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Vol. I. No. 2.

FEBRUARY, 1881.

{ \$1 per annum.
10 cts. per No.

THE
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

OF THE

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC,

PUBLISHED MONTHLY, UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE PROTESTANT COMMITTEE OF
THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, AND CONTAINING THE OFFICIAL
ANNOUNCEMENTS OF THE BOARD.

EDITED BY R. W. BOODLE.

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1881.

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1. Assets 30th April, 1880.....	\$4,297,852
2. Income for the year ending 30th April, 1880.....	835,856
3. Income (included in above) for the year from interest and profit on sale of Debentures.....	243,357
4. Claims by death during the year.....	192,948
5. Do. as estimated and provided for by the Company's tables.....	296,878
6. Number of Policies issued during the year—2107, amounting to.....	3,965,062
7. New premiums on above.....	111,382
8. Proposals declined by Directors—171—for.....	291,200
9. Policies in force 30th April, 1880, 12,586, upon 10,540 lives.	
10. Amount assured thereby.....	21,547,759
11. Death claims fell short of expectation by.....	103,930
12. Interest revenue exceeded Death claims by.....	50,309

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AGENCIES THROUGHOUT THE PROVINCE.

THE
EDUCATIONAL RECORD
OF THE
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

No. 2.

FEBRUARY, 1881.

Vol. I.

THE FUTURE OF MCGILL UNIVERSITY.

THE ANNUAL UNIVERSITY LECTURE, SESSION 1880-81.

BY PRINCIPAL DAWSON, LL.D., F.R.S.

According to a regulation of the University, it is the duty of the Principal to deliver a lecture on a general educational subject as early as may be in each session, but it is understood that this duty may be discharged by the substitution—with the consent of the Corporation—of some other member of the University or some distinguished stranger. In the present session the lecture was to have been delivered by one to whom we have often listened with pleasure, our lamented friend the late Judge Dunkin.

The subject which he had selected was one most suitable to him and most interesting to us,—the early history of McGill College. Unfortunately, however, continued ill-health rendered it necessary for him to ask for a postponement from the usual time in November until January, and now we have to mourn his death; and this, just when we had hoped that, relieved from public duties, he might in the evening of his days have devoted himself more fully to those educational interests which he loved so well. Some portion of what he would have told us, had he been spared to lecture, has already appeared in his elaborate Report on the Education of Canada, prepared for Lord Durham's Commission in 1839, one of the most important educational papers

ever written in this country; but much more we shall never be privileged to read or hear. From the beginning of the movement for the re-organization of this University in 1850, up to the end of last year, he was one of the most active workers and thinkers in connection with its affairs. For such services to the public he was admirably fitted by his thorough mental culture, his academical experience, his business capacity, and his knowledge of public life; while his accurate habits of thought, his earnest Christian character and his genuine enthusiasm as an educationist, ensured that everything which he undertook should be done well and thoroughly. There is no man to whom the University and the cause of education in connection with it, owe more; and when the history of its early struggles and later prosperity shall be written, though it may want some of the charm which his clear mind and accurate hand might have given, it will at least bear testimony to the great part which he played in the organization of the higher education in this province.

In these circumstances, the duty of delivering this lecture has necessarily devolved on me, at short notice, and in the midst of other pressing engagements; and having no hope of being able to do justice to the subject selected by our late lamented friend, I have chosen one which very frequently occupies my thoughts, and has thus the advantage of familiarity, while it also allows some scope for imagination. I have named it "The Future of the University;" but I would have it understood that I shall be able to advert only to a few points relating to our future; and these I shall regard as from the standpoint of one who can at least see something of the manner in which the lights and shadows of the present are projected into the coming time.

Allow me first to present to you the idea that in this country an University is not a fabric rounded and complete in all its parts, but necessarily incomplete, and in many parts presenting merely the framework of what it is to be. You are familiar with the fact that young animals, and for that matter young men also, become developed in frame before they are filled in with flesh, and present an angular and raw-boned appearance which, however unpleasing, may be a presage of future strength. Canada itself, with its vast uninhabited solitudes and new provinces marked out on maps, but not filled with people, is a gigantic example of this state of things. To be otherwise, a Canadian

educational institution must be one of those which, limited by some local or denominational restrictions, are not destined to any larger growth.

Not only must the Canadian University be thus incomplete, but it must be somewhat unequal in its development; and it must present some structures not intended to be permanent, some scaffolding destined to be removed. The new settler has to be content at first with a make-shift shanty, and with many other make-shifts which he hopes to replace in time to come with better implements. The time is not long past when even in the principal streets of Montreal there were old and diminutive wooden buildings alternating with the palatial structures of the more modern times, and giving a most quaint and unfinished appearance to the whole. Much of what we now have and do may bear the same relation to the future, which the rude sheds and scaffolding of the builders bear to the great edifice they are now erecting on our grounds. Yet wise men will not despise these poor and unsightly things, but will see in them the presage of a better time to come. Young men more especially should regard them with forbearance, for are they not the symbols and appliances of that rude toil with which we, who are soon to pass away, are preparing better things for them.

Let us think for a moment of the application of these views to our present circumstances. Two courses were open to the original administrators of Mr. McGill's bequest. One was to limit their aims to that narrow range of scholastic studies which seemed indicated by their scanty means and the small educational wants of the time. The other was to survey and mark out on the ground wide fields of operation which they might hope in the future to cultivate, and to occupy such portions here and there as seemed likely to yield an adequate return. Fortunately, their own foresight and the natural ambition of a new country pointed to the latter course, and the comparatively early development of our Medical Faculty indicated the probable path of success. Hence it has come to pass that our course of study in the Faculty of Arts has taken a wide scope, that we have Faculties of Law, Medicine and Applied Science, six Affiliated Colleges and a Normal School, as well as connections more or less direct with nearly the whole of the active educational work of the Dominion. It thus happens that with about

500 students and an income adequate to one moderate college, we find ourselves doing work that is spread over all the departments which belong to the greatest universities. Of course it follows that much is imperfectly done, that time and effort are wasted in hurrying from one field of labor to another as exigency demands, that constant watchfulness is needed to prevent some agency from breaking down; and finally, that in working for the future it is often necessary to appear to be attending to one interest at the expense of another, and that in spite of all our efforts we may have temporarily to abandon some promising position which has become untenable, but upon which, nevertheless, we must continue to have a watchful eye, and be ready to reoccupy it when circumstances permit. The whole educational history of McGill is thus like a hard fought battle, in which, with a too slender force, we have been defending or attacking widely extended positions.

Looking abroad over the field as it presents itself after a conflict of twenty-five years, we can congratulate ourselves on few very brilliant achievements; but we have at least held our own, and made some progress, and often when every avenue seemed closed an unexpected deliverance has come. At this moment we appear to have reached a standing point in all except a few directions. Our endowments seem to have reached their limit of productiveness. Each of our Faculties has attained to a certain degree of completeness, and is doing its work in a respectable and efficient manner, but has little prospect of advance beyond this. Our number of students is relatively to the population we represent somewhat large, but has not materially increased for several years. Yet we cannot remain stationary without falling back, and we cannot advance along any of a number of inviting lines without greater means. It would be easy to give illustrations of this. In the Faculty of Arts, for example, we require much subdivision of chairs. We should have separate professorships of Greek and Latin, of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, of Geology and Biology, of History and English Literature, and our professors of Modern Languages should not be hampered with other duties than those of the College. In this Faculty also we require more aids to students in the form of exhibitions and scholarships. To do what I have thus indicated would perhaps double our expenditure, but in a few years I

have no doubt it would also double our number of students, and enable us to carry education to a much higher point. In the Faculty of Applied Science we are suffering from deficient means of instruction in Mechanical Engineering, and from the want of a special building with proper appliances. The Faculty of Medicine has more than any other been independent and self-supporting, and the energy and enterprise of its professors as well as their liberal contributions of their own money, have enabled it to distance every similar school in this country; but for this very reason it deserves to have means given for its more full development, particularly in modern specialties. The Faculty of Law greatly needs endowments for one or two chairs to give it a more stable and progressive position. All these and other needs are sufficiently obvious to those acquainted with the inner working of the University; but for the present we must endeavour to counteract the resulting deficiencies by any sacrifice, till means can be supplied to give us more freedom. Nor can we hope to surmount all such difficulties at once. In the nature of things they must be met and conquered one by one. Of two or three equally necessitous demands it must constantly happen that one may be satisfied while the others must wait, and must feel even more keenly their destitution by contrast. Yet, we shall never succeed by refusing to accept one favour till we can secure another, or by simply waiting till something may turn up. We must constantly press forward, however slowly and painfully; and successes apparently sudden are usually connected with long antecedent preparatory struggles.

As a noteworthy instance of this, I may be excused for referring to the magnificent donation of Mr. Peter Redpath, which almost at a bound places our appliances for the teaching of Natural Science on a level with any on this continent.

