severely from the anti-educational Regulations of the Council of the Bar, which by a most improvident action of the Legislature and one believed to be contrary to the rights guaranteed to the Protestant universities at Confederation, has been permitted to tyrannise over the university course. It is hoped that these obnoxious powers may soon be withdrawn. The Faculties of Medicine and of Applied Science and the Normal School, report continuous prosperity and progress, and are evidently doing good work in the subjects which they represent. The Faculty of Applied Science has been provided with new class-rooms and drawing-rooms, and the Normal school has established a workshop for training in the use of tools, and has also made some material improvements in its course of study. The library, Peter Redpath Museum and Observatory are

evidently improving and carrying on their useful work with vigor. If they have anything to complain of it is that the demands for their services grow more rapidly than their accommodation and means and appliances. The library, more especially, will soon require more space for readers, and for books, and the observatory puts in a strong claim for additional public aid toward its time service.

Current Events.

The educational event of the session has been the discussion over the Hon. Mr. Lynch's bill, which proposes that the degree of B.A. from any Canadian University should be taken as a guarantee of scholarship in admitting students to study for the notarial, legal and medical professions. It is difficult to understand why there should be any opposition to such a bill; but there has been opposition, and the universities of the province have had to send representatives to Quebec, to argue in its favour. The chief opponent to the principle of recognizing the B.A. degree is the Secretary of the General Council of the Bar, who supervises the entrance examinations to the Bar. As the *Quebec Chronicle* says:—"The bill is fair and just. It only asks the bar of Quebec to recognize the teaching of men who have given their lives and best abilities, to the instruction of the rising youthhood of the country. The examinations in the universities are thorough, and more searching than those of the Bar examiners. The young man who gets through his course with a B.A. or an LL.B. degree, may be ranked as having won his spurs with great honour. Already a lieutenant in a certain department of learning, it is humiliating to return him to the time of his school-days, and submit him to an examination which only the privates in the company, just out of school, are subjected to."

—The Protestant Board of School Commissioners have prepared for publication a statement regarding the steps taken by them to secure an equitable distribution of the city school tax, as between Catholics and Protestants; namely that the Pro-

testant Board receive its share of the taxation levied on banks, companies and corporations, etc., according to the amount of stock owned by Protestants.

—The Teachers' Association of the district of Bedford, held its second meeting at Farnham, on Saturday, the 2nd of February. There were two sessions. The Rev. John Ker, of Dunham, who is an honorary member of the association, was called to the chair, and introduced Miss Rix, who gave an interesting lesson in arithmetic to a class of her own pupils. The lesson gave rise to a discussion concerning the best methods of teaching the elementary rules. In this, Principals Hewton, McArthur and Alexander, took part, each of whom, to illustrate his principles, worked examples on the board. This discussion was followed by a second, on the habit of pupils asking questions concerning their lessons while others were reciting, which was introduced by a teacher who wished the aid of the Association in helping her to remove the difficulty. The matter was then discussed by Misses Rix and Kemp, Messrs. Hewton, McArthur, Silver and Truell, all of whom agreed that to prevent being disturbed during recitation, and also that the pupils might be enabled intelligently to prepare their lessons, the teacher should point out difficulties and give explanations on the day preceding the recitals.

—At the opening of the afternoon session, a reading was given by the President of the Association, Mr. R. J. Hewton, and Mr. Alexander, accompanied by his pupils, gave a song. A paper concerning the principal subjects which should be taken up and considered by the Association, was then read by Mr. Alexander. In this the reader referred to some of the duties and qualifications of the teacher. This led to a discussion on the subject of temperance and morality. The matter of teachers' diplomas was then taken up. Some thought the standard too low, and expressed a desire that the time would soon come when the department would make the requirements for an Elementary, what they are now for a Model School diploma, and for the latter, what they are for an Academy. After some discussion in the matter, it was moved by R. J. Hewton, M.A., seconded by J. H. Alexander, B.A., and resolved, that the attention of the Department be directed to the inconsistency existing in the fact that candidates for teachers' diplomas are required to make only 33½

per cent. in reading, while they are expected to prepare pupils who are required to make 75 per cent. at the June examination. Another song was then given by Mr. Alexander and his pupils, after which the Association adjourned to meet again at Farnham, on Saturday the 16th, March.

