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TORONTO, SEPTEMBER 2, 1886.

For an example of a fair and unprejudiced opinion on the question of university federation we commend the following remarks of the *Montreal Witness*.—

"The University question has been unexpectedly revived by two articles in the *Canadian Methodist Magazine* for August. Dr. Sutherland, the champion of the *status quo*, and the editor of the *Magazine*, not improbably aided by Dr. Dewart, are the antagonists. There is no new argument on either side, but on each the case is presented with much skill. I have had occasion to note apparent fluctuations in public, and especially Methodist public feeling on this question, and it is my duty now to record that, whether with good reason or not, the party who favour federation feel much more confident of carrying the general conference than they did a few months ago. They take considerable comfort out of the speech made by Mr. Blake, as Chancellor of Toronto University, at the annual commencement of that institution. The assurance of good faith which he publicly gave them goes far towards quieting the fears of those who were troubled with suspicion, and his declaration in favour of abolishing Upper Canada College is taken as an indication that the money required for carrying out

the scheme of confederation can be obtained by a re-appropriation of the college endowment and the proceeds of its site. The federationists also build to some extent on the fact that the delegates to the General Conference from other Provinces, and especially from the Maritime Provinces, will probably take a business-like rather than a sentimental view of the situation. Much will depend on Toronto herself. If a liberal fund were offered by the Methodists of this city, federation would be placed beyond doubt at once. On the other hand, if a liberal offer is made by Hamilton it is possible that Victoria may be transplanted to that city. In either case the cause of higher education is pretty sure to receive a strong impetus from the discussion and resolutions of the Conference."

From a paper on "Physical Training," by Supt. W. J. Ballard, Jamaica, N.Y., we take the following:—

One great object of physical exercise is to call into vigorous action the organs of circulation and respiration. For they need strengthening and developing as truly as any. They may, perhaps, be quite able to do all that their owner will ever voluntarily call upon them to do, but the weakest as well as the strongest are sure to be called upon some day for extreme exertion. Then will come disaster. The heart and lungs start out bravely enough, but they cannot keep it up. There is a collapse—the person breaks down.

We think we are sick. We like to say we are nervous, or bilious, or that we have the malaria, instead of being honest about it and admitting that we have been too lazy to take half enough exercise, which in nine cases out of ten is really the case.

If, when feelings of weariness, and feebleness, and all-goneness come on, we would, instead of a blue pill or two, or a dozen or two of quinine pills, or unlimited doses of awful salts, take up some exercise that will call into vigorous action the muscles, and so call into healthy action the heart and lungs, we would soon find that we might throw physic to the dogs.

Bear in mind, though, that it is vigorous exercise that is needed. If you think that to walk a mile in the orthodox, leisurely way, will do you any good worth speaking about, you quite mistake. To accomplish any good result, you must walk about as rapidly as your strength will permit. But bear in mind, too, that walking is not the best of exercises. It is a good one. Nor can it take the place of all other exercises. It is not all around enough, it is too one-sided—or, rather, too one-ended. It is good as far as it goes, but it doesn't go far enough. It does one good thing, it takes one into the open air, as does boating, cycling, and lawn tennis. Yet even each of these is incomplete, each develops one set of muscles at the expense of some other set.

In addition to the complete set of body movements, put up a horizontal bar, pull yourself up until you can rest your chin on the bar. Try vaulting, it is excellent exercise. Put up a trapeze so that you can just reach it, then swing, it is capital fun, and capital exercise, and one that you can hardly take too much of. Lie flat on the floor, fold your arms and rise to your feet without any twisting about if you can, and keep at it until you can. Walk rapidly, take the luxury of a run, there is no better exercise than running.

But perhaps you will ask: "What has all this to do with children? Let them alone, they will get exercise enough." But you won't let them alone. Let the little ones play according to their own sweet wills, give them plenty of good food and pure air, and they will take care of themselves, and if you wish a good course in gymnastics just watch the natural sports of children, they are ever on the run, and a little girl can run just as fast and just as far as a little boy, and running is the king of exercises. What boy is happy till he has been to the top of the highest tree, to the top of the barn, and has looked down the chimney of the house? And a little girl can climb just as high and just as fearlessly as her brother, until her mother tells her that it isn't proper.

Contemporary Thought.

A FALLACIOUS notion has somewhere crept in that an *intellectual* man must be below par *physically*, and that the one faculty is necessarily cultivated at the expense of the other. The old proverb, *mens sana in corpore sano*, has been flouted as an absurdity. So much, very briefly, for the first cause of race-degeneration; the second, and the one to which this paper would direct attention, is the influence of hereditary diseases. This factor has never received the attention it should have had at the hands of the writers on social science. The races of which we have been speaking had little of this element to contend with. The weaklings were either deliberately exposed and left to die, as in the case of the Spartans, or if they attained maturity they were held in such low esteem that they willingly kept in the background. Look for a moment at our modern civilization, and mark its diametrically opposite tendency. Every day hospitals are being erected to nurture the diseased and imperfect specimens of our race, and every year thousands of children are by skill and care saved from the death to which Nature would consign them. All this accords with our enlarged notions of humanity, and reflects great credit on the zeal of the philanthropist and the science of the physician, but it exerts a baneful effect on the race. To one who has had access to any large city hospitals, it is a pitiful sight to see the multitude of children who are tidied over a few years, and sent out into the world branded with an hereditary taint, to propagate their wretched breeds. The limits of this paper will not allow any extended statistics, nor the nature of it warrant a special discussion of hereditary diseases, but there are two whose effects are apparent to all, consumption and insanity. The former, consumption, using the term in its widest sense, has for ages produced the most frightful ravages. For example, in England, from 1837 to 1841, of the total number of deaths from all causes sixteen per cent. were from consumption. In Philadelphia, from 1830 to 1849, the death-rate was one of consumption to six and a half from all other cause, or about fifteen per cent.—*Dr. George J. Preston, in Popular Science Monthly for September.*

To the thoughtful woman the question recurs again and again, What can be done with the purposeless, untrained women willing to work for wages but unable to spend time and money in a doubtful attempt to fit themselves for a particular occupation? A woman's exchange is chiefly a storehouse for undesirable articles, a few of which are bought in pity. It is a device of those who are earnestly seeking to help their fellow-women, and not a natural outgrowth of the law of supply and demand. The training school begins at the foundation; it fits a girl to hold her own, asking no favours. A woman's duty begins with the woman nearest to her by ties of blood and affection, and stretches out to those accounted *less fortunate* than herself; but it does not end there. There are women far above her in the scale of wealth, perhaps, who need a wider outlook and broader sympathies; who need to be drawn out of themselves and their exclusiveness, who need to be interested in the great, busy, struggling world outside of their own circle, and to feel that upon them rests, in

part, the responsibility of making it better and purer. In some ways they are more restricted than the woman who sews for them. The wife of a teamster, if she have the time, can take up any remunerative employment, and her friends neither question nor repudiate her. The wife of a millionaire, possessed of unlimited leisure, must be idle. For "he also is idle who might be better employed." If she can endure the epithet of "peculiar" she may give her life to the investigation and improvement of tenement houses or devote herself to a particular line of study; otherwise her work for her fellow-men and women will be confined to charity balls and fashionable bazaars. To do aught which would bring her a return in money is not to be thought of for an instant. And from the wife and daughter of the millionaire to the girl who starves behind a counter rather than go into a comfortable kitchen, the same power is at work. Alas! how weak we are! Women may say that all honest work is ennobling, and all voluntary idleness belittling, and that, in comparison with the woman who never lifts a finger to serve another, nor has a thought above her own adornment and her social conquests, the woman who does the work of her kitchen if she do it well, is worthy of all the honour; but the conviction has not yet become a part of them.—*Ella C. Lapham in the Forum.*

THE death of Paul Hamilton Hayne, the lyric poet of the South, at his home, Copse Hill, Ga., the 7th ult., removes from the republic of letters an ornament and exemplar. His death will be lamented throughout the country, but among his own people of the South, whose affections he won in camp and field as well as in his study, his departure will be especially mourned. He was born January 1st, 1831, at Charleston, S. C. He was educated at Charleston College, from which he graduated in his 20th year. He immediately prepared himself for the profession of the law, and was admitted to practice at the bar, but having a taste and desire for literary work, and being in financial circumstances that would permit him to enjoy and prosecute his chosen labours, he abandoned the law and entered the literary field with the zeal and inspiration that characterized his continued and successful efforts. He laboured in both prose and verse, and the third year of his efforts resulted in the production of his first volume of poems. This was favourably received, and added to the reputation he had gained as editor of different Southern periodicals. In 1857 his second volume appeared, and his third in 1860. At the commencement of the Civil War he laid down his pen and took up the sword in support of the Confederate cause, losing none of the courage and enthusiasm that attended his literary work. He occupied a position on Governor Pickens' staff, but his military duties and the exposure of army life soon wrecked his delicate physical organization, and he again took up his pen, supporting with song the cause he was unable to defend with the sword. At the close of the war he found himself without means and dependent upon his literary efforts for subsistence. These he pursued with a wrecked fortune and health, showing an ardour abated only by his declining strength. The work accomplished in his late years was extensive, and embraced almost the full scope of letters. He

reviewed publications for several journals, and contributed largely to the Southern press and many of the leading periodicals of the country. His war songs, stately, as an army and warm as his Southern heart, have an abiding place in the Southern home, while his lyrics descriptive of nature and the beauties in harmony with which his heart was attuned, are universally admired, and will live as long as there are hearts to love the true, the beautiful and the good.—*The Current.*

FROM earliest times there have been teachers and students; from earliest times great-minded men have given themselves to the work of education. We see throughout Europe ancient seats of learning cared for by governments and reverently regarded. More than this, during the past two, even three centuries, enthusiastic efforts have been made to found education upon its true bases. Most fitting opportunities were granted to men who thought they had the science of the matter; experiment after experiment was tried; and yet to-day we find ourselves in the very thick of the conflict, on the threshold of great changes, and apparently no nearer the education-science. Naturally the question arises, Why is this so? as naturally as also the further question, What have we to expect? These inquiries are vitally related, and the answer to the second follows from the answer to the first. Past endeavours have not given us a science of education because, from the nature of the case, education is the last subject that can become a science. Who is it whom we seek to educate? Man. What is man? Evidently if we are to educate man upon scientific methods we must know what man is; we must know the laws of his being, the relation of these laws to one another, and to the end for which man is made. The science of education, therefore, presupposes a true psychology, and a knowledge of the formation of character based upon this psychology. In our country so-called educational treatises are written by persons who have neither psychology nor minds to comprehend it; and, while these works may have much valuable practical matter, they should not be received as in any sense scientific. With one exception ("Education," by Herbert Spencer) the only works which may claim to pretend to treat education scientifically are German, and every one of these bases itself directly upon some psychological system. I need but name in illustration A. H. Niemeyer's "Ground Principles of Education," Fred Schwarz's "Instruction-Book of Pädagogik," as coming directly out of the Kantian thought, or Miss Anna C. Brackett's translation of "The Philosophy of Education," by Professor Rosenkranz, the biographer of Hegel, as an application of Hegelian thought to education. We of to-day are feeling the influence of an entirely different philosophical system from either of those above mentioned. Our educational methods are being remarkably and rapidly modified. This change has received its psychological expression in England, and Mr. Spencer may be regarded as the representative thinker of this new school. Here the idea of man as to his nature and the laws of his development is distinct and peculiar; it gives us an education based almost entirely upon instruction in the physical sciences.—*From "Some Outlines from the History of Education," by Prof. W. R. Benedict, in Popular Science Monthly for September.*

Notes and Comments.