In 1855, when it fell to me to deliver the first course of lectures on Natural History in the McGill College, there was absolutely no collection of specimens. I had, fortunately, brought somewhat extensive collections with me; and with the aid of the museums of the Natural History Society and the Geological Survey, secured sufficient material for my first course. But, unhappily, a large part of my private collection was destroyed by fire, without any insurance, in Burnside Hall, and the College was quite unable to replace it. Within a short time, however,

the governors were able to secure the collections of minerals and plants of the late Dr. Holmes, and these, with what remained of available material in my cabinet, formed the nucleus of our Museum. It was, however, very small, and without any funds to promote its increase. Donations were then solicited from scientific friends, and with the duplicates of our collections and what could be procured in expeditions undertaken in the summer vacations, we were able to organise a system of profitable exchanges. More important aids gradually came, in connection with the completion of our building, by Mr. William Molson, and his donation for a museum fund, in the noble gift of the Carpenter collection of shells, and the room provided to contain this; until finally, almost without any expense to the general funds of the college, our collections have grown to such dimensions that they could justify the erection of the splendid building now in progress.

Other departments have entered upon and proceeded some way in the same course, and before many years may attain to the same developement. The beginning of our library dates from 1855. Thanks to the generosity of Mr. Molson it has secured an admirable room, but not until it had grown to some extent in temporary quarters. Since it has been transferred to the William Molson Hall, it has increased, almost without expense to the College, at the rate of nearly a thousand volumes annually; and at a similar rate of increase for another decade, it will either wholly occupy this hall or will require a large separate building for itself. I have no doubt that if the University could have afforded adequate salaries for a librarian and assistant, it would already have greatly outgrown its present accommodations, and might have attracted the attention of some one willing to erect a great library building. Our little observatory, built to facilitate the meteorological work of the late Dr. Smallwood, had a tower for a telescope attached to it, when we had no such instrument, but it was destined to be occupied by the telescope presented to us by Mr. Blackman, and which we had thus the means to accommodate. It is yet on a small scale, but in connection with the practical demands arising in this country for astronomical and meteorological work, I regard it as the germ of greater things. In 1855 the University possessed a small collection of philosophical apparatus, originally

procured to illustrate the lectures of Dr. Skakel, one of the pioneers of Canadian science, and which, with some additions, served for several years as our only means of illustration in experimental physics; but the good use made of it by our professor stimulated that truly handsome gift of the members of our Board of Governors, by which it has become probably the most modern and serviceable apparatus in the Dominion. If not otherwise, I have no doubt that before a very long time has elapsed, those who have by its means acquired an insight into the wonders and triumphs of modern physical research, will establish in connection with it a physical laboratory with ample means for practical study, and special endowments for experimental physics. The establishment of our Faculty of Applied Science and the appointment of able professors to carry on its work, at once called forth handsome gifts and subscriptions. It has only recently received a large bequest; and the attempt, under certain disadvantages, to train some of our students as mining engineers, has not only led to important donations of specimens, but also to the presentation of that beautiful set of mining models, unique in this country, and which will be suitably lodged and displayed when our specimens in Geology shall be transferred to the new Museum.

The lesson as to the future which I would deduce from all this, is that to appreciate beforehand the educational wants of our country and to enlist competent and earnest men in successful effort to meet these wants, will secure means and materials, and attract students. Thus, in our circumstances, every step must be taken in faith, and must look to the future as well as to the present.

Perhaps this thought may better prepare your minds for some subjects to which I next turn, and in which we have as yet been able to make little progress beyond that of sowing a few seeds which may some day germinate.

Under this head I may first refer to what, by rigid educational conservatives, are somewhat contemptuously called fancy chairs or fancy subjects of education. As an illustration I may take History, or if you prefer this, Modern History, not excluding the History of Canada.

if you will consult that now somewhat antiquated publication the Calendar of McGill College for 1855-6, you will find there

the name of a gentleman well known as an able educator, as Professor of Ancient and Modern History; so that we began well in relation to this subject. It soon, however, became necessary to transfer the occupant of the Chair of History to another and more onerous position. In these circumstances, to keep faith with the students who had entered on the course, it was necessary for a session that I should myself deliver the lectures on History, which I accordingly did; but other duties soon rendered even this make-shift impossible, and we were obliged to content ourselves with the ancient history connected with the course in Classics and such modern history as was included in the subject of English Language and Literature. Beyond this we could do nothing, except in securing one course of lectures in English History from Prof. Goldwin Smith, and in assigning the medals given by Lord Dufferin to a course of historical reading. I confess I have always regretted this enforced retreat from the position of 1855, and have looked with longing eyes to this abandoned outwork of our position. When, therefore, two years ago, we were so fortunate as to secure the services of the present associate Professor of English Literature, the title of Professor of History was bestowed on him, and it was arranged that so far as his other onerous duties would permit, some time was to be given to modern history, to which, however, in the circumstances we could assign merely an optional and honour place. I have reason to know that this arrangement has already done good, and while it is a present benefit to many of our students, it may be the entering point of the wedge which shall ultimately open up for us a regular historical course. In point of fact, however, this subject, important though it is to every educated man, and fraught with the highest lessons of human wisdom, has some inherent difficulties as a branch of academical study. In so far as a mere general knowledge is concerned, any educated man can attain this in an easy and delightful manner by his own reading. On the other hand, to attain to any fitness for profound or original research, requires a thorough preliminary training, more especially in languages and literature, rather than any premature entrance on the direct study of history. Again, it is a subject which, to produce its highest results, should be taught not by one instructor merely, however competent, but by several advanced specialists wholly devoted to particular departments,

and capable of exciting some enthusiasm in these. Farther, it is extremely difficult to secure for a subject of this kind adequate time in the regular college course, especially in its earlier years, and hence it becomes relegated to the sphere of optional work taken at best by a few. It is also difficult in a country so practical as this to obtain endowments for work of this kind; and without these it is scarcely possible to secure for any except the most essential subjects any adequate recognition from a College Faculty. Our present method of dealing with it is to exact a certain amount of reading in ancient history from junior students, and to render accessible to senior students a short course in some portion of modern history, as an aid and inducement to farther study after graduation. Perhaps, if we could supplement this by special courses of lectures, delivered, not by a regular professor, but by some historian selected annually by the University, we should satisfy fully present wants in this department. Endowments for temporary lecturerships of this kind are not infrequent in other universities, and they may be a means of doing much good, while less costly than the endowment of permanent chairs.

Another important topic to which our attention has often been turned, is the higher education of women. Without referring at all to professional training, which is quite a distinct subject, I would here speak only of general academical education. With reference to this, it is scarcely necessary to argue for the desirableness of securing to women an education equal in quality and extent to that provided for men. This question has now been settled in all the more civilized nations. Two others remain on which there may be difference of opinion. One is as to whether the higher education of women should be precisely similar to that of men; and the other, whether the two sexes should be educated together or separately. In answering these questions it seems to me that if grounds of economy alone were to regulate our choice, we should decide in favor of similar education and co-education. But if we reason on higher and broader grounds, we should prefer a special education in separate colleges. My reasons for this are such as the following:—First, the regular curriculum in our colleges for men is hampered with survivals from past states of society, and with requirements for professional pursuits, while a higher education for women should be more modern in its scope and based on a higher ideal of æsthetic,

intellectual and moral culture. Secondly, there are important considerations, both physiological and mental, which render it inexpedient that women should compete with men in the hard and rough struggle of college life as at present constituted, and experience shows that in the education of women the ruder and stronger stimuli applied to young men are not needed. Thirdly, there are practical inconveniences and dangers attending the education of young men and women in the same classes, especially when they belong, as is inevitable in this country, to very different social grades. Fourthly, in the United States, where the condition of society is not very dissimilar from our own, both methods are being tried on a somewhat large scale, and the verdict of public opinion seems to be in favor of colleges where a special and distinct education is provided for women alone.

While stating these reasons, I must admit that the only experiment in co-education which we have carried on, that of the McGill Normal School, has for more than twenty years been conducted with entire success. But there the conditions are peculiar. It is a professional school attended by pupils animated by an earnest desire to qualify themselves for a useful and honorable vocation, and the women are largely in the majority, so that it is rather a question of the education of a few young men in a college for women.

In one or other of these ways, however, the higher education of women is now provided for in most civilised countries. At the recent meeting of the Association of Protestant teachers of this Province, Rev. Canon Norman directed attention to this, in an elaborate paper, and showed that in Italy, Switzerland, Austria, Holland, Denmark and Sweden, women are admitted to the Universities. New Zealand, Australia and India have, it seems, taken the lead of other dependencies of the British Empire in this matter. In England itself, Cambridge and Oxford have colleges and halls where women are trained for their examinations. The University of London has opened its examinations to women, and they are admitted to the classes in University College and other colleges affiliated to the University.

There can be little doubt that in this branch of education Canada as yet lags somewhat behind, and it has, I confess, been a matter of humiliation to myself that we have hitherto been able to do so little toward giving our country a higher place. In this

University our action has been limited to three agencies. We have aided and superintended the McGill Normal School, which is in many important respects a college for women. We have assisted the Ladies' Educational Association of Montreal, which has been doing good educational work, and preparing the public mind for something more systematic. We have established higher examinations for women, leading to the title of Senior Associate in Arts, which is in some sense an academical degree. As to the future, if a college for ladies were established in Montreal and affiliated with our University, there would be no difficulty in admitting its students to examinations and degrees, without any material additions to our present regulations. Substantial aid could also be given to such an institution in the use of our books, our apparatus and our collections in natural history, as well as in lectures by some, at least, of our professors.