—The appointment to the chair of English Literature in the Toronto University has been filled. The testimonials of the successful candidate, Prof. W. J. Alexander, of Dalhousie University, are said to be of a very high order. Mr. Alexander is a Canadian, who, setting out from the Hamilton Collegiate Institute where, if we are not mistaken, he gained a Gilchrist Scholarship, has had excellent opportunities for thorough culture in the London, Berlin and Johns Hopkins Universities, respectively. In each of these institutions his standings were, we believe, excellent. Dr. Alexander has made the English Language and Literature a specialty, and has it is understood, taught them with success in Dalhousie for some years. He gained his first experience as a teacher in the Prince of Wales College, where his work was spoken of in the highest terms by those who know how to appreciate talent such as he possesses.

—The Teachers' Association in connection with the McGill Normal School, held its fifth regular meeting on Tuesday evening, February 12th, at eight o'clock. Mr A. W. Kneeland presided. The attendance was exceptionally good, owing, doubtless to the interesting programme, which was as follows:—Piano duett—Misses Gross. Recitation—Miss McGavin. Part song—Lady students McGill Normal School. Lecture—Somnambulism, by Dr. Clarke Murray of McGill University. Song—N. N. Evans, B.A.Sc. Recitation—Miss Findlay. Part song—Lady students of McGill Normal School. A vote of thanks was given to Dr. Murray and those who assisted in the programme. The business transacted at the beginning of the meeting consisted of the adoption of the minutes, the announcement of the March meeting, and the election of three members—Miss Kerr, Miss K. Harper, and Rev. D. Larivière, B.A.

—The following figures taken from the McGill Annual Report are of interest:—Of degrees in course 102 were given last year, raising the number of professional graduates to 1,440, and that of graduates in arts to 449. Of these graduates, a great number re-

main in the Province of Quebec, and a reference to the lists shows that a very large proportion of our more eminent professional men on the Bench, at the Bar, in the medical, notarial, and engineering professions are graduates of McGill. In the Donalda special course for women the number of regular undergraduates has increased to 35, a very gratifying fact. Besides these, are 69 ranking as partial and occasional, of whom some may be able on examination to enter as undergraduates. The whole university at present consists of McGill College, with four faculties of law, medicine, arts and applied science, with about 50 professors, and 650 students. The total number in the faculty of arts has doubled in about five years, viz: 310 against 157 in 1884. The number of men has doubled in 14 years. The number in all the faculties has doubled in about 25 years, (576 in 1888, against 291 in 1863.)

—The death of Professor Young of Toronto University brings regret to all those who knew anything of his life work. He was a man of whom Toronto had reason to be proud, and now that he has gone, the office that he has vacated will, in all possibility, become the rallying point of those discordant cries which are ever heard when Toronto selects a new professor. The men who delight to drag that institution before the public, to its ridicule, whenever an appointment has to be made, can hardly be the raw material out of which Mr. Parkins proposes to make his Imperial Federationists.

—In connection with the ridiculous conduct of some of these ultra-nationalists, we have read some of the letters which have appeared in the newspapers lately, after the appointment of Professor Alexander was publicly announced, and we fully sympathize with the *Educational Journal* when it says:—"We deprecate the exceedingly discourteous and violent attack that has been made on the venerable President of the University, by anonymous writers in the public press. It is one thing to urge as strongly as possible the superior claims of individual Canadians, on educational grounds, which alone should be considered in such a case. It is quite another thing to make the fact or suspicion that the Head of the University may have thought or advised otherwise, the occasion for rude, personal assault. Whatever advice Sir Daniel Wilson may have given, in any case, it is but fair

and reasonable to assume, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, that it was given conscientiously, and under a deep sense of responsibility. It is, of course, open to any one to argue that his judgment may have been at fault, or his opinions prejudiced, but surely, in common courtesy, the line should be drawn at the imputation of sinister motives." We would even go further than this and say that it is the very essence of narrow-mindedness to say that Canadians have any superior claim to any of the professor's chairs in the country, except what their scholarship gives them. Indeed we have no doubt that some of these narrow-minded folk will be apt to think when Professor Young's chair comes to be filled again, that neither Dr. Clark Murray nor John Watson are eligible for appointment, even should either of these distinguished metaphysicians see in it an opportunity of bettering themselves pecuniarily.