WE must remind "Extra" of our rule which excludes all contributions unaccompanied by the name of the writer.

WE devote a large amount of space in this issue to two papers read before the Ontario Teachers' Association: to Mr. George Dickson's "The Ontario College of Preceptors," and Mr. D. C. McHenry's "Prizes and Scholarships."

"EX-PRESIDENT PORTER on Evolution" is the title of the opening article in the forthcoming September number of *The Popular Science Monthly*. It is by Mr. W. D. Le Sueur, already well known as an able writer on the relations of theology and evolution, and is an outspoken review, as entertaining as it is effective, of Dr. Porter's recent address before the Nineteenth Century Club.

A DELEGATION sent from Edinburgh by the Council of the Trades Unions of that city has recently been engaged in inspecting the Canadian Section of the Colonial Exhibition. Two of the delegates spent some time last week in gathering information as to the progress of printing and bookbinding in Canada, and expressed great surprise at the degree of perfection shown by the Canadian exhibits of this class.

"If a girl comes to my school for admission," says Col. Parker, an educational authority in the United States, "and she has had good experience in cooking a meal of victuals and over the washtub, but only has passed through a grammar school, I would sooner admit her than a girl who has passed through the high school, but has no kitchen experience. You have heard the great question: 'Is life worth living?' and the answer: 'That depends on the liver, and the liver depends upon the cooking.' I wouldn't give a picayune for the education that wouldn't make a girl go home and help her mother in the housekeeping."

A DESCRIPTIVE catalogue has just been issued to the collection of the economic minerals displayed in the Canadian Section of the Exhibition. In itself the catalogue is an exhaustive treatise upon the exhibits, while the many notes it contains upon minerals and rocks of purely scientific interest make it of more than temporary interest. The name and address of the exhibitor of each specimen is throughout the catalogue placed opposite the name of the place from which the specimen was obtained, and in many cases the geological formation in which the exhibit occurs is also stated. Under each heading the subordinate arrangement is geographical, the exhibits being enumerated as nearly as possible in order from west to east. The Philadelphia and Paris catalogues have obviously and properly been made use of as far as possible in the present

publication. Yet its compilation must have entailed considerable work upon the Geological Corps, of which Dr. Selwyn is director, and, though its appearance is somewhat late in the day, it may be expected to supplement the exhibits in a most beneficial way.

THE importance of the applications of arithmetic to business pursuits will always insure its cultivation; but it is worthy of profound study, as a science. The properties and relations of numbers are remarkably curious and interesting, and the diligent student will be well repaid for the labour he may bestow on this science. According to Josephus, Abraham was the inventor of arithmetic, and by him a knowledge of the science was communicated to the Egyptians. The art of calculation, however, at least in its rudimental form must have been coeval with the first stages of civilization. The origin of arithmetic is not, therefore, to be referred to one individual, or to one nation: for indispensable as it is to business, it must have been understood, to some extent at least, by the earliest civilized races. Both Thales and Pythagoras cultivated arithmetic with great success. According to the Platonists, arithmetic should be studied, not with gross and vulgar views, but in such a manner as might enable us to attain to the contemplation of numbers, not for the purpose of dealing with traders, but for the improvement of the mind, considering it as the path which leads to the knowledge of the truth and reality.

THERE are few who adequately realize the vastness of the British dominion in the East. The total population is about 250,000,000, of which at least about 180,000,000 are under the direct government of the Crown, while the remainder nominally under independent sovereigns, are yet practically under British control. A traveller arriving at Kurrachi, the proposed terminus of the mail route by sea or land from Europe, would take four days, travelling by railway at an average speed of twenty miles a hour, day and night, to reach Calcutta. The railway journey now from Bombay to Calcutta occupies two days and three nights. The use of the English language is rapidly increasing all over India. The matriculation examination of the Indian universities is in English, so that every candidate must be able to read that language, and thousands of young men every year appear at these examinations. It is becoming the *lingua franca* of the educated class all over the country, and it must be used more and more in schools, colleges, courts of justice, and all public affairs, so as to be the supreme tongue, to which all the native languages and dialects must be secondary. So far as the press is concerned the demand for English books will be enormous at no distant period.—*Leisure Hour*.

IN our issue of the 12th of August a correspondent signing himself "Peterborough," wrote to us as follows:—

"SIR,—As many teachers and pupils appear to be ignorant as to whom and on what principles the Governor-General's medal is awarded I should be much obliged if you would publish in your valuable paper all the information concerning it that may be interesting to them and the public at large."

We have found it somewhat difficult to obtain definite information on this point. The Department of Education for Ontario has referred us to Ottawa, and we now wait a reply from the chief clerk of the Governor-General's office. In the meantime our readers must be satisfied with the following information kindly sent to us by one who has had much to do with the awarding of these medals:—

When Lord Dufferin was here as Governor-General he began bestowing medals on the colleges—one silver and one bronze to each, I am not sure as to whether or not Upper Canada College was then in receipt of them; perhaps it was. But I am sure the collegiate institutes were not, and he himself offered to the Collegiate Institute at Galt two, a silver and bronze, to be distributed without reference to the Department. These were bestowed for general proficiency to the matriculants at Toronto University. His intention was then that they should be awarded to pupils seeking collegiate honours. My impression is that the Department had nothing to do with them, but the authorities of the local school. When the other institutes saw that Galt had got them they too made application and got them.

(Later.)

We have received the following from headquarters:—

GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
OTTAWA, 25th Aug., 1886.

SIR,—I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 23rd inst., in which you request me to supply you with information as to the principle upon which the medals granted by the Governor-General to the educational institutions of the Dominion are awarded.

In reply I beg to say that it will be necessary before answering your question to obtain the sanction of Lord Lansdowne, who is at present in England, to that course.

Upon His Excellency's return your letter will at once be laid before him, and you will receive a further communication on this subject.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

CHAS. J. JONES.

T. A. HAULTAIN, ESQ., M.A., Toronto.

Special Papers.

PRIZES AND SCHOLARSHIPS.

(Read before the Ontario Teachers' Association.)

A RETROSPECT over the history of our educational methods shows that decided progress has been made. This progress, however, has not been uniform and continuous, but is made up of a succession of lines, much like those of a vessel tacking against the wind—generally onward, but in its progress often going from one extreme to the other.

Those of you who have spent many years in teaching can recall numerous changes that are nothing but a series of contrasts. To younger teachers also the past decade furnishes not a few such changes in the laws, theories, and practices of our educational work.

That which strikes one as singular is the fact that each novelty has been fairly popular in its turn, almost on its introduction. Indeed, the greater the contrast the more readily has it appeared to meet with popular approval.

Such, for example, were the changes from the operation of our educational system largely through local centres of authority, to the general control of the system from one central office; from the general superintendency to the present ministerial *regime*; from the payment to high schools on the basis of attendance only to payment by results; from payment by results to payment according to local liberality; from the special fostering of classical teaching in high schools to the reign of mathematics; from the so-called mathematical craze to a corresponding specializing in English; and so on through the erratic line which we are expected to recognize as the path of substantial progress.

It would seem, indeed, that legislative enactments and departmental regulations have had much to do in making and unmaking our opinions, instead of our having statutes and regulations as the outcome of opinion prevalent among those who are more directly experienced in educational matters.

To the changes enumerated may be added the remarkable change in public and professional sentiment on the subject of prizes. For many years the Educational Department regularly encouraged the practice of distributing prizes. To-day, if I mistake not, its influence lies in an exactly opposite direction. As for teachers, the entire abolition of prizes now appears to be the proper thing. In our universities the tendency is clearly in the same direction. This, moreover, is undoubtedly the popular view of the question.

If I prove not indifferent to traditional custom, I shall dispose of the question by simply tossing it aside with the remark that

it is virtually settled, and must take its predestined course, until the pendulum takes a swing to the opposite extreme.

This easy method, however, is hardly satisfactory. The emphatic and even impatient utterances of some writers and speakers on this subject—while in harmony with a prevalent spirit of change—may and probably do reflect current opinion; but I am sure that in some cases there has not been a full and impartial investigation of the principles that underlie the question.

In fact it is largely a question of *motives*, and such considerations bring us as teachers into the realm of our deepest problems.

The principles that govern the giving of prizes are not easily distinguishable from those motives that lie beneath our most praiseworthy efforts to excel in the various callings of life.

If we exercise a little patience, I think we shall find that the question is fairly debateable, and also that it will ultimately resolve itself into that of *the preponderance of resulting good or evil*. Herein I hope we may find a practical issue.

1. Let us first examine the reasons usually assigned for giving prizes and scholarships, and ascertain, if possible, how far the intended objects are realized.

(a) *In order to attract students.* This evidently accounts for the major part of our university prizes, scholarships, and medals. It is no secret that our arts colleges are as eagerly competing for numbers as the most enterprising of our medical schools or Collegiate Institutes. The quiet dignity of the competition does not diminish its keenness, nor is the real object of these pecuniary attractions concealed beneath the bland expressions we hear on convocation days as to the heroic struggles of medallists, and the congratulations bestowed in distributing scholarships among the needy sons of wealthy parents who generally receive them.

We must have colleges, and colleges must have students, even if they have to be bribed to attend by displaying long lists of cash prizes. As a rule these inducements are carefully placed at or near the entrance, in the hope that if students thirsting for knowledge can once be enrolled and kept for a year, the charms of an institution so generous will not fail to hold them till graduation.