With increased facilities and means, we might take upon our own staff a large part of the educational work of such an institution. As an example I may mention that the new Peter Redpath Museum is so planned that it will admit of separate classes for male and female students; and I think I may pledge myself that in it, after 1881, ladies can have quite as good opportunities for the study of Botany, Zoology and Geology, as those enjoyed by our male students. Similar benefactions to that of Mr. Redpath, more especially if of such a nature as to permit the division of some of our present chairs, might enable us in like manner to open classes for women in Languages, Literature, Mathematics, Physical Science and Philosophy; and this without any of the embarrassments incidental to teaching both sexes in the same classes.

There are in Montreal two educational benefactions for the higher education of women, those of the late Donald Ross and of the late Ann Scott; but we are told that it is not unlikely that these must remain unfruitful for more than twenty years. Reckoning the college life of a young woman at four years, this represents five generations of lady students. I feel confident that this loss and waste will not be submitted to by such a city as this, and that, either such additions will be made to the Ross and Scott bequests as to bring them into earlier operation, and give them a sufficiently wide basis, or the means will be furnished to the University itself to take up the work.

Another question which concerns our future, is that which relates to the employment of native or imported teachers. Of course in a question of this kind extreme views are simply absurd. To determine that we shall never go beyond what our own country can produce, would be to doom ourselves to stagnation and perhaps to retrogression. To determine that we should employ only teachers from abroad would involve us in hopeless difficulties. Wise men and wise nations will do all that they can to develop their own resources, but will seize every opportunity to obtain from abroad that which may tend to progress and improvement. No educational institution can afford, when it has vacancies to fill, to take anything less than the best men it can obtain anywhere. Other things being equal, native learning and ability may claim a preference, and they have undoubtedly the best chances of success. Practically, however, it must be borne in mind, that in this country, few young men can be induced to devote themselves to education as a profession. The work of the merely general teacher has few attractions and holds forth no prizes. The positions requiring special teachers are few in number, and the preparation necessary for them is not within the reach of all, while the talents specially fitting for them are still more rare. It is not wonderful, therefore, that few of our graduates in Arts enter on any special preparation for educational work. A larger number of professional graduates find opportunities for teaching in connection with the pursuit of their professions. On reference to actual facts, I find that in this University, twenty-six of our professors and lecturers are Canadians, and of these the greater part are graduates of our own. Besides these, I have reason to believe, that at least as many more of our graduates hold professorships and other important teaching positions in other institutions. For a University which has been sending out graduates for only a little more than twenty-five years, this is no discreditable record. In the future I anticipate still greater progress in this direction, and none the less that we may occasionally induce a man of learning from abroad to join our ranks and give to some of our subjects of study a new impetus. As a British American myself, I would deprecate as discreditable to my country any attempt to hinder the fair competition of men from abroad with ourselves, or to deprive this country of the benefits it may undoubtedly receive

from the occasional introduction of ability and learning from without our borders. No civilized nation indulges in such eccentricities, and in our time even China and Japan would put us to shame were we to impose prohibitory duties on foreign brains.

In connection with this subject, however, I desire to point out a fallacy or rather a group of fallacies, relating to collegiate work, more especially in the Faculty of Arts, and which I fancy does some mischief. Our course of study is often spoken of as necessarily much more imperfect than that of institutions abroad, because the average Canadian student enters college less perfectly prepared than is the case in some other countries, because we have fewer professors and students than some colleges of greater age and resources, because we are supposed to have a lower standard of scholarship in some of the older subjects, and because our course of study is more varied than it should be. Without entering into the question how far these charges are well founded, and if you will admitting them all as evils incident to our position, I still maintain that our system is specially suited to obviate their effects and to produce the style of educated man needed in this country.

In the first place we have a regular and definite course in the first two years, and every student must pass on equal terms in the Intermediate Examination at the end of the second year. We thus endeavour to lay a good groundwork of what may be termed elementary collegiate education, and this with us includes so much of modern literature and science as to enable the student at least to form some estimate of his own powers and tendencies relatively to such subjects. In the third and fourth years, the student may continue the regular course, and this may be to his advantage with regard to some kinds of professional life. On the other hand, he may, if his tastes or gifts so indicate, devote himself to any one of several honour courses of a high class, and may graduate in honours. He will thus be fitted to enter at once into original work in some one department, or to pursue farther either here or elsewhere the speciality he may have chosen. Still farther, after graduation young men may pursue with us what in the United States are called post-graduate courses, by taking for one or two years the honour work in one or more of the courses which they may not have pursued as undergraduates.

On the other hand, our honour graduate is in a position to continue his studies independently, or under the guidance of specialists in this and other countries. In many cases it will be the best course for him to go abroad, as the highest special teaching in all subjects cannot be found in any one country. Germany has for some time been a favourite resort of such special students; but as a matter of fact, quite as many resort thither from the Universities of Great Britain and the United States as from those of Canada, and I know it to be the case that our men show themselves as well prepared to profit by the advantages they may have access to as those of any other country. But in the majority of cases the Canadian Bachelor of Arts employs the education he has received as a means of entering at once on some professional pursuit in his own country, and he is generally successful. I have seen a far greater proportion of half educated men prove failures than of College graduates, and while it is not uncommon to find that educated men cast upon our shores from other countries prove quite unfit for the conditions of life here, I have not seen many of the children of Canadian colleges reduced to beg their bread.

Those interested in higher education in Canada have noticed, it may be with some concern, the ventilation in the press of projects for a National Examining University to take all our colleges under its wing, and by securing uniformity and a high standard of degrees to introduce a sort of educational millennium. Such schemes are captivating to enthusiastic minds not aware of the difficulties involved in them; and they are stimulated by the evils which arise from that multiplication of small colleges with University powers which has been carried much too far in some parts of Canada. It may be admitted that with reference to some departments of professional education we need a Dominion Registering Board, which would give a right to practise in any part of Canada, and which might also secure reciprocity in some professions with the Mother country. The Dominion Government should undoubtedly reclaim out of the hands of the several provinces the power, now so much misused in some quarters, to determine professional qualifications to practise, and thus secure to every Canadian a possible national, and not merely a provincial career. But this does not require a national university, but merely a Central Board of Registration, having power to regulate to

a certain extent the standard of the several teaching and examining bodies, on such broad general principles as those of the Medical Council of Great Britain. Canada will fail to attain one of the most important advantages of union until this reform is effected.

The establishment of a General University is, however, a very different thing, and one involving very serious considerations. The examinations of a General Examining Board must either be fixed at the level attained by the weaker colleges, or these must by legislative provision be raised to the standard of the stronger, or they must be crushed altogether. Any of these alternatives, or any attempt to adopt an intermediate course, must be fraught with danger to education, and would probably lead to bitter and troublesome controversies. Another difficulty would result from the attempt to subject to identical examinations the students of Catholic and Protestant colleges, and of those whose course of study is narrow and uniform, and those which cultivate options and honour studies or have a wider general course. Either grave injustice must be done, or there could be no uniform standard for degrees. Again, in a national university every examination would require to be based on some established text-book or set of text-books. Thus all teachers and their pupils would be thrown on a sort of procrustean bed, where the longer would certainly be cut short even if the shorter were not lengthened. In other words the progressive and original teachers in any subject would be discouraged, while the man of routine would carry the day. Hence such general examining boards are especially obnoxious to advanced educationists and to the advocates of scientific education. Another evil of a general system of this kind is that it tends to take the examinations out of the hands of the actual teachers and to give them to outside examiners, in my judgment a fatal mistake in any University system. As these evils are by no means so generally appreciated as they should be, I venture to quote here two opinions, respecting them from English sources. One is from the report of the Royal Commissioners on the Scottish Universities, the other from a well-known scientific journal. The Commissioners say :—

“ The examination of the students of a University for their degrees by the Professors who have taught them, is sometimes spoken of as an obvious mistake, if not abuse; but those who are practically acquainted with

University work will probably agree with us that the converse proposition is nearer the truth. In fact, it is hard to conceive that an examination in any of the higher and more extensive departments of literature and science can be conducted with fairness to the student, unless the examiners are guided by that intimate acquaintance with the extent and method of the teaching to which the learner has had access, which is possessed only by the teachers themselves. The admirable influence which the Scotch Universities have hitherto exerted upon the people of that country has been due not only to the prolonged and systematic course of mental discipline to which their students have been subjected, but to the stimulus and encouragement given to inquiring minds by distinguished men who have made the professorial chairs centres of intellectual life; and we cannot think it desirable that any such changes should be made as would tend to lower the Universities into mere preparatory schools for some central examining board."