—The town of Granby is one of the ambitious places of the Townships, and wears an aspect of prosperity to the casual visitor which is pleasant to look at. The commercial grumbler has no credit in Granby, and when he comes to observe the enterprise in its factories and churches and fine buildings, he turns on his heel at once to find a more congenial locality for his vapourings about dullness of business. And now Granby proposes to show the same progress in school affairs as in commercial undertakings; and there is in the air a project to erect a fine new building for the Academy. In this connection we may also say that the town of Shawville likewise intends to improve the Academy building next year. The commissioners of Hull have also improved their school building to make it as good as new, and there are now three departments, fully equipped and organized, in building where there was only room for two.

Books Received and Reviewed.

ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S LATIN GRAMMAR is a book which every teacher has heard of. This is a revised and enlarged edition prepared by James Bradstreet Greenough and George L. Kittredge, and published from new plates by Messrs Ginn & Co., Boston, and London, England. The classical master will not be content until he has examined this edition with all the zest of a *connoisseur* in search of the new. The revising editors have done their work well. They have endeavoured to simplify and make plain

the statement of principles, so far as could be done without sacrificing scientific correctness. Many additional explanations and suggestions have been made in the text and foot notes for the benefit of teachers and advanced scholars. The number and range of examples have been very considerably increased and it will be difficult for pupils to find any grammatical usage in their ordinary reading that is not provided for in this excellent compendium of Latin accidence and construction.

THE TEACHERS PSYCHOLOGY by A. S. Welch, LL. D. of Iowa College of Agriculture, and published by Messrs E. L. Kellogg & Co., New York and Chicago. This is a comprehensive treatise on the intellectual faculties, the order of their growth, and the corresponding series of studies by which they are educated. A mastery of the branches to be taught was once thought to be an all-sufficient preparation for teaching. But it is now seen that there must be a knowledge of the mind that is to be trained. Psychology is the foundation of intelligent pedagogy. Prof. Welch undertook to write a book that should deal with mind-unfolding, as exhibited in the school-room. He shows what is meant by attending, memorizing, judging, abstracting, imagining, classifying, etc., as it is done by the pupil over his text-books. First, there is the *concept*: then there is (1, gathering concepts, (2) storing concepts, (3) dividing concepts, (4) abstracting concepts, (5) building concepts, (6) grouping concepts, (7) connecting concepts, (8) deriving concepts. Each of these is clearly explained and illustrated; the reader instead of being bewildered over strange terms comprehends that imagination means a building up of concepts, and so of the other terms. A most valuable part of the book is its application to practical education. How to train these powers that deal with the concept—that is the question? There must be exercises to train the mind to *gather, store, divide, abstract, build, group, connect, and derive* concepts. The author shows what studies do this appropriately, and where there are mistakes made in the selection of studies. The book will prove a valuable one to the teacher who wishes to know the structure of the mind and the way to minister to its growth. It would seem that at last a psychology has been written that will be a real aid, instead of a hindrance, to clear knowledge. Much interest has been felt in the work by teachers who know the long study the author has given to the subject, and numerous orders have been given for the work in advance of publication.

THE LADY OF THE LAKE, an epitomized form of Sir Walter Scott's great poem, published by Messrs. Dawson Bros. Montreal. We believe, with the publishers and those of our teachers who have seen this edition of the Lady of the Lake, that it will be of great service to pupils preparing for their examination in Literature, in connection with which this poem has been prescribed. Short biographies of contemporaneous writers and copious notes on the text have been added to this edition, together with a life of the author.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REGULATIONS OF THE
PROTESTANT COMMITTEE.

V.

CONCERNING THE DUTIES OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS AND TRUSTEES.