The same remarks apply generally to all schools that add to the educational advantages they offer these pecuniary inducements. I say they apply generally. It would be too much to say that every educational institution that offers prizes does so merely or mainly to attract students; for prizes are offered in some schools that are crowded with students without an effort being made to swell their numbers. We shall find elsewhere the reasons that operate here. Our universities, however, will hardly deny that the main reason they

have for offering prizes of various kinds is to attract students to their halls.

The amount thus expended is very large, as may be seen by collating from college calendars the lists of cash prizes.

I understand that during the past ten or twelve years Toronto University has spent on an average over \$4,000 a year out of public funds. To this must be added private scholarships amounting to about \$600 a year. The Senate, moreover, has decided to increase this amount by placing at matriculation five additional scholarships.

Trinity College spends annually \$2,000 in prizes and scholarships, \$500 of which is placed at matriculation.

Victoria spends annually about \$500 in prizes, scholarships, and medals.

Queen's spends \$1,000 a year in prizes for arts students, to which may be added \$930 offered to theological students, and \$240 to medical students—about \$2,100 in all.

McGill College offers prizes, medals, and scholarships, of the annual value of over \$4,000.

Dalhousie College, Halifax, offers prizes of the annual value of nearly \$7,000.

From these six arts colleges we have an annual expenditure of over \$20,000, representing an invested capital of more than \$300,000.

To this we may add the large sum spent for this purpose by our theological colleges, ladies' colleges, medical schools, not already named, private schools, public schools, and high schools. The annual expenditure may safely be put at \$35,000, representing a capital of over half a million dollars.

In the United States the annual expenditure in 370 colleges and universities for scholarships alone is over \$100,000. Add to this the money spent for this purpose in their other educational institutions, and we shall have an annual outlay of probably \$150,000 a year, representing a capital of *over two and a half millions*.

Now, if my supposition is correct, that these prizes are offered mainly to attract and retain students, we are in a position to estimate approximately what it costs to induce the youth of our continent to accept the blessings of a good education.

It is important, in reference to this matter, to inquire whether this great attracting force really does attract—whether by this means students are induced to attend our institutions of learning; if so, what class of students are reached, and also whether a sufficient number of students worth educating might not be secured by a process more rational and less expensive. We may profitably consider, besides, what other use might be made of the capital thus invested.

Perhaps the best test of the attracting power of scholarships and prizes can be made by asking each teacher that prepares students for college, or for other examinations where

prizes are offered, to estimate for himself the effect of such inducements.

I think that the united testimony of these teachers will be, that with many students the question of winning scholarships at matriculation is one of supreme importance—in some cases determining the college selected, and even the course of study to be pursued.

The practice of annually displaying long lists of scholarships and prizes would hardly be kept up unless it were found to be effectual.

The amount thus offered by some of our colleges is ridiculously large for the number of matriculating students.

Trinity College, for example, with ten or twelve arts matriculants offers \$500.

McGill with thirty arts matriculants offers them about \$500 in cash scholarships; and of the 110 free tuition scholarships, at \$20 each, a large number are given in the first year.

Dalhousie last year offered to twenty-one arts matriculants the sum of \$2,500. This was distributed to these fortunate young gentlemen in the form of five exhibitions, of \$200 each; and ten bursaries, of \$150 each—each prize tenable for two years. That is, at the end of their second year five of this class will have received \$400, and ten of them \$300 each in cash. If any one can persuade himself that Dalhousie does not offer a warm welcome to matriculants, he must be strangely insensible to the charms such bursaries would have for the average student.

To take an example from American universities, the Johns Hopkins University offers the enormous sum of \$20,000 annually, on competitive examinations alone.

In view of such facts, it is hard to see how certain colleges could fail to be popular in this money-loving age.

If it can be shown that the students who must be attracted by these prizes could be reached in no other way, and that they are worth the effort made to obtain them, possibly the outlay may be justifiable. In my opinion, however, the material thus drawn into our colleges is not of a superior kind, in some cases consisting of students that could be secured by nothing less than money, and who hardly pay for the four years' coddling they receive.

What high school headmaster has not received letters from such persons, inquiring what inducements we were offering for intending students? After entering a high school or collegiate institute, their chief concern is to get the most they can for the least money. This mercenary spirit controls them in their course through the high school, guides them as they proceed to the university, and is an actuating principle until at graduation they receive the final instalment in cash or an equivalent, and go forth to swell the ranks of the mercenary and venal.

That such instances are to be found is perfectly certain; that they are not more gen-

eral is to be attributed to the limited resources of colleges for offering scholarships.

If one may judge from recent action in the Provincial University, these attractions would be multiplied if the funds were available.

What would be the effect if throughout our country all these scholarships were to be withdrawn to-morrow? I think that among other good results the following would appear:—

1. These students who are attracted mainly by prizes and scholarships would soon be missing.

2. Our colleges would have about all the really good students they have at present.

3. The colleges, thus left without pecuniary attractions, would so improve in educational attractions as to fill their classes with students who would do credit to the universities and to their country.

Take for example the \$20,000 annually expended in Toronto, Trinity, Victoria, Queen's, McGill, and Dalhousie, and with it either establish an additional chair in each college or increase its material equipment. To the true student every one of these colleges would soon present irresistible attractions.

Assuming, then, that this first reason for the prize-system is the principal one, I submit that the funds are misapplied; that the practice not only fails to attract the talent we need, but that by creating a false ambition and encouraging mercenary motives, it actually tends to attract an inferior class of students. To this add the fact that, by a proper use of the funds the best class of students might be attracted, and this, too, through the constant upbuilding and permanent improvement of our colleges.

(b) The second reason assigned is that many *poor students are thus encouraged to attend college*, who would otherwise be debarred from the privilege. Let us examine this question. The desire to aid poor but deserving students is certainly a laudable one; but if the distribution of funds contributed for charitable purposes, say in Toronto, were surrounded with the doubt and uncertainty connected with the appropriation of this money to poor students, I fear that the distribution of funds to the city poor would soon be looked upon with distrust and suspicion. Contributors unable to trace contributions to the objects of charity, would cease to give, and the system fail from want of confidence.

In the first place I do not believe that poor students as a rule win and receive the scholarships or any fair proportion of them. And in the second place, I contend that there is a much better way of aiding such students as do receive assistance.

If I am credibly informed, not more than ten per cent of the scholarships awarded at Toronto University go to students who can

be considered poor. This very year two of the leading scholarships are won by a son of one of our merchant princes. In the very nature of the case we should expect no other result. The scholarships are awarded on competitive examinations. To succeed at these long, and in many cases expensive training is required—just that kind of preparation which the sons of the wealthy can and do receive when they are reading for honours. An inspection of the prize-lists will show that these prizes, which are distributed without reference to the circumstances of students—solely on the marks obtained—are generally received by men whose securing a college education does not depend on their winning scholarships. The object in view, in other words, is not attained.

But admitting that some needy students are thus aided; is there not a more rational method of determining the distribution? In many cases it is not general diligence nor the struggles of poor students, but genius that is rewarded.

I should prefer that some method be adopted for affording aid to needy students, which would be independent of all competitive examinations on entering college. I think the beneficiary aid thus given and received should be on the ground of *moral worth, existing need and reputable scholarship*. It should also be given privately, the transaction being made known to none but the college president (or a select committee) and the student. Such assistance should be withdrawn from students who incur serious college censure or who fail to maintain good studentship.

The sum of \$12,000 is thus quietly distributed every year at Yale College, \$9,500 at Boston University. Students needing aid are required to interview the college president before a certain day in the college year, and fully satisfy him on all conditions laid down. They are then quietly enrolled for beneficiary aid and proceed with their studies without publicity and loss of self-respect.

Surely, if needy students are to be aided, it should be in some such way as this. It has the merit of *directness*. Every dollar intended for needy students goes to needy students—not to the sons of the wealthy. It has the merit of *fairness*—the aid being given on the ground of real worth together with respectable ability—not on the doubtful chances of a competitive examination. It has the merit of *testing the real intentions of the donors*. The charitable element of the present method is hardly separable from that of unseemly competition between students and colleges. By the method proposed it will be seen to what extent these friends of needy students really wish to help them. It also has the merit of *economy*. At present \$20,000 a year is paid out simply on the reports of examiners. The most undeserving rascal in the class may take the highest

prize if he scores the highest number of marks, while the honest, hard working student of limited advantage and lower marks receives nothing. The cash, however, is spent—as a rule all spent. By the method I propose only so much would be used as was actually needed by deserving applicants. Probably one half the money now spent in scholarships might be saved for other purposes.

Again, if students are attracted to college, and are thereby benefited; or if certain needy students have been enabled, through scholarships received, to gain a college education otherwise unobtainable—if these benefits are really conferred, who would be most likely to know it and gratefully acknowledge the fact? Certainly the students themselves. But what do we find? At a meeting of the students of Toronto University last March the following among other resolutions was passed:

"That whereas, in the opinion of the undergraduates, medals and scholarships are detrimental to the true interests of education; and whereas contrary to the expressed wishes of the undergraduates, scholarships and medals have been restored by the College Council; and whereas the library is not equipped so as to afford the students all the advantages such an institution should confer: and whereas there is the greatest necessity for the appointment of a lecturer in political economy; therefore the undergraduates protest against the restoration of medals and scholarships, and also against the action of college officials in soliciting contributions for such purpose, thus diverting public benefactions from more worthy objects."

Evidently the supposed benefits are not such in reality, or they are very ungratefully received. In either case the money here expended should be used where the recipients would not protest against its appropriation.

The college paper, also, strongly condemns the present system. The policy of forcing upon students the acceptance of a large sum of public money, annually received under protest, is certainly very questionable.

We are compelled to conclude that this expenditure, in the face of such general expressions of disapproval on the part of the supposed beneficiaries, must be kept up, if it be continued, for some purpose other than that of directly aiding students.

(c) The only other general reason for giving prizes, to which I shall refer, is that they serve as an incentive to study—a reward for success.

This opens up a wide field of unsettled controversy, and in the time allotted to this paper I can merely touch the leading points.

Incentive to study is unquestionably one of the mainsprings of successful teaching. Something proper to do and a motive for doing it, one of the surest ways of securing ways of securing attention and interest in study. Incentives to mental effort may be good or they may be bad; they may induce healthy action, or they may lead to injurious

results. So with rewards for success: they may prove a benefit or an injury, according to circumstances. We cannot, therefore, either wholly approve or condemn the giving of prizes as incentives or rewards. Incentives we must have; a motiveless pupil cannot be educated.