The scientific editor is more sharp in his condemnation:—

"The calendar of the central board must inevitably embody only the best-known and most widely-diffused results of knowledge—not that which is growing and plastic, but which has already grown and hardened into shape—the knowledge, in fact, of a past generation which has become sufficiently well established to be worthy of this species of canonisation. A very powerful inducement is thus offered to the professors of the various colleges to teach their pupils according to this syllabus, and a very powerful discouragement to attempt to alter it. They may be men of great originality and well qualified to extend and amend their respective spheres of knowledge, but they have no inducement to do so. It is the old and time-honored custom of killing off the righteous man of the present age in order the more effectually to garnish the sepulchres of his predecessors."

I am glad to say that the statutes of this University recognise the right of the Professors to be ex-officio examiners, though additional examiners may be appointed by the Corporation.

It would seem, therefore, that with all its evils, whatever they may be, we must cultivate educational competition as the only means of real progress. I would not, however, wish to be understood as objecting to that union of separate colleges around a central University which we have been endeavoring to carry out here, which has long been in operation in the older English universities, and which, in a form very nearly akin to our Canadian ideas, is being introduced in the recently chartered Victoria University of the North of England. This voluntary association of several educational bodies for the common good is very different from the enforced and mechanical union of a national university; and if wisely managed, with mutual forbearance and consideration, and a general love of progress, may

produce the best effects. McGill University has so far been more successful than any other in Canada, in this aggregation of teaching bodies. We have not only our four Faculties and Normal school, but two affiliated colleges in the principal seats of Protestant population in this Province outside of Montreal, and four affiliated Theological Colleges. Thus we have in all eleven teaching institutions united in our University system—not by force from without, but voluntarily. In these circumstances we can realize the benefits of union of colleges and examiners, while retaining our independence and avoiding the evils attendant on a single examining board. Looking forward to the future, our system seems much more likely to be successful than the crude and untried projects to which I have referred.

In the introduction to this lecture I have made some remarks regarding endowments, and have stated that the McGill endowment and the additions made to it may be considered as having reached the limit of their productiveness and utility, while the demands made on them are likely constantly to increase. We thus invite additional benefactions, whether by gift or bequest. That we shall receive these in increasing amount I have no doubt, and the experience even of the past year testifies to this. I could wish, however, that in this matter those of our friends who could afford to do so, would become their own executors, and thus enjoy the pleasure of seeing the effects of their liberality. This is especially desirable when benefactors are interested in any special object, since in the case of bequests, circumstances may so change before they become operative, as to deprive them of much of their value, unless they are devoted merely to the general uses of the College and not to particular objects. There is no doubt a sad and tragic responsibility attached to the gifts of the dead, which always weighs heavily on my own mind, and which I hope will ever be felt by those who have the management of the affairs of this University. In this connection I think it right to refer to two recent benefactions, that of Ann Scott to the Ross Institute, and that of her sister to this University. These two maiden ladies, bereaved of their near relatives, and alone in the world, of the injustice of which they supposed they had no small reason to complain, withdrawing themselves from society, and falling into those little eccentric ways which are natural to the aged and solitary, but of which only the

silly and hard-hearted can make a jest, occupied their thoughts with the disposal of their modest patrimony, so that when they should cease to need it, some good might be done to others. The picture is one to be studied by those who heap up or recklessly expend wealth for selfish enjoyment and display, and also to be taken to heart by those who are called on to administer such bequests, and who should feel that it were foul sacrilege to misapply to any merely selfish end the smallest portion of money so given.

A project for the future, to which I had wished to direct your attention, is that of a lodging-house for students. This, I believe, will soon be most desirable if not necessary. It must not be a prison or a monastery, but a home, not a make-shift but thorough and sufficient. If students are to be confined in small unventilated dormitories, serving both for study and repose, and to be herded together like prisoners under compulsory rules, I perceive no advantage that may not be secured in private lodgings, and I see danger both to health and morals. But if I could see, as I have seen in some of the noble college foundations of the United States, halls in which each student might have a separate bedroom and study-room, large, well lighted and well ventilated, and looking out on a pleasant prospect, I should then appreciate the facilities afforded for comfort, work and good conduct. Should the means be given to erect such a building, the plans for its construction and management can easily be matured. In our present circumstances a dining hall alone would be a great convenience, and it might, as in Harvard, be combined with a University theatre suitable for our public meetings and exercises. Perhaps rooms, dining hall, and theatre might economically be united in one large building. I am glad to learn that one of our citizens designs to erect such a building for the Presbyterian Theological College, and I could wish that similar benefactions could be secured for the other theological colleges and for the University itself.

If at the end of this, I fear somewhat dry, discourse, I were to give you a text on which to hang its disunited parts, I might, though in a humbler sphere, adopt that of the great Christian apostle, wherein he says that, "forgetting the things that are behind," in so far of course as they were evil and imperfect, he "reaches on to those which are before." This, at least, might

serve as a good motto for a Canadian educationist in our time. But the things that are before are boundless, and but a very few can possibly be fulfilled in the time of those of us who are becoming aged. We must leave them as an inheritance to our successors; and here I may mention that in my college office will be found a somewhat bulky package of papers labelled "unfinished and abortive schemes," of which enough remain to provide the material for several such lectures as the present, should any one desire to follow up the subject.

In closing, allow me to say one word to students, some of whom may perhaps think that too little of the University belongs to the present, too much to the future. I would say to you, gentlemen, do not be discouraged by the fact that so much remains to be done. Rather congratulate yourselves on the privileges you enjoy beyond those of your predecessors, and resolve that you will do your part in carrying on the work they have begun. Under a rational and truly living system of collegiate training, like that which prevails here, though it may be imperfect in some of its details, you are sure to find more than with your best efforts you can fully master. Your ultimate success depends mainly on yourselves, and you may rest assured that the habits of mental application, of continuous study, of ready and accurate expression, which the diligent student is sure to acquire, and the insight into and love of the intellectual labour of the great men who have gone before you, constitute acquisitions so great for the practical uses of life, that you need not envy those who may succeed you within these walls, even in the brighter days which we may anticipate in the future. Nor if you avail yourselves of the advantages within your reach here, will you find any reason when you go abroad to be ashamed of your *alma mater*, or of the plain though wholesome fare with which she nourished your growing mental powers.

THE DEATH OF A STUART.—Count D'Albanie—Charles Edward Stuart—died suddenly on board a steamer coming from Bordeaux on the night of Christmas Eve. His corpse was taken on shore soon after death, and temporarily interred in a graveyard on the Garonne, preparatory to being brought to Scotland to be placed by the side of his brother, John Sobieski Stolberg Stuart, at the burial-ground of Eskdale, on the estate of Lord Lovat. He was in his 82nd year. His father, James Stuart Count d'Albanie, is believed by many persons to have been the legitimate son of Prince Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender" as he was called, by the Princess Louise Clementina Sobieski of Stolberg.—*Pall Mall Budget*.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The quarterly meeting of the Teachers' Association, held on January 21st in the hall of McGill Normal School, Belmont street, was very largely attended. The President, Dr. Robins, occupied the chair. The real business of the meeting was the consideration of the recently passed Bill for the Superannuation of Teachers, and a great deal of interest was manifested in the remarks of Dr. Robins, who introduced the subject. The speaker who is familiar with insurance statistics, held that while a Bill to provide retiring allowances for aged or disabled teachers was most desirable, the present enactment was impracticable. Dr. Robins proved conclusively that in order to provide pensions to the amount called for by the Act, at least $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. would have to be paid in by the teachers from their salaries, while the Act only called for 2 per cent. The report of the Treasurer, Mr. S. H. Parsons, was presented, and showed a balance to the credit of the association. The membership during the present year had almost doubled, and the prospects of the Society were most encouraging. Owing to the lateness of the hour, a full discussion of the subject was adjourned, in order that members might carefully consider the provisions of the Act, and also the statements and arguments put forth by Dr. Robins. The discussion will be resumed at a future meeting.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE PROTESTANT
BOARD OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

Our readers will be glad of the following statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners, for the year ending June 30th, 1880. For the details we are indebted to the courtesy of the Superintendent.

The Schools maintained by the Board during the period were:—(1) The High School of Montreal (including the Preparatory High School); (2) the High School for Girls; (3) the Senior School; (4) six Model Schools of Senior Grade, viz.: the Point St. Charles School, the Royal Arthur School, the Anne Street School, the British and Canadian School, the Sherbrooke Street School,

the Panet Street School; (5) the Dorchester Street School of Intermediate Grade; and (6) Two Schools of Primary Grade, viz.: the Mill Street School and the Ontario Street School. To these must be added two Schools subsidized by the Board—the St. George's School and the Hebrew School.

The above schools have all been kept open during the scholastic year, of ten school months, of twenty days each on the average.

The number of teachers employed has slightly varied from month to month. During June, 33 teachers were employed in the High and Senior Schools. Of these, six taught only in the High School for boys, nine only in the High School for girls, six only in the Preparatory High School, and three only in the Senior School; the remaining nine teachers taught in more than one of the above Schools. The total number of days of absence from duty for the above 33 teachers was 120½, and the total number of times late was 49.