School Grounds.

119. School sites shall, when possible, be in dry, elevated positions, easily accessible, and provided with good water.

120. School sites shall, when possible, be isolated and so situated that the surroundings will not interfere with the work of the school room nor with the morals of the pupils.

121. School sites shall be as far removed as possible from swamp, or cemetery.

122. The school grounds shall be properly levelled and drained, planted with shade trees and enclosed by a substantial fence. They shall, when possible, not be less than a quarter of an acre in extent. A larger area shall be provided for large schools.

123. Separate closets or privies shall be provided for the sexes. A close fence, at least six feet in height, extending from the closets to the school building, shall separate the approaches to these closets.

124. Proper care shall be taken to secure cleanliness in these closets and to prevent unpleasant and unhealthy odors. The approaches from the school house to the closets shall be so kept that the closets may be reached with comfort in all kinds of weather.

Schoolhouses.

125. The schoolhouse shall, when possible, be placed at least thirty feet from the public highway.

126. When the number of children of school age in a district exceeds seventy-five, the schoolhouse shall contain at least two rooms, when it exceeds one hundred and twenty-five, three rooms, an additional room, at least, being required for each additional fifty children.

127. In each school room the area shall be at least fifteen square feet for each pupil, and the height from floor to ceiling at least ten feet, so as to give at least one hundred and fifty cubic feet of air space per pupil.

128. There shall be ante-rooms or cloak rooms for pupils of both sexes, separate from the school room, warmed and ventilated and supplied with hooks and with shelves for the pupils' luncheon. (The outside door should never open directly into the school room.)

129. The heating apparatus shall be so placed as to give a uniform temperature of sixty-five degrees, determined by a thermometer, in the school room during school hours.

130. The windows of a school room shall be placed on both sides of the school room, or on the left side of the pupils and behind them, but never in front of the pupils. The area of the windows, collectively, shall not be less than one-sixth of the floor surface of the school room. The top of each window shall be carried up as near the ceiling as possible; and the bottom of the side windows shall be at least four feet from the floor of the room and the bottom of the windows behind the pupils, at least six feet from the floor.

131. The windows shall open readily from the top and bottom, and when double windows are used, a ventilator shall be provided at the top and bottom of each double window.

132. There shall be in every school room ample provision for the admission and circulation of pure air and for the escape of impure air.

133. The schoolhouses are to be built in accordance with plans and specifications furnished or approved by the Superintendent.

134. School boards shall see that each schoolhouse is kept in good repair, that the windows are properly filled with glass, and that suitable fuel is provided; that the desks and seats are in good repair, that the schoolhouses are properly provided with doors and kept clean, that the blackboards are kept painted, that there is a supply of good water, and that everything that is necessary for the comfort of the pupils and the success of the school is provided. When a manager is appointed, the school board shall see that he performs his duties in a proper manner.

135. No public schoolhouse or school ground or any building, furniture, or other thing pertaining thereto, shall be used or occupied for any other purpose than for the use or accommodation of the public school of the district, without the express permission of the school board or the chairman thereof, and then only on condition that all damages are made good by the persons obtaining permission, and that the school room is properly cleaned before the time for opening the school.

136. The teacher has charge of the schoolhouse on behalf of the school board. He has no authority to use the schoolhouse other than as directed by them, without their sanction. At the request of the school board he must at once deliver up the key of the school-house to the chairman.

School Furniture and Apparatus.

137. A sufficient number of seats, provided with backs, and desks shall be provided for the accommodation of all the pupils ordinarily in attendance at the school.

138. The seats and desks shall be so arranged that the pupils may sit facing the teacher. Not more than two pupils shall be allowed to sit at one desk.

139. The height of the seats shall be so graduated that all pupils may be seated with their feet firmly upon the floor. (To accommodate pupils of all ages the desks should be of three different sizes.)

140. The seats and desks shall be fastened to the floor in rows with aisles at least eighteen inches in width between the rows; passages, at least three feet wide, shall be left between the outside rows and the side and the rear walls of the room, and a space from three to five feet wide, between the teacher's platform and the front desks.