As suggested in my opening remarks, the question turns largely on the preponderance of good or evil resulting, on the whole, from the practice of giving prizes.

The good effect should be apparent both in the individual student and also in the institution. It is usually claimed for the student (a) that he is spurred to greater diligence in his studies when working for a prize; (b) that the emulation thus created among students is supposed to fit them for the struggles they will meet in after life,

t. I admit that these results are to some extent realized; but my first objection is, that whatever benefits arise from the prize-system reach a very small proportion of students. As a rule, those who win prizes are students who least need this spurring, while those who do need it fail to enter the race. I shall not wait to prove this. Every experienced teacher knows that it is the case. The coming prize-man in the high school and university classes are very soon known, and the others settle down into the quiet resignation of interested spectators. So in college. The coming medallists are singled out early in the course and the spurring and emulation are limited to three or four in each class. It not unfrequently occurs that for the last year or two there are only two competitors for the two medals. This is a very serious objection, and to my mind is sufficient to warrant a radical change in the system. For the non-competing majority the prize-system is injurious rather than otherwise. They soon realize that it is a test of early advantages and a trial of present strength, rather than a means of encouraging diligence in study or rewarding students for relative improvement. Feeling that there is no room for the weak, they gradually accept their doom, and often settle down into utter indifference. In such students we not unfrequently find an utter deadness to the best form of educating influence—the most unpromising material on which a teacher may be called to work. The dazzling success of the few too often blind us to the wants of the many; and almost unconsciously we are turning our schools into the training ground of a few students intellectually strong, to the neglect of many students whose comparative weakness deserves our special attention.

Prizes, therefore, as at present used, when intended as an incentive to diligence, fail to accomplish their purpose. Like giving scholarships in order to aid needy students, they miscarry—all short of their intended object, and should be abandoned for something more generally beneficial.

2. But even supposing every student to be reached by the incentive of prizes, I should still question the wisdom of the practice. The motives thus offered are not the best; indeed they are unworthy the high aims of devoted teachers and tend to lessen the self-respect of students. In the race for prizes, teachers catch the spirit of the contest, and soon become little more than professional trainers for the final trial of strength. I doubt if either teacher or students, under these circumstances, can quietly enter the realms of higher thought. Our schools and colleges ought to be depositories of generous and noble ideals. The highest forms of success should be aimed at, and appropriate motives appealed to in order to its attainment.

The ideal set before prize-winners is not the best. The material nature of the contest is not truly elevating. Our students will find enough materialism when they leave school and college. Our civilization is full of temptations to low material success, attained only by aiming at low and material standards of life.

The satisfaction of winning scholarships is not unalloyed. Paying one's fair share for educational benefits received ought to be the privilege of the poor as well as the duty of the rich; and the high-minded sons of humble parentage cannot rid themselves of this thought on receiving scholarships, even though conscious of having won them fairly. At its best, a cash prize comes to such a man as an awkward kindness and any material reward as a questionable compliment. The inconveniences of poverty are not more prejudicial to intellectual pursuits than the spirit engendered in exciting contests for cash prizes. Observe, I do not say that needy students ought not to be assisted, but that scholarships obtained in competitive examinations are not the best form in which such assistance can be given.

Emulation is a natural principle and plays an important part among the secondary motives that actuate us in our most laudable pursuits. Our duty as teachers is not to ignore it, but wisely to guide and control it. "It exists," says Willm, "as a natural disposition in every assembly of men pursuing simultaneously the same occupation; it exists independently of all outward rewards and has nothing in common with the hope of material advantage." Not necessarily, perhaps; but the natural principle, like any other, may be abused, and soon degenerate into unhealthy rivalry, when a few prizes are offered to many competitors. A self-seeking ungenerous spirit is almost sure to assert itself; as Shakespeare puts it:

"For emulation hath a thousand sons,
That one by one pursue: if you give way,
Or hedge aside from the direct forthright,
Like to an entered tide they all rush by,
And leave you hindermost."

Self-emulation—surpassing one's self—is a laudable motive—the highest form of competition in all cases, under wise direction, resulting in good to those that are exercised thereby. In obedience to this principle of action,

We rise by things that are 'neath our feet ;
By what we have mastered of good or gain ;
By the *pride deposed* and the *passion slain*,
And the vanquished ills that we hardly meet.

The present mode of awarding prizes makes the success of a few, or of one, possible only on the failure of many others—comparable, certainly, to some forms of what passes for success in business life ; but I think we shall find a nobler form of competition—one that may safely be recommended, and from which are eliminated the selfish ambitions so prominent in prevailing methods—one in which

Men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their *dead selves* to higher things.

Can we not rise a step or two in the scale of motive without being regarded as transcendental ? Higher than the hope of tangible reward, or the desire to excel others, is the desire to win the approbation of parents or teachers ; and highest of all, the wish to improve *because it is right*.

Fitch, speaking of what he terms "an elaborate system of bribery, by which we (in England) try to stimulate ambition and to foster excellence," relates that a recent traveller in England, Dr. Wiese, late director of public instruction in Prussia, says of this : "Of all the contrasts which the English mode of thinking and action shows, none has appeared to me so striking and contradictory as the fact that a nation which has so great and sacred a *sense of duty* makes no use of that idea in the school education of the young. It has rather allowed it to become the custom, and it is an evil custom, to regard the *prospect of reward and honour as the chief impulse to industry and exertion*," prizes and medals being given not only for progress in learning but also for good conduct.

The same may soon be said of Ontario unless radical changes are effected in this business of prize-giving.

Now, what benefit do prizes confer upon our colleges ? We have considered the question of increasing the number of students. Can any other advantages be claimed ? Perhaps these artificial incentives to work may relieve professors of the task of supplying other motives. This, however, is the surest and quickest way to reduce teaching to a mere form and to fossilize our teachers. The system certainly cannot increase the financial resources of our colleges. The reverse is true ; for they are thereby deprived of a large sum that might be devoted to needed improvements.

I have noticed that some who speak unfavourably of prize-giving, and who would not spend a dollar of public money for this purpose, would not hesitate to use private

funds if they could be obtained. I cannot see any difference, so far as the general principle is concerned ; and it is not easy to see that the effect upon students is changed in the least degree. True, it encourages private liberality, and possibly to some donors, affords considerable satisfaction.

But is this the best use that can be made of this money ? If not, these donors can, and no doubt will, transfer their benefactions, and thereby increase the satisfaction they now experience.

Not to dwell on this point, I pass on to another objection, sufficiently serious I think, to condemn the present prize system. I refer to *the basis on which they are generally awarded*—that is, competitive examinations.

I believe that those who have had most experience in conducting these examinations are strongest in their condemnation, and would consider it a great relief if they were utterly abolished. Huxley says : "Under the best of circumstances examination will remain but an imperfect test of *capacity*, while it tells next to nothing about a man's power as an *investigator*." If inexperienced persons were to condemn them, we should hesitate to accept their verdict ; but when our most prominent and competent examiners are almost a unit in condemning this mode of testing the real merits of students, *where prizes are involved*, we must believe that it is radically and essentially defective. It has been said that even Socrates would be plucked in our modern competitive examinations.

In the first place, there appears to be no agreement among our examiners on clearly defined principles by which the ability of competitors may be fairly tested. This may seem to be a sweeping assertion, but I shall give my reasons for the statement.

1. The ordinary written examinations may serve as a means of deciding whether candidates are ignorant of a subject or fairly acquainted with it, and hence are practically reliable in such cases as entrance examinations of all kinds, and for various promotions, which are entrance examinations in reality ; but they cannot so determine the comparative attainments of competitors as to fix upon the one who absolutely stands first. In most cases prizes, scholarships and medals are awarded on the result of several examinations in the hands of as many different examiners. But no two examiners mark alike even on the same paper ; and a still greater disparity is seen when they work on different papers.

One examiner attaches special importance to logical statement, and marks accordingly ; another, to accuracy ; a third to neatness and clearness ; a fourth, to showy diction ; another to a conformity to his own favourite methods of solving problems or elucidating propositions.

Now, supposing a set of papers on the different subjects of a competitive examination to have passed through the hands of these five examiners, and results to be recorded. Let these same papers be passed on to five other competent examiners in the same subjects, for their independent verdict. Who does not know the probable result ? The man selected as *facile princeps* by the first examiners may hardly rank a good second in the hands of the others ! In support of my position, I ask you to look at the number of appeals that are sustained in connection with our departmental examinations. If no appeals are sustained in university examinations, it is only because no appeals are allowed.

Take, for instance, the departmental and university examinations of last month. Who would have the assurance to say that a prize or a medal could be given on such papers as we had on several very important subjects ?

In fact, there are no fundamental, controlling principles on which examiners are compelled to act. Upon the idiosyncracies of any particular examiner there appears to be no check. Individuality characterizes all our examinations. To this one would not necessarily object ; but in too many cases there is a disregard for established limits, and no common standard of difficulty as between papers of the same grade. And yet on the results of such examinations many of our prizes must be awarded.

2. Even supposing that the numerical results of our examinations were reliable, a written examination alone cannot determine what a student knows of a subject. There are disturbing elements that often prevent candidates from doing themselves justice ; and it appears to me that the time has come when the *opinion of teachers*, who have spent years, it may be, in daily testing the abilities of candidates, ought to count for something in these examinations. On this point I shall not enlarge, but it is a question that will be heard from again.

3. Then again, I object to the system of prizes and scholarships on the ground that our mode of competition rewards but *one* when *all* may be equally meritorious. Is that paradoxical. I believe it is true. I have already touched on this point. I should like to see a system by which prizes would not be awarded to a *few* on the ground of relative scholarship, but to all who reach a fixed standard.

What more painful duty can fall to the lot of a conscientious teacher or professor than to be compelled to award a gold medal on four years' work, when between the two or three worthy competitors a difference of less than one per cent is known to exist ? I have known such a case. What does the awarding of two gold medals in the same subject mean ? Who believes that they represent

(Continued on page 522.)

TORONTO:

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 2, 1886.

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

We are strongly of the opinion that in a few years the tend of educational thought will take a very sharp turn in a new direction. At present educators the world over seem engrossed in abstract theories on "mind-culture" and "character-moulding." We hear much—too much, some think, of "education as a science," "psychology as applied to tuition," the "new education," "*multum not multa*," and so forth. All this is very well in its way. We could make no progress in our system of education if we did not turn our attention to the theory of education. But—and here lies the danger, are we not turning our attention to the abstract and theoretical principles to the exclusion of much else that is fundamental and important in our dealings with pupils? We think so, and we think that in the very near future the attention of teachers and of those who devote themselves to the study of educational problems will forsake to a very large extent these purely metaphysical regions and see the necessity and importance of studying the physical nature of the child.