In the same month, June, 75 teachers were employed in the Common Schools (nine in number), enumerated above. The total absence from duty in these Schools was 268 days, of which 145½ days were made up by absences of 10 persons, due to sickness, as vouched for by medical certificates. The total number of late marks was 80.

In the Schools subsidized by the Board, five teachers were employed.

In the High School, 434 boys and 252 girls were enrolled during 1879–80. The average monthly enrolment was 371 boys and 214 girls. The average daily attendance was 344 boys and 202 girls. Against boys, 1,617 late marks were recorded, and against girls 672.

In the Senior School, 106 boys and 109 girls were enrolled during the year. The average enrolment monthly was, 53 boys and 63 girls. The average daily attendance was 111 pupils, and 217 late marks were recorded.

In the Common Schools, 2,143 boys and 2,004 girls attended during some part of the past year. On the average, 1,530 boys, and 1,498 girls were enrolled each month. 2,543 pupils attended each school day, and 11,319 late marks are reported.

In the schools subsidized by the Board 76 boys and 87 girls were enrolled each month.

The total number of teachers whose salaries are wholly paid by the Board is 101, and the number of pupils enrolled each month in schools wholly or partially maintained by it was, in 1879-80, 3,802; less than the number of the year preceding by 187 pupils.

The income of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners is derived partly from a school tax on the Protestant property of this city of a fifth of one per cent annually, collected by the City Treasurer, and paid over by him to the Board half-yearly, partly from the Common School Fund, partly from the Superior Education Fund, and partly from School Fees. During the year ending June 30th, 1880, the income from these several sources was :—

City School Tax.....	\$67,780 00
Government Grant, Common School Fund.....	3,737 12
Grant from Superior Education Fund for education of 30 Free Pupils.....	1,185 00

SCHOOL FEES.—HIGH SCHOOLS.

Ordinary Fees, High School, Montreal.....	\$7,253 00
Ordinary Fees, High School for Girls.....	6,894 75
Ordinary Fees, Preparatory High School.....	4,679 00
Ordinary Fees, Art School.....	171 25
	<hr/>
	\$18,998 00

COMMON SCHOOLS.

Point St. Charles School.....	\$ 762 50
Mill Street School.....	102 05
Royal Arthur School.....	1,187 20
Ann Street School.....	1,106 40
Senior School.....	613 50
Ontario Street School.....	265 50
British and Canadian School...	1,081 00
Sherbrooke Street School.....	1,354 60
Dorchester Street School.....	375 50
Panet Street School.....	817 40
	<hr/>
	\$ 7,665 65
	<hr/>
	\$26,663 65

A total income for the year of.....\$99,365 77

The expenditure from year to year may be divided into the following items :—(a) Cost of maintenance of schools, including salaries of teachers, &c., as below. (b) The interest, at 6 per cent., on \$300,000 of bonds issued, and the sinking fund for their redemption. This is annually retained by the City Treasurer from the School Tax. (c) Expenditure on land, buildings and

furniture. (d) Interest on mortgages and over-drafts at the Bank. (e) Expenses of administration. These items in 1879-80 amounted to:—

Schools.	Salaries.	Stationery.	Charges.	Fuel.	Repairs.	(Gas, Water and Assessments.)	Total.
High School, of Montreal.....	\$3,560 97	\$176 67	\$227 16	\$274 65	\$268 40	\$774 91	\$15,282 76
Girls' High School.....	7,275 33	124 06	155 26	274 65	199 88	774 91	8,804 09
Preparatory High School.....	3,608 29	52 87	71 25	65 27	95 74	121 25	4,014 67
Point St. Charles School.....	2,997 96	33 19	81 00	348 10	79 90	266 55	3,808 80
Mill Street School.....	541 60	20	50	35 72	11 90	3 80	593 72
Royal Arthur School.....	4,734 92	89 73	139 07	300 44	349 97	405 97	6,020 10
Ann Street School.....	5,311 27	64 92	102 58	427 97	908 78	300 01	7,115 53
Senior School.....	4,405 04	38 83	56 38	288 47	38 35	161 25	4,988 32
British & Canadian School.....	4,737 22	49 04	80 34	266 40	136 59	174 13	5,443 72
Sherbrooke Street School.....	5,024 12	60 85	79 84	368 62	116 36	218 25	5,868 04
Dorchester Street School.....	1,932 00	10 57	9 28	119 78	70 80	63 15	2,205 68
Ontario Street School.....	1,238 06	13 21	22 69	113 52	15 94	7 25	1,410 67
Panet Street School.....	4,159 92	69 15	88 52	361 94	232 71	189 34	5,101 58
Model School, Stanley Street..	360 00	360 00
Hebrew Schools.....	1,232 40	1,232 40
	\$61,119 10	\$783 29	\$1,133 97	\$3,245 53	\$2,525 32	\$3,460 87	\$72,248 08

School expenses brought over.....	\$72,248 08
Prize Books, &c., School Examinations.....	566 01
Total.....	\$72,814 09
Interest and Sinking Fund.....	24,849 48

EXPENDITURE ON LAND, BUILDINGS, AND FURNITURE.

Panet Street School House.....	\$671 00
Land at Point St. Charles.....	438 48
	<u>\$1,109 48</u>

ADDITIONAL SCHOOL FURNITURE.

High School.....	\$28 00	
Dorchester Street School.....	24 86	
Girls' High School.....	28 00	
Office Furniture.....	60 00	
Senior School.....	9 00	
New High School.....	123 74	
	<u>273 60</u>	
Interest on mortgages, over-drafts, &c.....		1,383 08
Secretary Superintendent's Salary.....	2,000 00	2,111 25
Accountant's Salary.....	1,200 00	
Law Charges.....	4 70	
Office Account.....	206 82	
		<u>3,411 52</u>
Miscellaneous Charges.....	979 91	
Printing.....	56 50	
Advertising.....	62 28	
	<u>1,098 69</u>	
Total Expenditure.....		\$105,668 11

The above statement shows an excess of expenditure over income for the current year of \$6,302.34. Since the year 1876 the School has been reduced, as to the Protestant share, by upwards of \$10,000 annually. The Protestant School Tax of the year 1879 was nearly \$4,000 less than that of the preceeding years. With this very large, rapid and unforeseen reduction of their income, it speaks well for the care and ability of the School Commissioners, that the accumulated debt of all these years of difficulty is only about \$15,000. Indeed, this can scarcely be called debt. For this is the amount by which all the expenses of the Board, up to June, 1880, fall short of the income, up to December, 1879. The day after the rendering of the statement, that is to say, on the 1st July, 1880, the amount due by the City Treasurer to the Board exceeded the whole indebtedness of the Board by some thousands of dollars.

THE LATE JUDGE DUNKIN.

Our last number contained a short Obituary notice of the late Judge, neither space nor time permitting a longer account of his public-spirited career. Christopher Dunkin was born in England in 1812, and had, therefore, completed his 68th year when his death occurred at Lakeside, Knowlton. He was educated at the University of London, (now University College, London), and at the Universities of Glasgow and Harvard, and was attached to the latter for a short time as tutor of Greek. He was married to Mary, daughter of the late Dr. Jonathan Barber, afterwards of McGill University, who survives him. He was engaged during 1837 and 1838 as editor of the Montreal *Morning Courier*, till he became Secretary of the Education Commission, appointed by the Earl of Durham during his tenure of office as Governor-General. He continued as Secretary under Lord Sydenham, and was the author of a Report upon Education, which is one of the most important documents of this nature in the history of Canada. Afterwards he became Secretary of the Post Office Commission, and served from 1841 to 1847 as Assistant-Secretary of Lower Canada. Called to the bar of Lower Canada in July, 1846, he was created a Q.C., in 1867.

In 1857 he was elected member for Arthabaska, but lost his seat at the general election of 1861, being defeated by Mr. Eric Dorion. He was soon, however, returned again, being called to fill a vacancy in Brome County in 1862, which he represented till the Confederation in 1867. In politics he was Conservative and delivered a telling speech against the measure of Confederation. His name is better known as a Social Reformer by the Prohibitive Liquor-Selling Act, (the so-called Dunkin Temperance Act), passed in 1864.

Under the system of dual representation, he was returned again in 1867 by acclamation, as a member of both Dominion and Quebec Parliaments. He was the first Treasurer of the Province of Quebec, filling this post from July, 1867, until November, 1869, when he entered the Dominion Cabinet as Minister of Agriculture. He was also sworn as a member of the Privy Council. In October, 1871, he retired from the ministry to accept a seat on the bench as Puisne Judge of the Superior

Court, of the Province of Quebec, the District of Bedford being assigned to him.

From this time residing at Knowlton, he took an active part in various matters of public interest. He was a trustee of the South Eastern Counties Junction Railway, and an advocate of improvement of Agriculture, his liberal assistance tending to improve farming in his own district. Besides this, he had found time in his life to be President of the Shakespeare Club of Montreal during its existence and he was one of the most accomplished Shakesperian students in the country. He was also a Lieut. Colonel in the volunteer militia, first of the Montreal Light Infantry from 1856 to 1859, and subsequently of the 52nd Battalion, "Bedford," until his elevation to the Bench.