141. Each desk shall be so placed that its edge will be directly over the edge of the seat behind it. The desk shall be provided with a shelf for pupils' books.

142. There shall be a teacher's desk of convenient form, with lock and key, placed upon a dais or platform, at least six inches in height.

143. There shall be a cupboard, provided with lock and key, for the preservation of school records and apparatus.

144. There shall be a blackboard, at least three feet six inches wide, extending across the whole room in rear of the teacher's desk, with its lower edge not more than two and a half feet above the floor or platform; and, when possible, there shall be an additional blackboard on each side of the room. At the lower edge of each blackboard there shall be a shelf or trough for holding crayons and brushes.

145. There shall be in every school room, a jacketed stove (unless another system of heating is used), a wood-box or coal-bucket, a shovel, a poker, a broom, a water bucket, a drinking cup, a hand bell, a clock, a thermometer, a copy of the school regulations, a copy of the authorized course of study, and an authorized school journal; and in every school a standard dictionary, a visitor's register, a set of tablet lessons of Part I. of the First Reader, a supply of crayons and blackboard brushes, a waste-paper box, a map of North America, a map of Canada and a map of the Province of Quebec.

146. Provision shall be made by every school board for sweeping each school house daily and for scrubbing the floors at least once every two months, and for making fires one hour before the time for opening school when requisite, but it is not the duty of teachers to do this work.

The School Year.

147. All schools shall be closed from the 1st July to the 15th August each year; but any school board may, with the approval of the Superintendent, open one or more of these schools during this period when the circumstances of the school render it necessary.

148. The schools of a municipality shall open each year after the 15th August, and not later than the first Monday in September, as may be determined by resolution of the school board of the municipality.

149. The schools of each municipality shall continue in session each day, except the holidays hereinafter provided, from the date appointed for the opening until the close of the school session. In school municipalities where the school session is less than ten months, the school board may provide by resolution for closing the schools during the breaking up of the roads.

150. The holidays for the Protestant Schools of the Province shall be as follows :

Every Saturday and Sunday: From 24th December to 2nd January inclusive; Good Friday; The Queen's Birthday; Dominion Day; and such days as are proclaimed by authority, or granted by resolution of the school board of the municipality, or by the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

School Hours.

151. The school hours shall be from nine o'clock in the forenoon till four o'clock in the afternoon, unless the school board by resolution prescribes a shorter period.

There shall be a recess of not less than ten minutes each forenoon and afternoon, and a recess of one hour at least shall be allowed for recreation during the middle of the school day.

Engagement of Teachers.

152. Each school board shall engage its teachers for the time, at least, that the schools are to be in operation during the school year, and not for any less period, except to replace a teacher retiring before the end of the school year.

153. Each school board shall appoint a day, and give due notice thereof, upon which they shall meet and receive applications and engage teachers for all the schools of the municipality.

154. In the engagement of teachers, the school board shall consider the special needs and circumstances of the several schools under its control, and shall allot the teachers among these schools so as best to promote the interests of the whole municipality.

155. No school board shall require or permit any teacher under its control to "board around" among the inhabitants of the district.

156. The teachers' engagements for Protestant schools shall be made in accordance with form No. 4.

157. Whenever the average attendance of an elementary school exceeds fifty, a second teacher shall be engaged for that school by the school board.

Religious Instruction.

158. Religious instruction shall be given in all public schools, but no person shall require any pupil in any public school to read or study in or from any religious book, or to join any exercise of devotion or religion, objected to in writing by his or her parents or guardians.

159. Every Protestant school shall be opened each day with the reading of a portion of the Holy Scriptures, followed by the Lord's Prayer.

160. In all grades of Protestant Schools instruction shall be given in Biblical History, and the Holy Scriptures shall for such purposes be used as a text-book, but no denominational teaching shall be given in such schools.

Authorized Text-Books and Forms.

161. Each school board shall select from the authorized books a list of text-books for use in the municipality, naming one book, or one graded set of books, in each subject of the course of study, and shall insist upon their use in the schools of the municipality, to the exclusion of all others. A copy of this list shall be placed in each school of the municipality. (An additional series of reading books may be selected for supplementary reading.)