"Develop the mind," "cultivate the thinking powers," is the cry in these days; but there is more than a possibility that this can be overdone: that the mind will be cultivated at the expense of the body, and that weakened physical health will be the result.

Already, indeed, do we think there are signs of this. The modern American is not long-lived. A glance at the youth of great cities is sufficient to show that physical vigour is not at its highest limit of excellence. Children now-a-days are "sharp," "cunning," "clever," "precocious;" not "healthy," "muscular," "animal-spirited," "untirable." And this will increase. Nervous and excitable children will grow up nervous and excitable men and women, and will produce nervous and excitable children in turn. The sins of the fathers will be visited upon the children unto the third and fourth generation.

The sooner we open our eyes to these facts the better for us and the better for those who come after us. The educating of our children is, perhaps, the most important of all the duties which fall to the lot of mankind. We are moulding in the

school-room the minds, bodies, and characters of those who are to come after us. The future of the family, the community, the nation, depends very largely upon the methods we adopt to train those who are to rule and guide the people in the next generation. And for rule and guidance perhaps the most important quality is calm judgment, self possession, cool-headedness.

Do our present modes of bringing up our youth tend to implant these? Emphatically No. Swollen *curricula*, multitudes of examinations, frequent inspections, cram, hurry, and worry, eat into the very vitals of our boys and girls. Cultivate the power of thought we say; do not these tend to stunt the powers of thought by tending to stunt the vital powers? The "struggle for existence" commences in the public schools; does it result in the "survival of the fittest?" The keen rivalry, the haste, the necessity of "getting over" such and such amount of work by such and such a time, the "pushing ahead" by the masters, the striving to attain honours,—all this has a very deleterious effect on the young.

Can it be avoided?—that is the question. It *must* be avoided; there is no alternative. We shall soon learn by dear experience that if we cultivate the brain at the expense of the body, both will eventually suffer. Such short-sighted policy can result only in a lessening of the powers of the whole mind: less good, practical, useful work will be accomplished in the world, and that work will be of an inferior character.

Upon this side of the Atlantic especially are cautions such as these very necessary. Mr. Herbert Spencer has already spoken out on the subject, and he is a man on whose opinion on such matters much stress may be laid. The average American of fifty years of age is in these days long past his prime; and yet at fifty years of age a few generations ago the average Englishman might be said to be just beginning to enjoy life. Is the world better off for this change? Is the work done in hot haste between twenty and fifty to be compared to that accomplished with deliberate care and thought between say twenty-five and seventy? There is only one answer to the question.

There is one hopeful sign, however, to be found: the public and those responsible for our methods of education are slowly beginning to awaken to the fact

that some importance is to be attached to the laws of health; that it is just as well to know something of hygiene as of drawing, of physiology as of botany. One proof of this is the authorization of text-books on Physical Culture.

Such books we welcome heartily. The masters and mistresses of our public and high schools are not themselves too well versed in the laws of health, and these text-books will do much in enlightening them. This will redound to the benefit of the children under their care.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES OF BOOKS.

The High School Algebra. By W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B., Mathematical Master, Collegiate Institute, St. Catharines, and I. J. Birchard, M.A., Ph. D., Mathematical Master Collegiate Institute, Brantford. Toronto: Wm. Briggs.

The Elements of Algebra, with Numerous Exercises for viva voce and written work. By J. A. McLellan, M.A., LL.D., Director of Normal Schools and Institutes for Ontario. Toronto: Canada Publishing Company.

Of the subjects in the high school course none has given more trouble to teachers and students than algebra. For this there are several reasons. Perhaps no subject was more imperfectly taught a few years ago than this. A great improvement has been made in this regard until now none is better taught, but the examinations, even previous to the recent one, have been uniformly more severe than in any other department of high school work. We are convinced that no study is so abstract, none so severely tries the patience and ability of the average student. We are further convinced that none has greater educative value, partly, doubtless, because of the extent to which it exercises the power of abstraction, partly because its processes are examples of strictly logical reasoning, partly because the solution of its problems develops the constructive faculty. However, the difficulties inherent in algebra itself have been increased in our Canadian schools by the lack of a suitable text-book. Several of its most important parts, for example symmetry, factoring, and the theory of divisors, were either not treated of at all, or had merely a passing notice, while the treatment of the ground covered was not sufficiently thorough or minute for the departmental examinations. A text-book embodying the improvements which recent years have made in the treatment of the subject was urgently needed. Each of the books before us comes as a claimant to public favour on the ground that it is exactly suited to supply the long-felt need. Each is the production of Canadian scholarship, the authors are men eminent in that special department, with experience and reputation as teachers. These books are a credit to our educational system, to the authors, and to the firms which publish them. If the demand which has long existed is not satisfied by these works we shall be very much disappointed. They are superior to anything of the kind now in use in our schools. *The High School Algebra* unfortunately opens with a faulty definition of its subject matter,

inasmuch as it does not include arithmetic, which also uses symbols. Most of the remaining definitions are concise, and in the main accurate. The use of faced type for the term defined makes reference more convenient.

Considerable practice is furnished in the use of symbols, and the translation of ordinary into algebraic language. The use made of distances, measured in opposite directions, to illustrate the nature of positive and negative signs is judicious. The four elementary rules are clearly treated, and the examples are numerous. Multiplication by detached co-efficients and Horner's method of division receive due prominence. Factoring is introduced at an early stage, but the more difficult theorems are reserved until the pupil has "acquired greater familiarity with algebraic symbols and their manipulation." Monomial factors, the difference of squares, the sum and the difference of cubes, and trinomials are brought in here, but all the more advanced and difficult operations in factoring are reserved until fractions and indices and surds even, have been discussed. This is an arrangement which, in our opinion, is open to objection. A much more extensive knowledge of factoring than is given in the earlier part of the book is desirable in the treatment of fractions, which perhaps furnish the best class of examples for practice in factoring. However, there is no necessity for adhering strictly to the order followed by our authors; each part is complete in itself, and the teacher may introduce the whole or selected parts of the advanced work whenever, in his opinion, it is desirable to do so.

Fractions receive due prominence, the examples are numerous, well graded, and of sufficient variety and difficulty. The theorems in fractions and the accompanying exercises are a useful feature of the book. Fractional simple equations and problems producing them receive ample notice. The chapters in indices, surds, and imaginary expressions come before that on quadratic equations. This order seems preferable. These chapters are sufficiently full and elaborate for the purposes which the book is intended to serve. It may be questioned whether, in the treatment of symmetrical expressions, sufficient space has been given to short methods in which type terms only are used.

Factoring as a means of solving quadratic equations is extensively used, but not to the neglect of the plans of solving in ordinary use.

An admirable feature of the work is that each exercise is preceded by solutions of type problems which illustrate the principles and serve as models for the student in putting his work on paper. The answers to all the problems are given at the end of the book.

The quality of the paper, style of binding, typography, and in fact the mechanical part of the book in every particular, is highly creditable to the publishers.

After reviewing the *High School Algebra* it is not easy to say much about the *Elements of Algebra* without danger of repetition. The scope of the two books is the same, viz., as much of the science as is necessary for second-class certificates and pass junior matriculation. The topics which they discuss must be the same, their treatment is necessarily similar. There are, however, differences in details which may determine the preferences of teachers for one book or the other. *The*

Elements is the more elaborate work, containing a greater number of problems. Whether this is an advantage those who use them can best judge. There must somewhere be a limit to the number of problems which a pupil can work with profit. Where that limit is we do not undertake to determine; each master can best decide that for himself.

So far as we have examined the definitions are accurate, but they are in our opinion frequently too abstract and elaborate for beginners.

Algebraic notation is more fully presented than in any other book which we have seen. The aim is to make the student "think in the language of algebra." The examples and problems of the earlier chapters are admirably designed for this purpose.

Mental algebra is made a specialty. That practice in the mental performance of algebraic operations is useful no one, we think, will venture to deny, but whether work of that kind is best furnished in the text-book or by the teacher is a question which the experience of our readers who are interested will enable them to answer. In any case many of the exercises will serve as models for that kind of work. Brackets, collecting coefficients, etc., are minutely illustrated. Easy problems involving equations are given as soon as the pupil has made sufficient progress to be able to translate them into algebraic language and perform the elementary operations required in their solution. Special forms of multiplication, symmetry, type, terms, etc., come immediately after, and are followed by factoring. We think that a considerable portion of the chapter given to this is too difficult for pupils at so early a stage, and that it will be found necessary to leave parts of it until more skill has been acquired. Everything on this topic is included which can be useful to those for whom the book is intended.

It would be useless to enumerate the contents of the remaining chapters. The ground is fully covered, the problems sufficiently difficult, and well graded. Indices and surds come after quadratics. In the words of the author: "The methods of treatment in the case of several important topics (highest common factors, resolution into factors, fractions, equations, etc.) differ from those usually followed." The great number and variety of the problems has been mentioned already.

It may be added that by omitting some of the more difficult articles and selecting only the exercises marked (a) a beginners' course may be taken, and the work may afterwards be completed for a more thorough course.

One peculiarity deserves special attention. No answers are given. These, we are told, will be published in a cheap, separate form, with hints on the more difficult questions—for the use of teachers and private students who may desire to consult them.

This is a wide departure from the usage ordinary in mathematical treatises. While it is beneficial to the pupil to solve many problems without a clue to the answers, the entire omission is, to say the least, of doubtful benefit. In our opinion the value of the book would be much enhanced by appending the answers to the greater number of the problems. This would, perhaps, be better than to insert all the answers. The printing, typography, and general make-up are excellent.

We think that in the interests of mathematical study both of these books should be authorized; then masters would have the opportunity of selecting the course which seemed to them most preferable. It may be that some teachers would do better work with one of them, some with the other. All minds are not alike. All do not work along the same lines or follow the same methods.

Short Studies in English. New York and Chicago. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co. are to be highly congratulated upon this beautiful little book. The illustrations are admirably varied, and very numerous; the printing perfect; and the general appearance most attractive—a rarity in text-books.

The aim the author set before him is well set forth in the preface:

"Believing that pupils ought to be able to apply the principles of any science as fast as learned, this volume aims to furnish the large possible amount of work for the pupils' hands and eyes, and to prevent the committing to memory of abstract facts without knowing the reasons therefor.