But by us he will be best remembered as a zealous advocate of education. He was a member of the Council of Public Instruction of the Province of Quebec, a D. C. L., of the University of Bishop's College, Lennoxville, a trustee of St. Francis College, Richmond, and a governor of McGill University, in which post he was to have delivered the Annual Address of the year. By his untimely death the duty devolved upon Principal Dawson, who took occasion to pay a graceful tribute to his memory. We must add that he largely assisted in forming the Provincial Teachers' Association and was one of their first Presidents.

For the past year Judge Dunkin had not enjoyed robust health. He still, however, continued at intervals to attend to his judicial duties till within a few weeks of his death, when he reluctantly applied for six months' leave of absence. His illness assuming a serious form terminated fatally on January 6th. His funeral, which was largely attended, took place in Montreal on January 11th. Thus ended a career of public usefulness, the variety of which is only surpassed by the conscientiousness with which its duties were discharged.

THE STUDY OF LATIN.

The study of Latin has long been regarded as the great distinguishing mark between a lower and higher education. Though it is still the recognized portal to our Universities, it has lost caste of late years in the eyes of educationists, and, perhaps, few

can now be found ready to bow down before it with that old-fashioned idolatry, which in its blindness reminds one of fetish worship, and in its affectation, of the passion for high art. I am myself a thorough believer in a classical education. But I do not wish in this place to draw any comparisons between the study of Latin and other subjects as educational instruments. In the great work of bringing out the varied faculties of the human mind there may be and is room for all; and there is no subject capable of being studied seriously and taught systematically, out of which there may not be forged an effective instrument for evoking and fashioning the forces of the mind on one or other of its many sides. The object of this paper rather is to free a time-honored study from the aspersion of non-utility, and to suggest that by more simple and natural methods of teaching much might be done to relieve the tedium and unravel the mystery, which are generally experienced by students of Latin.

In the first place we must find an answer to the question—in what does the *usefulness* of a study consist? To this I reply that a study would be termed more or less useful in proportion as it trains and cultivates the more useful faculties of the mind. This answer being somewhat vague gives rise to another question. Which are the most useful faculties of the mind? Obviously, those faculties by which man has contact with man, I mean thought and speech, the two great human faculties that distinguish us from brutes, the cultivation of which is the grand aim of all education. Let us, therefore, consider how far the study of Latin conduces to the development of these two. Without language thought is impossible. Without a clear understanding of language, clear thought is no less impossible. Therefore, since language is the key to all knowledge, whatever study enables us to gain a clear, precise, and intelligent mastery over language, must be acknowledged to be a very useful study indeed; and I venture to assert that there is no more certain and effective method of gaining such a mastery than by the study of Latin. For what is Latin? A dead language? Aye, but dead only in the sense in which a seed can be said to die in giving birth to new life. Latin is the alphabet of all modern linguistic study, and without it we can no more learn intelligently the languages of to-day, than we can learn to read without the alphabet. To sit down to the study of the language and literature of England,

France, Spain or Italy, as something alien to and independent of Latin would be like travelling through a country rich with historical traditions and splendid with poetical associations without the requisite knowledge and appreciation. An uncritical spectator might be satisfied with the sensuous glory of the scenery; but an enlightened man would feel something very like contempt for one, who with the Alps above his head and the Mincio at his feet was sensible only of the natural beauties of the landscape round him.

It is, therefore, as an introduction and aid to the study of language that Latin derives its chief value as an instrument of education. But its merits do not end here. In the hands of a clever teacher it is much more and may be so handled as to become itself a severe scientific discipline. I shall not dilate upon this point, but content myself with quoting the words of an eminent Scotch professor upon the subject.

"Nor should I hesitate (he says) to pit the classics even against science as a vehicle for training the mind in the use of scientific method. Scientifically taught Latin or Greek will give the teacher the same opportunities of bringing out the faculties of observation and inference which are afforded by scientific study. Pointing out at every step the logical relations involved in the use of cases, moods, and tenses, he will lead the mind to mark informalities and differences, and to grasp the causes of each; to form gradually generalisations, and note the limitations to which each is subject; and thus advancing by regular logical process from the known to the unknown, become gradually familiar with modes of inductive and deductive reasoning strictly analogous to those supposed specially to belong to science."

This is very plain speaking and, whether allowed or not, needs no additional comment. Numerous, however, and very diverse are the other arguments that might be adduced, in recounting the advantages gained by teaching Latin in our schools, but the subject has been discussed often enough by schoolmasters and others, with a very general preponderance of opinion in favor of Latin—not the least significant of the arguments being the significant fact, that boys who learn Latin will generally beat boys who do not, even in those subjects upon which Latin seems to have no direct bearing. Want of scope and time, however, will not allow me to touch upon them. Rather must I hurry on to the more practical part of this paper which discusses the best method of teaching the language.

No doubt, much of the unpopularity of the classics is due to

improper methods of teaching, methods that are too mechanical and, therefore, uninteresting. After years of study, no real insight into the genius of the language is gained, no mastery over it felt, a boy comes to look upon Latin as a mysterious puzzle to be solved by the application of certain set rules which he can only half understand. In illustration, I should like to read to you an extract from one of George Eliot's novels which describes very graphically such an improper mode of teaching and its probable results.

"Perhaps, (she writes) it was because teaching came naturally to Mr. Stelling that he set about it with that uniformity of method and independence of circumstances, which distinguish the actions of animals understood to be under the immediate teaching of Nature. Mr. Broderip's amiable beaver, as that charming naturalist tells us, busied himself as earnestly in constructing a dam, in a room up three pair of stairs in London, as if he had been laying his foundation in a stream or lake in Upper Canada. It was "Binny's" function to build: the absence of water or of possible progeny was an accident for which he was not accountable. With the same unerring instinct Mr. Stelling set to work at his natural method of instilling the Eton Grammar and Euclid into the mind of Tom Tulliver. This he considered as the only basis of solid instruction: all other means of education were mere charlatanism and could produce nothing better than smatterers. Fixed on this firm basis, a man might observe the display of various or special knowledge made by irregularly educated people with a pitying smile: all that sort of thing was very well, but it was impossible these people could form sound opinions. Mr. Stelling very soon set down Tom as a thoroughly stupid lad; for though by hard labor he could get particular declensions into his brain, anything so abstract as the relations between cases and terminations could by no means get such a lodgment there, as to enable him to recognize a chance genitive or dative. This struck Mr. Stelling as something more than natural stupidity: he suspected obstinacy, or, at any rate, indifference, and lectured Tom severely on his want of thorough application. "You feel no interest in what you 're doing, sir" Mr. Stelling would say—and the reproach was painfully true. Whence Mr. Stelling concluded that Tom's brain, being peculiarly impervious to etymology and demonstrations, was peculiarly in need of being ploughed and harrowed by those patent instruments: it was his peculiar metaphor that the classics and geometry constituted that culture of the mind, which prepared it for the reception of any subsequent crop."

With much of exaggeration this seems to contain a sound lesson. Few of us, perhaps, would adhere to our so-called natural system so closely as Mr. Stelling appears to have done. But are we not all more or less inclined that way? Professor Blackie and others have laid down a very different course—one that is

closely allied to that which we successfully follow to-day in teaching French or other modern languages—and is there any reason why the study of Latin should materially differ from the study of a living language? I know none. Let us suppose, then, that we have a class of boys, averaging some ten or eleven years of age, like Tom Tulliver, who are about to commence the study of Latin, and let us endeavour to sketch some reasonable plan of so grounding them in the elements that we may lead them on by a gradual and natural sequence, till they gain something like an intelligent mastery over the characteristic differences of idiom, and finally are enabled successfully to grapple with that grand problem, a complex Latin sentence with the variety of accessory circumstances arrayed in as many subordinate clauses.

E. W. ARTHY.

(*To be continued.*)

THE DIVISION OF SCHOOL TAXES.

The question of the apportionment between the Catholic and Protestant School Commissioners of the tax collected from Corporations down in the neutral panel is likely to be reopened, the latter taking the stand that as long as the education of the people is of a sectional or religious character as opposed to national, each sect should support its own schools, and one religious body should not be taxed, as is the case in the neutral panel, to support the schools of the other.

On Jan. 19th a letter was read from the Protestant Board of School Commissioners, asking the Council to support them in an application to Parliament to amend the existing school law. The petition is as follows:—

“ To the Mayor and Aldermen of the Corporation of the City of Montreal :

“ GENTLEMEN,—The Protestant Board of School Commissioners of the City of Montreal beg to state to the City Council, that a Committee of the Board having met the representatives of the Roman Catholic Board of School Commissioners on the subject of the school taxes paid into the neutral panel, and having reported to the Board the result of such interview,

“ The Board beg leave to represent :

“ That since the year 1875 there has existed between the two Boards a tacit understanding in regard to the property of Corporations and Incorporated Companies to the effect that the school tax derivable from each Company

should be apportioned according to the expressed desire of such Corporations and Incorporated Companies.