162. School boards shall provide and use the authorized forms for teachers' engagements, account-books, school journal and school visitors' register in their municipalities.

 FORM No. 1.
Form of Certificate of Moral Character.

This is to certify that we, the undersigned, have personally known, and had opportunity of observing _____ for the _____ last past; that during all such time *his* life and conduct have been without reproach; and we affirm that we believe *him* to be an upright, conscientious, and strictly sober *man*.

(*This certificate must be signed by the minister of the congregation to which the candidate belongs, and by two school commissioners, trustees, or school visitors.*)

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

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FORM No. 3.

Form of Application for Candidates for Teachers' Diplomas.

To the Secretary
Protestant Central Board of Examiners,
Quebec.

SIR,

I, the undersigned
residing at _____ county of _____
have the honor to inform you that I intend to present myself at _____
for _____ for the examination
_____ diploma in July next.

I enclose herewith :—

1. A certificate that I was born at _____
county of _____ in the month of _____ 18 _____
2. A certificate of moral character according to the authorized form
No. 1.

*(This application, with the fee of two (or three) dollars, should be sent to
Rev. Elson I. Rexford, Quebec, not later than the first of June.)*

FORM No. 4.

Form of Teachers' Engagement.

Canada
Province of Quebec. } Municipality of _____

On the _____ day of the month _____ in the year
18 _____, it is mutually agreed and stipulated between the school
of the municipality of _____ in the county of _____
represented by _____ their chairman under resolution of the
said _____ passed on the _____ day of _____ 18 _____,
and _____ teacher holding a _____ diploma for the Pro-
vince of Quebec and residing at _____ as follows:—

The said teacher hereby makes an engagement with the said school
for term of _____ year from the _____ day of _____ 18 _____ to the
_____ day of _____ 18 _____ (unless the diploma of the said teacher
be withdrawn, or any other legal impediment arise) to teach the
_____ school in the district No. _____, according to the school
law and regulations, every day during said term except on holidays pre-
scribed by the Regulations for Protestant Schools.

The said _____ agree to pay to the said teacher the sum of _____
in current money and not otherwise, and neither
the secretary-treasurer nor any person shall alter this method of pay-
ment.

Done at _____ the day and date first above mentioned, and the
parties have signed after hearing the same read.

Chairman of the School

Teacher

EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT.

TABLE—G.

STATEMENT of revenues of pension fund for officers of primary instruction established under the Act 49-50 Vict, chap. 27.

NON-CAPITALIZED REVENUE FOR THE YEAR 1886-87.

Stoppages of two per cent.		
On common school grant	\$3,200 00	
On salaries of professors of Jacques-Cartier Normal School.....	74 75	
On salaries of professors of McGill Normal School.....	209 00	
On salaries of professors of Laval Normal School.....	101 20	
On salaries of school inspectors.....	552 90	
On salaries of teachers in school under control	11,910 11	
On yearly pensions.....	110 20	
Stoppages for the current year paid direct by officers	52 25	
Cheque paid for pensions.....	22 51	
		\$16,232 92

EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1886-87.

Amount paid for pensions.....	5,333 37	
Instalments remitted.....	325 59	
Expenses of administrative commission.....	51 60	
		5,710 56
Balance.....		\$10,522 36

NON-CAPITALIZED REVENUE FOR THE YEAR 1887-88

Stoppages of two per cent.		
On common school grant.....	\$3,200 00	
On superior school grant.....	1,000 00	
On salaries of professors of Jacques-Cartier Normal School.....	82 05	
On salaries of professors of McGill Normal School.....	151 00	
On salaries of professors of Laval Normal School.....	101 20	
On salaries of school inspectors.....	550 05	
On salaries of teachers in schools under control	12,308 10	
On yearly pensions.....	326 91	
Stoppages for the current year paid direct by officers.....	151 08	
Interest to 30th June 1887 on capitalized amount.....	5,770 36	
Grants from government for the years 1886-87 and 1887-88.....	2,000 00	
		25,640 75

EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1887-88.