"The active, restless mind of the young pupil must be kept occupied; and if, in addition to such mental activity, the hands and eyes are kept employed, intellectual development is assured.

"It will be simply impossible for the pupil to go through Part One of this book, in the manner intended, without learning the use of capitals, Punctuation, something of the structure of the English sentence, and letter-writing.

"Each language exercise should be specially used to develop the principle learned in the previous section. No teacher will attempt to teach everything pertaining to a written exercise in one lesson; but will first develop the subject matter of the lesson, and, incidentally, that of all previous lessons. In this way, each exercise will be a constant daily review of all matter previously learned,

His method will be readily understood from the first page. A very attractive illustration heads the lesson, which lesson runs as follows:

I. NAME-WORDS

What is the little girl holding in her lap?

What was the kitten around its neck?

In what is the little girl sitting?

You may write the words *kitten*, *ribbon*, and *chair*.

Of what objects are these words the names?

A word used as the name of an object is called a *name-word*.

How many *name-words* have you written?

You may write the names of four objects you saw this morning on your way to school.

You may copy the following groups of words, writing *name-words* in the vacant places:—

This is for teaching *verbs*; the sentence is treated thus:

You may think of something that birds do.

You may now tell what you thought about birds.

What did you do first?

What did you do after you had thought?

You may now think of something that cats do; ducks; hens; monkeys.

Write what you have thought about each of these animals.

Example.—Ducks swim.

A thought expressed in words is a *sentence*.

EXERCISE.

You may tell why each of the following groups of words is a sentence:

Wool is soft.

Boys like foot-ball.

Roses are fragrant.

Kittens are playful.

Swallows fly rapidly.

Showers cool the air.

Pansies are beautiful.

Oak-trees grow slowly.

We highly recommend "*Short Studies in English*,"

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absolutely equal merit? Ask for the figures in such a case. Analyse the process by which this painful equation was reached; and, if you are not convinced that our prize system is utterly bad, I shall be disappointed. Even though a slight numerical difference may be shown to exist, it is quite possible that the man who stands second may be the more meritorious. I appeal to experienced teachers. Is not this statement borne out by facts? Do not prizes often mark *success* and reward *genius* rather than *merit*?

These remarks are intended to apply also to public and high school prizes. Take the following from this year's report of the examiners of the Toronto public schools: "The competition was in many instances remarkably close. In the contest for the medals presented by Mr. J. Macdonald for the two best pupils in the city schools, Herbert Sampson, who stood first, was only nine marks ahead of Lizzie Blight and Douglas Airth, who stood second and equal." Query: Who really knows that Lizzie Blight and Douglas Airth are *equal*, and who can guarantee that Herbert Sampson is superior *by nine marks*?

Before suggesting a remedy, allow me to notice one other objection?

3. What becomes of our head boys—our medalists? Dr. Arnold says: "University distinctions are a great starting-point in life; they introduce a man well: nay, they even add to his influence afterwards." No doubt this is true, if there is sufficient ballast to carry the honour, enough of practical good sense and other qualities to supplement it. Too often, however, hopes are excited within the university walls that are never realized beyond it. Unless prize-men have acquired something more than power to make high score at examinations, they will be doomed to wander out of humour with themselves and useless to society. I would refer especially, however, to the danger of *overwork* in competing for prizes. Well-regulated study is not injurious; but in the excitement of running for prizes study is *not* well regulated. By many this is regarded as the chief objection to the system, and certainly it ought not to be lightly passed over.

Allow me in closing to offer a few suggestions:—

1. Let all our universities agree to abolish all prizes, scholarships and medals. They can establish confederation on this measure at least, and it would be a popular form of union. If Germany with her ten grand universities and 13,000 students, can take this position, and lead the world in university work, why need we fear to follow?

Our leading colleges have virtually admitted the desirability of such a move; but they appear to be waiting for one another, and much like your merchants on the question of early closing. If by one sweep the change were effected, a sigh of relief would rise from

every hard-working, conscientious professor in the country. 2. Let all public money now used for this purpose be spent on increasing the efficiency of the provincial university.

3. With existing private benefactions let a fund be established for bestowing beneficiary aid on needy students, on a plan similar to that in operation at Yale College. 4. Let such further contributions as can be obtained, be devoted to the encouragement of *original research, travelling fellowships, and special post-graduate work*. 5. Then, if necessary, and not till then, would we say to the authorities of our provincial university, "Ask the Legislature for additional assistance, and you will get it. What is of equal importance, you will deserve it." 6. If you ask, "What is to supply the place of scholarships, prizes, and medals?" I would say, first of all, consign to the college museum your dies as curiosities for succeeding generations, and to the department of numismatics any stock of medals on hand that cannot be melted over into honest coin of the realm. Then adopt a method of classifying honour-men like that just introduced at Harvard University. Briefly it is as follows: Group the honour-men numerically as at present, but raise the percentage of first-class to that of the average gold medallist, or higher if necessary. Then make this highest honour-rank attainable by all who can reach it. So of second-class and third-class honours. The first-class honours, of course, would represent the *highest distinction conferred by the university*. That is, whereas the highest distinctions are now *gold medals*, prizes attainable by only *one* in each department, they would be changed to *rewards* within the reach of all who deserve them. We thus do away with all unhealthy rivalry and jealousy. Instead of this we have *self-emulation*—every step upward raising ourselves, but pulling no one else down—comparing ourselves with ourselves, and aspiring to rise to the high mark placed before us. It does away also with the painful uncertainty surrounding the decisions of close personal competition. It has the further merit of costing nothing, though infinitely more valuable than our present costly system. Extended to all parts of the college course, its elevating influence would be co-extensive. The tone of our colleges would improve, the motives actuating both students and professors would be higher and purer.

Apply the same principle to every school in the land—and I think the country is ready for it—and the change would mark an era of decided improvement.

I anticipate a few objections; for example:

(1) As we say, *it means work*, and it throws teachers upon their own resources to supply incentives to study. No *true* teacher will object to that. No greater benefit could be conferred upon our profession than to lay upon each one of us just this obligation. Let us welcome it, act upon it, and we shall feel

as many of us have never felt the true nobility of our work.

(2) It involves *radical changes*; but the changes deal with radical evils. They would also be acceptable to those most interested in prizes—the students themselves, and, let us hope to the benefactors also. The advantages to the colleges cannot be questioned, and the country would hail the change with delight.

(3) Some may think this plan would check the liberality of the friends of our colleges. Doubtless it would in case of those who found scholarships through ostentation, if such there are; but probably even these could be reached by higher motives. As to all other benefactors, they would only require a lucid statement of the system to guarantee a continuance of their support. Like Munroe, of New York (who within six years has established in Dalhousie College, Halifax, five regular professorships and two tutorships) they could be induced to *put their money where it would do most good*.

(4) If it be objected that we shall still have to depend on examinations to classify honour-men, I reply that it would tend to leave the work of examining more in the hands of professors, where I think it should be. Huxley says: "I do not believe that anyone who is not, or has not been, a teacher, is really qualified to examine advanced students." In this case a certain part of the examination might be *oral*. These changes, I am sure, would greatly lessen the evils complained of. The *personal* element being mostly eliminated in the efforts of students to rank well, there would be little danger of such close running and doubtful decisions as we have at present. Besides, the classification would not need to depend on a single examination.

(5) If any fear that inter-collegiate emulation would cease, let them remember that on the contrary the only form of emulation worth retaining would be very prominent, and the display of results in this case would not be attended with the necessary spirit inseparable from showing a long list of scholarships, prizes and medals to attract students into college, and again to feed their vanity on leaving. The laureation of students winning highest honours, in its significance and simplicity, would carry us back to the days when the garland of wild olive represented the highest honours bestowed on Grecian victors.

Inter-collegiate competition on such lines might safely be encouraged without bringing shame to any college or collegian.

I have tried fairly to consider the main reasons usually assigned for giving prizes, scholarships and medals, and I think I have shown some weak points in our system. The changes suggested I believe to be reasonable, practicable, and suited to all parts of our educational work. D. C. MCHENRY.

THE ONTARIO COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.

(Read before the Ontario Teachers' Association.)

THE consideration of the question of a grand union of all teachers of the Province into one Society, possessing the power of admitting members and of enacting by laws for the regulation of all matters concerning the teaching profession, is now introduced for your consideration under the title of a "College of Preceptors." The designation of the proposed Union may first claim our notice; and on this point it may be said that as there is in Ontario a Law Society, and Societies formed among the other professions of the Province, each conserving and advancing its own special interests, the title of "The College of Preceptors for Ontario" will, perhaps, be appropriate, considering the objects we have in view. Some suggested the title, an "Education Society" for our projected union; the aptness of the former, and the vagueness of the latter, are obvious, and will, doubtless, decide the matter as to the name by which the union shall be known. As an art, education is very old; old, I presume, as the human race; but as a science it is among the last born, scarcely yet named in the English language; and although it concerns itself with every other science, and is surpassed by none in its promise of ever-widening benefit to mankind, the followers of the art scarcely take rank as a recognized profession. The State in its desire to provide an education for youth takes charge of the teacher as well as of the school. His position is that of a sort of civil servant, "cribbed and confined" by regulations and by-laws; bound to serve, not one, but many masters; scarcely consulted in matters pertaining to his work; his part is to carry out a prescribed curriculum in a prescribed way; he is left limited room for development in his calling, and little opportunity for making his individuality felt.

It is the aim of the contemplated union to provide a remedy for these defects, and, it is fitting that this movement, which has been long talked of and discussed, should be taken up by the Ontario Teachers' Association—the only organization of the kind amongst us that is provincial in its character. We must have, as a representative body, a brotherhood of teachers; our aims and sympathies are in harmony; there is, or should be, a feeling of loyalty to the profession, and a professional *esprit de corps*, which is above mere personal matters. I feel, therefore, that whatever conclusion this Association comes to in regard to this very important question, it will meet with the hearty approval of all the teachers of the Province.

We need more organization and less isolation; we should know each other better than we do; we want a fuller recognition of the necessity of good professional training, and

a more adequate appreciation of our work on the part of the public. I have no doubt that these objects may be pursued successfully, because the whole complexion and temper of the times are favourable to their present discussion. Not only is there a wide interest taken generally in education, but there is abroad a spirit of robust and intelligent criticism, not, of course, perfectly instructed, nor always based on profound study, but on the whole intelligent criticism; and it is assuredly a sign of a healthy condition when our work attracts such criticism.