"That lately the Roman Catholic School Commissioners having ascertained that such understanding was illegal requested an investigation into the question. This could not be consented to inasmuch as the assessment roll of each year, not being objected to during the term fixed by law, is closed, and cannot legally be disturbed subsequently.

"That inasmuch as both Boards have always acted with the utmost harmony and good feeling, our Board would gladly have entered into the investigation, if they could have done so legally.

"That there is a doubt in regard to the powers of the Boards to consent to the division of the funds contributed to the school tax by Incorporated Companies in accordance with the practice which has been followed by both Boards since 1875.

"Wherefore, we would pray Your Honorable Body to support us in an application to Parliament to amend the existing law so that all doubt on this point shall be removed, and so that parties whose property is inscribed on the neutral panel may contribute their taxes to panels No. 1 and No. 2, or to either of them as they may determine by a declaration in writing to that effect filed with the City Treasurer.

"Signed on behalf and by order of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of Montreal.

"JOHN FREDERICK STEVENSON, D.D.,
"Chairman."

The question was referred to the Finance Committee.

SCHOOL HYGIENE.

W. GARDNER, M.D., Professor of Medical Jurisprudence and Hygiene, McGill University.

We are glad to be able to give our readers a full report of this interesting and valuable paper, which was read before the October Convention of Teachers. After some introductory remarks, the reader proceeded to the details of this most important subject:—

The importance of a healthy site for a school-house will surely be admitted on all hands. The necessity for this will be more strongly felt, when we reflect that the class of persons, for whom the building is intended, is peculiarly susceptible to all unhealthy surroundings, and this susceptibility is increased by the closeness of their contact during school hours. Some one has said that one of the best proofs of advanced civilization is the habitual

choice of healthy sites for schools. This fact is especially remarkable in Switzerland, as must strike all who have travelled in that wonderful little republic. For our climate it is of the utmost consequence that the school-house be so placed as, if possible, to have direct sunlight all day long in some parts of the building. It should not, therefore, be overshadowed by hills, trees or houses. Architectural features, however desirable in other respects, ought not to be allowed to interfere with this essential object. It is advisable to direct the four angles of an oblong or square building to the four cardinal points of the compass.

Dampness must be most carefully avoided. This may arise from ponds and swamps, or from too many trees near the school-house. The former must be filled up and the latter removed. But it may be due to impervious soil which does not absorb sufficiently the water which falls on its surface in the form of rain, &c. In such a case, it is necessary to dig a trench around the building and tile-drain the soil under it. There is nothing more certainly proved in the whole range of hygienic science than the fact that consumption, catarrh, bronchitis, rheumatism, and certain other complaints may be and often are caused by dampness of the soil on which dwellings are built.

An important point in the construction of girls' schools is that there shall be as few stairs as possible. It is most undesirable that school-girls in their teens at certain seasons should be subjected to the fatigue of climbing too many stairs. It is not only positively injurious in this way but it does harm by making them unwilling to go out and benefit by fresh air.

The heating and ventilation of the school-house are points of the utmost importance in the severe winter seasons of our northern climate. How shall we best secure an even warm temperature and purity of air without drafts? The average school-house is often too hot, and it is often too cold, and its atmosphere is, in the majority of cases, very impure. Apart from its contamination by numerous breaths, it is fouled by the passage of poisonous gases through cast iron stoves, and rendered unpleasant by the absence of vapor of water, and by the charring of matters in the air of the apartment by contact with the superheated iron of the stove. All stoves, whose construction permits of direct contact of red-hot coal with iron exposed to the air of the apartment, are objectionable, as it is now clearly proved that poisonous gases,

the product of combustion, may pass through red-hot cast iron. The only safe coal stoves are those of the self-feeding pattern, in which provision is made against the possibility of this occurring; whatever the kind of fuel used, the stove must be provided with a vessel for the evaporation of water. Otherwise the atmosphere of the room will be unpleasant and unhealthy.

The temperature will, of necessity, vary in different countries. Habit and custom are of great consequence as affecting this. Well-fed and well-clothed children, who have plenty of exercise and are not pampered, may be quite comfortable at 66° Fahrenheit. Unusual mental strain and other causes, by enfeebling the vital powers, lead most American children to desire a higher temperature than Europeans. In a majority of cases a temperature of 68° to 70° will suffice, but exceptionally 75° to 80° will be necessary.

Ventilation of the school-room is of prime importance and generally neglected or inefficiently attended to. Most school-houses have a characteristic odour just as a prison has. This implies that its atmosphere, walls, ceiling and furniture are charged with emanations from the bodies of the occupants. Much would be gained if this could be removed or prevented. It would imply that the air had been rendered much purer. The most important step toward securing this is cleanliness of skins, heads and clothing. This is often hard to secure, but a good teacher's personal influence will do much to encourage it, and it can be aided by personal visitation of the parents and by tact in throwing out of hints. Next in importance is frequent scrubbing of the walls, wood-work and furniture of the school-room to remove these condensed emanations.

A school-house 25 by 32, by 12½ feet, contains 10,000 cubic feet of air. If it contains fifty pupils, and that is under the average to each class in our Canadian and American schools, each will have 200 cubic feet of air. Under these circumstances, in order to keep the air fresh and pure, it would be necessary to change it 17½ times per hour. These figures will serve to show that it is a difficult problem to ventilate effectually, and maintain the necessary temperature without causing drafts. Time will not permit me to say much about methods, especially to describe the various admirable systems of artificial ventilation and heating, whereby warm, pure air is pumped into the room,

or foul air sucked out, pure air being admitted from outside. The cardinal principle may be here laid down, that every reliable method of ventilation costs something, and that every such method requires on the part of the master or janitor some supervision. However expensive and efficient the system, it will require the expenditure of some brain power, and this had better come from the master than the janitor of a large city school. A few useful hints for ventilating less pretentious structures may be useful. A pipe hole in the school-room with sliding or revolving valve is most useful. Open fire-places are most valuable means of ventilation. In summer when a fire is not necessary for any other purpose than to create the upward current, a lamp may be burnt in the chimney. In ventilating by windows, a piece of board let in so as to occupy the whole of the space when it is raised, prevents cool air coming in below. The pure air from without is then conducted up between the sashes and directed towards the ceiling, where it mixes with the warm air present and diffuses itself, becoming warmed before it reaches the level of persons in the room. In the case of double windows, when both outer and inner sashes are of the sliding pattern, raising the lower outer and lowering the upper inner one is a capital method. The air from outside in passing between the sashes is warmed and reaches the room at the ceiling. In the case of single windows lower the upper sash and adjust a piece of board obliquely in such a way that the entering current of air shall be directed upwards to the ceiling and over to the centre of the room.

The danger of spreading contagious diseases in schools is, I believe, much under-rated, especially in the country. It is a fact well known to physicians, that the infectious fevers are often thus spread. Here is a common occurrence. A child gets an attack of scarlet fever so mild that it is difficult to keep him in bed, perhaps he is kept in bed a day or two only and then allowed to get up, and after a week he is so well that he is sent back to school while still capable of conveying the disease, for, however mild the attack, the child is in this condition for from four to six weeks from the onset of his malady. Why? The skin undergoes a process of peeling which is not complete until nearly the time I have indicated. Every minute particle of skin thus cast off may convey the disease to the healthy. A child in this condition admitted to a large school may indirectly be the

cause of more deaths than the most ferocious wild animal. I am quite sure there are some here who know of families desolated by this disease. Clothing probably often serves as a means of conveyance of scarlet fever. Let me give an instance: a strip of flannel worn around the neck of a child with scarlet fever, put away carelessly for a whole year, without having been disinfected, then taken out and worn by another child, has conveyed the disease. Other diseases, which may certainly be communicated in this way, are small-pox, measles, whooping-cough, diphtheria, ring-worm, and other diseases which, when they affect the scalp, are most seriously disfiguring. It is impossible for a teacher to be too careful in admitting children from families where these diseases have existed. It is not only necessary that he should be careful, but he must have the power to refuse admission. The following excellent rules to prevent the spread of contagion in schools were suggested by the State Board of Health of Massachusetts, in their ninth annual report, issued in 1878: 1. A certificate of vaccination is to be required of every child entering the public schools. 2. Every physician to report to local boards of health all cases of dangerous infectious diseases observed by him, the board to inform the principals of schools; what diseases shall be included in this requirement had better be left to the decision of such board. 3. The existence of any case of such diseases in a house, to exclude the inmates from attendance at schools for a sufficient length of time, the propriety of re-admission being certified by a competent physician. 4. Disinfection of premises and clothing by a board of health, in every house where the above diseases have prevailed. 5. Medical authority to be designated for the purpose of advising teachers and pupils, and pointing out to school committees matters, in regard to which their authority might be used to improve the sanitary condition of schools.

(To be continued..)

THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

This was ably treated by the Rev. E. I. Rexford in a paper before the October Convention. The importance of the question and the interesting information supplied by the paper are our

excuse for the following report. The reader first reverted to the importance of the subject, as his plea for bringing it before the Convention. Teachers ought to be examined, both in the matter to be afterwards taught and the best methods of instruction. The present system of examination was shown to be very imperfect.