Amount paid for pensions	17,248 06	
Payments refunded	9 08	
Expenses of the administrative commission....	243 60	
		<u>17,500 74</u>
1887-88. Balance		8,140 01
1886-87. Balance		10,522 36
		<u>\$18,662 37</u>

CAPITALIZED REVENUE.

1886, June 30. Revenue accumulated since 1880 \$115,407 19

CAPITALIZED REVENUE OF THE YEAR 1886-87.

Arrears of stoppages	\$26,347 93	
Reductions on pensions	2,268 94	
		<u>\$28,616 87</u>
Less payments refunded	1,648 41	
		<u>\$ 26,968 45</u>

1887, June 30. Revenue capitalized to date.... \$142,375 64

CAPITALIZED REVENUE OF THE YEAR 1887-88.

Arrear of stoppages	523 86	
Reductions on pensions	6,986 10	
		<u>\$7,509 96</u>
Less payments refunded	838 65	
		<u>\$ 6,671 31</u>

1888, June 30. Revenue capitalized to date.... \$149,046 95

N. B.—The revenue of the year 1886-87, is different from that mentioned last year in the report of the Superintendent, because, in the first place, the administrative commission of the pension fund has since decided that the stoppages on salaries and grants from the 1st July to the 31st December 1886, which had been deposited to the credit of capital account, should have been placed to the credit of revenue; in the second place because the grant and interest due on the 30th June 1887, which were counted in for the year 1886-87, were paid only in the month of February 1888, and should be placed to the credit of the revenue account for the year 1887-88.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

Arrangements have been made to hold four institutes during the second and third weeks in July next, at the following places: Lennoxville, Granby, Shawville and Huntingdon. Full particulars concerning programmes, etc., will be given in the April RECORD.

The answer to the institutes questions are now being examined and the results will be given in our next number.

NOTICES FROM THE OFFICIAL GAZETTE.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by an Order-in-Council, of the 31st January, 1888, to appoint two school commissioners for the mun. of St. Elie, Co. St. Maurice, and one for the mun. of St. Edmond du Lac au Saumon, Co. Rimouski.

4th February. To annex to the school mun. of Ely North, in the Co. of Shefford, the lots Nos. 24, 25, 26, 27 and 28 of the 11th range of Ely North, actually forming part of the school mun. of the township of Roxton, in the same county.

9th February. To appoint a school commissioner for the mun. of Ste. Marie, Co. Beauce, also one for the mun. of Garthby, Co. Wolfe.

To define the limits of the school municipality of "Stoneham," in the county of Quebec, as follows, to wit:

"The municipality of "Stoneham," in the county of Quebec, comprises all the territory lying between the following lots, to wit: between numbers 1 to 26 called "Trinité du Grand Fré," rang de la Reine, these two lots included, between the lots Nos. 27 to 52, both lots included, in the north east concession of the "domaine Saint Pierre," between the lots Nos. 92, 70 et 95, in the fiefs "Lepinay" and "d'Orsainville" these lots included, all those lots known and described on the cadastre and the official plan for the parish of Saint Edmond de "Stoneham," in the said county.

15th February. To detach certain lots from the mun. of St. Donat, Co. Rimouski, and to annex them to the mun. of St. Joseph de Lepage, in the same county, for school purposes.

To detach from the school municipality of "Wendover and Simpson," in the county of Drummond, the south-west half of the lots Nos. 1 and 2 of the first range of the township of Wendover and the south-west half of the lots Nos. 1, 2 and 3 of the first range of the township of Simpson, in the same county, moreover to detach from the school municipality of the township of Grantham, in the said county of Drummond, the lots Nos. 1 and 2 of the 2nd range of the township of Grantham, and to annex them for school purposes, to the town of Drummondville, in the aforesaid county.

9th February. To order that the school mun. composed of the townships of Salaberry and Grandison, Co. Terrebonne, erected September 2nd, 1880, be known under the name of St. Jovite, without, however, declaring illegal the spelling heretofore given to the mun.

21st February. To appoint five school commissioners for the new municipality of St. Marcel, Co. P'Islet.