Any effort at forming a union having in view merely our pecuniary gain will certainly fail, as flavouring too much of trade unionism, and placing us in a position of antagonism to the other professions, and to a very important and influential class of sympathizers in our national system of education. There are defects in our educational system which our scheme should seek to remedy; if we cannot show that the projected scheme will benefit the public as well as the teaching profession, we need not hope to succeed. We want a fuller recognition as a profession; teaching is something more than a trade—a means of getting money; it is, or should be, a real vocation or mission—a something for which a man has certain talents to be turned to right account; it is not only a service but a ministry. It requires a professional training—the direct training in the art of teaching, and an indirect training which comes from our own devotion to thought and research into truth. We claim for those entering the teaching profession a professional training secured by the influence of spirit—the power of full conviction and of moral influence—and the influence of law.

The first and most important essential in teachers themselves is a conviction of duty—a something like enthusiasm for the work. The public can stimulate these influences for us; they can look upon our work in the same light, and from a point of view as high as that from which we ourselves regard it; but unless we have these higher influences, unless there is a feeling of duty, and that enthusiasm in the profession which is begotten of self-respect, as well as an earnest regard for the good name of every member of the profession; and unless these are taken for granted by the public, we will never maintain the teaching profession in its true and fully accredited position.

But there is a decided function of law in this matter—its directing and stimulating function. The public have surely as good a right to be secured by proper qualification in this as in the medical or legal professions. So far as the patrons of the schools under government control are concerned, the protection is ample; but what of other schools? The injury done by an inexperienced or ill-trained teacher is infinitely greater than a

mistake made in the other professions. The child is committed to the teacher's hands in the very morning of life, when the character, still more than the young limbs, is, so to speak, in the gristle. Both limbs and character have acquired some of their proper consistency and powers of resistance; but how much of the intellectual and moral frame are not the first impress and shaping given at school? Is this a matter to be disregarded? Mistakes that lie on the surface, and are easily seen, are soon remedied, and the best means are employed to prevent their recurrence; but mistakes that affect the proper care and culture of the intellect and character—"that unspeakable mystery on earth, a thinking, reasoning, discoursing, immortal creature"—are so subtle and the consequences so remote that they often pass unheeded. No one now questions the value of the professional training of teachers, or the right of the State to impose a rigorous supervision of the teacher's work; but this supervision does not go far enough. Any scheme proposed will but half meet the necessities of the case that does not concern itself with teachers of all grades, and with teachers not at present under the control of the Department of Education; our organization must extend from the highest rung in the educational ladder to the lowest—from the highest chair in the university system to the humblest private school in the land. The inefficient teacher should not be permitted to practice privately in educational work any more than the sciolist should in medicine or in law. Teaching is not a mere piece of job-work to which any one may turn his hand, but a professional calling which requires knowledge, judgment, and experience.

Holding these views with regard to the value and character of the teacher's work, and of the necessity for some sort of organization, a review of the operations of the College of Preceptors, London, England, will, I dare say, aid us in working out the problem before us. The English College of Preceptors was established in 1846, and incorporated by royal charter in the year 1849. It was founded, we are told, "for the purpose of promoting sound learning and of advancing the interests of education, especially among the middle classes, by affording facilities to the teacher for acquiring a knowledge of his profession, and by providing for the periodical sessions of a competent Board of Examiners, to ascertain and give certificates of the acquirements, and fitness for their office, of persons engaged or desiring to be engaged in the education of youth."

With these aims in view the charter empowered the College to hold examinations of teachers and schools, and to grant diplomas and certificates to such persons as pass these examinations satisfactorily.

To effect these objects, two plans of examination were established:—

1st. The examination of *teachers*, to ascertain their qualification and fitness to take part in the work of instruction.

2nd. The examination of *pupils*, to test their progress, and to afford at once to the teacher and to the pupil a satisfactory criterion of the value of the instruction received.

It is a distinctive feature of these examinations that in all cases the *Theory and Practice of Education* is an obligatory subject for each grade.

The diplomas granted by the College to teachers are of three grades, viz.: *Associate, Licentiate, Fellow.*

"The pupils' examinations were established in 1854—four years before the institution of the University Local Examinations, and two years before those instituted by the Society of Arts, both of which may justly be regarded as more or less the fruit of the efforts and example of the College of Preceptors in their efforts to improve the education of the middle classes. These examinations have been carried on half-yearly since that time, with increasing success; during the past year the number of candidates examined for certificates amounted to more than 14,000. Visiting examiners were appointed by the College for the inspection and examination of public and private schools. About 3,500 schools, of both classes, scattered over the country, are now brought under the influence of the College examination."

I may here add that the higher certificates awarded by the College at the half-yearly examinations of pupils are recognized by Her Majesty's judges, and by the General Medical Council, as guarantees of a good general education; the holders of them who may intend to enter the legal and medical professions are thus exempted from the necessity of submitting to the Preliminary Literary Examinations held by the Incorporated Law Society, and by the various medical corporations of the United Kingdom. All the College certificates above the third are also recognized by the Royal Veterinary College and the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain. The examinations, both of teachers and pupils, it may be remarked, are open to both sexes.

"The total number examined annually by the College at the various examinations that have been mentioned, and the pupils examined at their own schools by visiting examiners, is over 18,000—a number which, it may be observed, greatly exceeds that of the candidates who present themselves annually before any other examining body especially concerned with the improvement of the education of the middle classes."

The movement which resulted in the establishment of the College of Preceptors

originated at Brighton, as I have said, in 1846; it spread rapidly, and within a year after its organization there were over 1,000 members. Unfortunately, in regard to membership, as a correspondent informs me, the very error for many years was committed which the College was founded to combat. "The promoters intended to include among the first members all persons of respectability, both male and female, who paid a yearly subscription of one guinea. But they also intended, at no distant date (a date not assigned), to subject all candidates for membership to examination. Amid the pressure of other business, and of crippled resources, the latter attention was, however, lost sight of, and it would seem also that there had been some laxity in the granting of certificates. The consequence was that A.C.P., L.C.P., and F.C.P., became involved in a common depreciation." It must be understood, however, that the College, in its documents, had always drawn a clear distinction between examined and unexamined members—a distinction which the general public could not be expected to bear in mind, or even to apprehend. The investigation of the Schools' Enquiry Commission, together with the action of various learned bodies, for stricter conditions of membership, drew the attention of the more active members of the College to the necessity of reform, and since 1870 no one was admitted who did not comply with the following requirements:—

I. "All persons, not being under eighteen years of age, who have passed the examinations hereafter specified, or such other examination as the council shall from time to time appoint or recognize, are admissible as members of the College:

"(a) Matriculation and all higher examinations in any University in Great Britain, Ireland, or the Colonies;

"(b) Examinations for diplomas at foreign Universities.

"(c) Foreign State examinations for licenses to teach.

"(d) The Senior Local Examinations held by the Universities of Great Britain.

"(e) The examinations for first-class certificates of the College of Preceptors.

"(f) The examinations held by the Committee of Council on Education for government certificates.

"II. Candidates who shall not be able to produce certificates of having passed one or other of the above mentioned examinations will be required to pass an examination in all subjects required for the diploma of Associate, excepting the 'Theory and Practice of Education.'"

The condition of the College to-day, I am informed is healthful and hopeful; the strictness of the regulations has not diminished the number of applicants, and the public now have the fullest confidence in the diplomas of the College.

In 1873 the College instituted a professorship of the "Science and Art of Education" (the first established in England) as a special subject of instruction. The late Joseph Payne was appointed to the chair; he was succeeded by Rev. R. H. Quick, M.A., author of "Essays on Educational Reform," a professional treatise which is well known to you. Mr. Meiklejohn, who was subsequently appointed to the chair of Education in the University of St. Andrews, Scotland, and Mr. Croom Robertson, of London University, have also filled this chair.

It may be of interest to refer for a moment to some details which, in view of our projected scheme, it will be profitable briefly to notice. The annual subscription to the College is *one guinea*. All persons engaged in education are admissible as members, subject to election by the council; but all candidates are required either to give evidence of having passed an examination satisfactory to the council before some recognized examining body, or to pass an examination at the College.

The officers of the College are practical teachers in all grades of schools, and university professors. The governing body is a council of forty-eight members, elected by the Fellows. This council elects its officers—a President, and three Vice-Presidents, a Dean, a Treasurer, a Secretary, and a Solicitor.

The sources of income for carrying on the work are:—

(1) An annual membership fee of one guinea.

(2) An examination fee of one guinea.

(3) Fees for issuing certificates and diplomas:

(a) Associate, one guinea.

(b) Licentiate, two guineas.

(c) Fellow five guineas.

The legal registration of teachers I learn from an official communication, has long been advocated by the College. A proposal for a *Scholastic Registration Act*, analogous in its provisions to the Medical Registration Act, was brought before the public some time ago, and it continues to engage the attention of the council as a much needed reform, and a first step towards making teaching a distinct and fully recognized profession. The educational systems of Britain are so complex, and the interests of the schools and masters so varied, that the passing of a Registration Act seems almost impossible of attainment. Notwithstanding the difficulties in the way, however, every succeeding year finds the teachers nearer their object; they are brought more together, and feel the necessity of hearty co-operation in securing their rights.

These extracts may assist us in devising some analogous scheme applicable to our own wants. In Ontario the teachers' inter-

ests are more in harmony, and we have an educational system flexible enough to adapt itself to our necessities. If we begin this work in a generous spirit, there can be no doubt of the ultimate success of the scheme. I feel that we deserve to succeed, and to deserve success will be to achieve it.

Now we come to the consideration of our projected college of preceptors.

I cannot enter as fully as I should like into the details of the scheme I have in view without exceeding the limits of the present occasion. Indeed, it would not be well to do more, in the initiatory stages of the movement, than to suggest the foundation upon which to build.

I. ITS AIMS, broadly stated, should be to promote sound learning and to advance the interests of education by admitting to the teaching profession only those who are fitted for the work, to improve the position of the profession, and to protect the public from incompetent teachers.

II. THE MEMBERS.—For one year after the incorporation of the Society it is proposed to admit *all* persons actually engaged in teaching, whether in proprietary or public institutions, on payment of a registration fee. The teachers registering would be subject to the conditions now affecting their work, except that an annual membership fee would have to be paid by each teacher to keep his or her name on the register.

It is proposed that after the organization and incorporation of the Society, no one will be admitted without passing the examination prescribed by the Society. The members might be classified as follows:—

(1) *Associates*: Corresponding to third class teachers. The examination for the standing of Associates would correspond to the matriculation or the preliminary examination for any of the professions.

(2) *Licentiate*s: Corresponding to second class teachers.

(3) *Fellows*: Corresponding to first class teachers and to High School masters.

III. THE GOVERNMENT OF THE SOCIETY should be vested in a council elected by the Fellows and Licentiate

IV. ITS POWERS. The Society should have power to manage its own affairs, to enact by-laws for the admission and government of its members, to impose fines and penalties for the violation or non-fulfilment of duties prescribed, and to settle all matters of dispute arising among teachers.

V. CERTIFICATES AND DIPLOMAS.

1) *Certificate of Associate*. A membership certificate entitling the holder to the standing of

(a) Third class teachers, as at present recognized.

(b) Private school teachers in their present status.

(2) *Licentiate*. A certificate authorizing the holder to teach, subject to the conditions affecting second class certificates.

(3) *Fellows*. A diploma issued to first class teachers of all grades and to High School masters.

VI. PENALTIES. For the efficient working of the College, penalties similar to those enforced by the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Ontario, should be enacted, say,

(1) For teaching without a license.

(2) For non-payment of fees.

(3) For other violations, such as unprofessional conduct, etc.

VII. FEES. (Suggested.)

(1) For admission to the Society and issuing certificates (Associate and Licentiate), \$5.00.

(2) For diplomas, \$10.00.

(3) Annual membership fee, \$2.00; or commutation fee for Life membership, \$30.

(4) For each examination, \$5.00.

VIII. RELATION OF THE SOCIETY TO TEACHING INSTITUTIONS.

The Society should be an examining and not a teaching body. It should conduct, independently of the Education Department, both the professional and non-professional examinations for all grades of teachers' certificates and diplomas.

As a fair equivalent for the work done by this Teachers' Society the Province should support, in part, the system of Normal and Model Schools now established; but they should confine their work to methods of teaching, school organization, school discipline, school law, together with such subjects of study as aid in the *practical* working of schools.

The theory of education and the solution of educational problems, should be left to the University in which a Chair of Education should be founded and endowed.

IX. ITS RELATION TO THE STATE. It is analogous to that of the Law Society of Upper Canada, and its parallel points of resemblance may be thus summarized:

The State demands and pays for the proper administration of justice as a matter of public weal; it also demands, and for the same reason, that only those who are properly qualified (as determined by examination) shall be entrusted with this work; but the duty of deciding who are qualified to practise law is left to a Society composed of legal practitioners, who, in their corporate capacity have the power of conducting all examinations of candidates as to their fitness to practise law.

Similarly, the State demands and pays for public education as a contribution to the public well-being; it also demands, and for the same reason, that only those who are properly qualified shall be entrusted with the work of teaching in schools receiving

Provincial aid; and the duty of deciding who are qualified *should* be entrusted to a Society composed of teachers qualified for any position in the public system of education.

The Teachers' Society should hold the same relation to the State and to the Educational Institutions of the Province that the Law Society holds to the State and to the Law Courts of the Province.

The Law Society decides who shall practise law; the Teachers' Society should decide who shall practise teaching. The right of teachers to control the admission of members to the teaching profession rests on the same grounds as that of the Law Society to the control of its membership.

The Law Society demands that all positions requiring a knowledge of law shall be held by its members; in like manner the Teachers' Society should demand that all positions requiring a practical knowledge of schools and school teaching, should be held by members of the teaching profession, and by them alone.

X. Besides these practical matters this Society would be competent to deal with the question of *Life Insurance, Sustentation Fund, Superannuation allowance, Teachers' Bureau*, and all that concerns teachers and the teaching profession generally.

There are many advantages which the scheme suggests as likely to follow its adoption, and a few of these may here be mentioned:—

1. To the Public:

(a) Fuller protection from incompetent teachers.

(b) Better work in the schools.

2. To the Cause of Education:

(a) As the formation of the Teachers' Society will certainly give more permanency to the profession it will induce a larger number of able teachers to remain in the work.

(b) The danger of misdirected energy will be lessened.

3. To the Teacher:

(a) He will obviously have a better social position, a fuller recognition as a member of an organized profession.

(b) He will have the support and encouragement that a society formed for mutual protection and benefit confers.

(c) He will have a voice in the government of the Society that regulates his work, and which admits to membership in the profession; unprofessional competition for positions in our school system may thus be dealt with by teachers themselves.

(d) The defects of our system of examinations can be corrected by this organization without appealing to political bureaucracy for redress.

Having now laid this matter thus fully and in its varied aspects before you, some questions will likely arise in your minds as

to the relations of the projected society to the chief executive officer of the Department of Education. The matter is a delicate one, particularly as I discuss it without having had the advantage of conferring first with the Honourable the Minister; but the benefits of the scheme are so obvious that I venture to think they will commend themselves, not only to you and to the profession at large, but to one who, in the person of the present Minister of Education, happily combines, with a thorough and practical knowledge of all branches of school work, an enthusiastic interest in the profession of teaching, and a laudable regard for the teacher's status and welfare. It may be taken for granted that the work of the college would relieve the Minister of many duties that are of necessity irksome and sometimes embarrassing. What these are, in the political connexions of the Minister's functions and office, I need not refer to; they will occur to the minds of all of you.

The organization and operation of a society such as is here outlined, will not lessen, in the slightest degree, the necessity for an executive head of the Department of Education. It will be necessary, indeed, that the details of the whole scheme should receive his concurrence, and that the aims and objects of the society should meet with his full and cordial approval. It would be advantageous, moreover, were he to become an *ex officio* member of the college with special powers. With his sanction and co-operation, and the hearty endorsement of this meeting and of the profession at large, our undertaking should not fail of immediate and assured success.

GEORGE DICKSON.

Educational Intelligence.

EDUCATION IN TEMPERANCE PRINCIPLES.

PROVISIONS for scientific temperance education is now made in seventeen of the United States, and recently President Cleveland signed: "A bill to provide for the study of the nature of alcoholic drinks and narcotics, and of their effects upon the human system, in connection with the several divisions of the subject of physiology and hygiene by the pupils in the public schools of the Territories, and of the District of Columbia, and in the Military and Naval Academies, and Indian and coloured schools of the Territories of the United States.

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that the nature of alcoholic drinks and narcotics, and special instruction as to their effects upon the human system, in connection with the several divisions of the subject of physiology and hygiene, shall be included in the branches of study taught in the public schools, and in the Military and Naval Schools, and shall be studied and taught as thoroughly and in the same manner as other like required branches are in said

schools, by the aid of text-books in the hands of pupils where other branches are thus studied in said schools, and by all pupils in all said schools throughout the Territories in the Military and Naval Academies of the United States, and in the District of Columbia, and in all Indian and coloured schools in the Territories of the United States.

"Section 2. That it shall be the duty of proper officers in control of any school described in the foregoing section to enforce the provisions of this act; and any such officer, school director, committee, superintendent or teacher who shall refuse or neglect to comply with the requirements of this act, or shall neglect or fail to make proper provisions for the instruction required, and in the manner specified by the first section of this act, for all pupils in each and every school under his jurisdiction, shall be removed from office, and the vacancy filled as in other cases.

"Section 3. That no certificate shall be granted to any person to teach in the public schools of the District of Columbia or Territories, after the first day of January, Anno Domini eighteen hundred and eighty-eight, who has not passed a satisfactory examination in physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the nature and the effects of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics upon the human system.

"Section 4. This act shall take effect on its passage."

MR. WM. JONES is engaged to teach the Ilder-ton Public School for the ensuing term.

MISS ALICE ALLEN, of Clarenceville has been engaged as assistant principal of the St. Johns (Quebec), High School.

THE fees for non-resident pupils in the Stratford Collegiate Institute have been increased to one-third more than former rates.

MISS JESSIE PANTON has been appointed to a position on the teaching staff of the Oshawa High School at a salary of \$550 per annum.

MR. JAMES ROGERS, of East Williams has received the appointment of assistant teacher at the Parkhill High School at a salary of \$550 a year.

MR. T. G. CAMPBELL, of Whitby, has been appointed mathematical master in the Ottawa Collegiate Institute at a salary of \$1,100 per annum.

THE Strathroy Collegiate Institute is to be made a training school for High School teachers. The Legislative grant will be increased \$500 in consequence.

THE Ontario Business College, at Belleville, will shortly re-open, and we would call the attention of our readers to its announcement in our advertisement columns.

MR. S. S. JONES, has been engaged as teacher of the Granton Public School, in place of Mr. May, who succeeds Mr. Parkinson as first assistant in the Parkhill High School.

MISS ALICE WILSON, of St. Marys was offered the position of principal both of the Harrington and the Cayuga public schools. She has accepted the former at a salary of \$350 per annum.

A MEETING of the Chatham School Board was held for the purpose of appointing two female

teachers. The applicants were as follows: Misses Rachael Coutts, Lottie Thompson, Irwin, and Lowe. Miss Irwin's name was ordered to be placed on the file, as she at present holds a situation. Miss Lowe has accepted an appointment at Dresden. The Board appointed Miss Coutts for the remainder of the year at a salary of \$25 per month, also Miss Thompson at \$22 per month.

AFTER a term of many years teaching, five of which were in S. S. No. 16, Markham, known as Mount Joy, Mr. H. H. Read needed to take a rest and seek a more out door and active life, and sent in his resignation. He built himself and family a brick residence at Aurora, to which they removed last week. Mr. and Mrs. Read have made a host of friends in Markham who regret their removal. However, Markham's loss is Aurora's gain. They simply remove from old friends to join old relatives and friends.—*Markham Economist*.

AMONG the improvements recently made in connection with the Parkhill High School, may be mentioned the purchase of three new clocks, so that each room, including the two in the Ward School will now have its own clock. The High School Inspector, at his last visit, pronounced the sanitary arrangements of the out-buildings among the best in the Province. The furnishing committee has recently caused such sanitary improvements to be made at the Ward School as will place it in that respect on a par with the Brick School buildings.

A NEW feature of the surroundings of the Ottawa Collegiate Institute, is a large gymnasium and dwelling attached; the structure is in progress, and is to be finished shortly. It is of wood, and is estimated to cost about \$2,000. The dwelling attached is to be occupied by the caretaker of the school, who will no doubt appreciate the situation of the house. The gymnasium will be a splendid resort for the pupils, who badly want something of the sort to keep their brain backed up with a good strong body. The whole building when completed will be a very great addition to the Institute, and will do credit to the contractor, Mr. H. L. Pinard.



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