"The questions are prepared by a central board and forwarded to local examining boards in different parts of the Province, under seal, with instructions that they are to be opened only in the presence of candidates assembled for examination. These boards consisting largely of lawyers, doctors and others, who have had no experience in teaching, or in conducting examinations, value the answers and forward the results to head-quarters with the recommendation that diplomas be granted to certain applicants. In accordance with the recommendation the diplomas are issued."

The first proposition followed :

"That the present system of examination of teachers is so unsatisfactory that some immediate change is necessary for the well-being of our schools."

In proof of this it was urged that diplomas were too easily granted, the result being a great surplus of teachers.

"That there are now at least three teachers to every two schools in most localities where the 'superior' schools are admittedly inferior and greatly beset with difficulties, shows clearly that the net which is used to separate teachers from non-teachers must be very wide-meshed and defective."

The testimony of those, who have been examined, is sufficient to show the bad way in which examinations are conducted :

"For example, an examination paper is given to the class some time during the morning; dinner hour arrives and the paper is not finished. The candidates are allowed to retire and finish the paper after dinner. At the hotel the candidates meet; they naturally compare notes as to the answers given, and then as to the questions that yet remain. A teacher who is present looking after the interest of his pupils explains the difficult points; these explanations soon become common property. The candidates return to the examination hall so thoroughly refreshed by their dinner, that they can revise their previous answers and finish the paper with the greatest ease."

In this way candidates of inferior ability are enabled to obtain diplomas, and, by offering their services at a lower rate than skilled teachers, bring down the salaries in hard times.

As a result of this, a low estimate is placed upon diplomas by the public.

"The secretary or manager of a school chooses his teacher and then asks her to qualify. The diploma is regarded simply as an instrument to protect him from the results of engaging unauthorized teachers. The idea that the

diploma distinguishes between the worthy and unworthy is never present to his mind."

The examining boards are often composed of interested parties *e. g.* heads of county academies, who have to pass their own pupils. They may be better qualified for the post than doctors or lawyers, yet it gives some academies an unfair advantage. Other incidents of these examinations tend to impair the value of diplomas, such as the fact that there is nothing to compel all the members of the board to share in the examination. Sometimes one man has to do all the work. Sometimes as many as eight subjects are taken in a single day. Meanwhile the standard is very low.

"In reading and dictation two-thirds marks are required. But the methods of marking subjects are so various that two-thirds marks may represent a very high standard or a very low standard. In reading, 66 per cent represents everything or nothing. In dictation, the examiners are directed to use some ordinary school text book. Now, unless there is something very extraordinary about the selection made, or something very peculiar about the method of marking, 66 per cent is an absurdly low standard for the subject of spelling. The standard usually required in the city schools is about 90 per cent, and yet those who are to teach the young are allowed to do one-third of their work wrong and then take a diploma. But when we come to the remaining four of the preliminary subjects, *viz.*, arithmetic, grammar, geography, sacred history, we find that only one-third of the marks is required to secure a diploma. In the three other special subjects of English history, Canadian history and the art of teaching, two-thirds of the aggregate marks are required for a first-class diploma and one-third for a second-class."

Again, a few theoretical questions on the subject of the art of teaching are the only tests submitted to the candidates, who desire to become practical teachers; while in Ontario

"the candidates who pass the local examinations are required to teach for two months in the county model schools, and under the supervision and direction of the head master. At the end of that time they are required to pass another examination in the art of teaching, school law, &c. The head master under whom they have been working reports upon their teaching powers. It is clear that the present standard is very unsatisfactory, and that it amounts to little more than giving a diploma to every one who can present a couple of dollars, an attractive face and a copious flow of tears."

Besides all this, diplomas do not represent the same value. A first-class diploma from one board may be of less value than a second-class from another. For instance,

"those who live on the border land, between the district of St. Francis and Bedford, believe that the one who goes to Stanstead stands a better

chance of getting a diploma than the one who goes to Sweetsburg, other things being equal."

All these points being taken into consideration, there is no escape from the conclusion that the present system of examination of teachers is so unsatisfactory that some immediate change is necessary for the well-being of our schools.

The reader's second proposition was—

"That this unsatisfactory state of things would be removed and the well-being of our schools promoted by the appointment of a central examining board with a higher standard of examination."

In favor of this it was urged that the adoption of a central examining board would secure competent examiners. These should be men themselves engaged in the work of instruction. Teachers ought to have the right of admitting to their own ranks.

"Secondly, by means of a central board an uniform standard would be secured—all diplomas of the same grade having the same value. The questions themselves might be prepared by this central board, and thus they would be better able to value the answers. In the third place, the applicants would be sure of a perfectly just and equitable examination; the examiners, not knowing the applicants, could not possibly be influenced by personal considerations, and local influences would be removed. Under the present arrangements we have the pupils of one academy competing with pupils, who have for their examiner their own teacher, who has been preparing them for this examination, and is therefore anxious to see them succeed. Others are examined by their family doctor, or their father's legal adviser, while others, still, have not the honor of being in any way connected with these dignitaries. Fourthly, the rejection of unworthy candidates would diminish the number of teachers. In the fifth place, it would be a great advantage to future applicants, who would by these means be better equipped before starting to work; as well as to the present staff of teachers, by removing unhealthy competition, owing to the superfluity of cheap but inferior teachers."

In the next place, the diplomas issued by the central board would have a recognized value, and would be appreciated by the public. A diploma would be looked on as a guarantee that the bearer is a properly qualified teacher. The Reader closed with a few words concerning the composition of the board. Only persons constantly employed in literary and educational work and prepared to conduct examinations should be members. This should be taken up by the two Protestant Universities of the Province.

"Let one University be represented by a Mathematical examiner and the other by a Classical examiner; let three other gentlemen be appointed—one

for French, one for English history and geography, and one for the art of teaching, thus constituting the board. The method of conducting the examination would not necessarily differ materially from that which prevails at present. The papers would be prepared by the examining board and sent under seal to the different local centres, the examinations being conducted by the School Inspectors according to regulations furnished by the central board. This would be a wise arrangement for two reasons. In the first place the Inspectors are responsible for the manner in which they do their work, and will do it more faithfully than any irresponsible persons that might be named. And in the second place, as the applicants are to carry on work in their district of inspection they will be interested in securing as good teachers as possible, for the credit of their district and for their own comfort. They would also have to examine and mark the candidates in reading. The written answers would have to be sent under seal to the chairman of the central board, corrected by the different examiners, the results collated and the final decision forwarded to the Inspector for publication in the local papers of his district. Such a change would be followed by the best results, and would in the end prove most satisfactory to all concerned. A change similar to the one suggested has been adopted recently in Ontario."

They had already a system of local boards, the examinations were thorough and the standard high. Yet they considered a central examining board a necessary change.

The Reader concluded by advising the Province of Quebec to follow the example set by Ontario.

REVIEWS.

WORKS UPON TROY.

ILIOS, by DR. HENRY SCHLIEMANN. (Harper & Brothers, New York.)

TROY, by S. G. W. BENJAMIN. (C. Scribner's Sons, New York.)
(For sale at Dawson Brothers.)

Whatever changes may take place in Education, and in the space that Greek and Latin occupy in our present system, the Iliad and Odyssey and the controversies, that have gathered round the name of Homer, will always occupy a prominent place in the thoughts of educated men and women. We have by this time so many translations of varying excellence, that the actual thoughts and words of the Father of Poetry are within the reach of everybody. We need only mention the translations

by Chapman, Pope, Worsley and Derby—Mr. Benjamin, like one “born out of due time,” apparently giving the preference to Pope. But while these resources are open to all who wish to read what Homer himself wrote, we do not know a better guide (within a moderate compass) to what others have written about Homer than Mr. Benjamin’s little volume. Homer’s personality, German and English criticism of the whole subject, and the historical and topographical questions raised by it, are all clearly indicated. This work is one of the Epochs of Ancient History, and is divided into two parts, the first being devoted to the Legend, the second to the Literature and Topography of Troy. In the summary that concludes his work, Mr. Benjamin thus speaks of the great investigator, whose labours with the spade and the pen have been exciting so much interest for the last five years:—

“The investigations of Dr. Schliemann have destroyed the theories of those who sought a site for Troy elsewhere than at Hissarlik, and have seriously threatened the speculations of the critics, who consider the Trojan legend to have no basis in fact; while they have enormously strengthened the faith of those who believe that somewhere, sometime in the remote past, there was a contest or war of races, which gave rise to a ballad literature that resulted in the great epic of Homer.”

Nothing strikes one so much, as the variety of interests to which Dr. Schliemann’s Ilios appeals. It is, besides, sound and satisfactory in the highest degree. From a scientific point of view the notices of the Fauna and Flora of the Troad, as well as of its scenery are interesting; students of archæology and of art will turn with interest to the admirably illustrated pages of this book, the whole ‘get up’ of which is beyond praise. Besides Dr. Schliemann’s share of the work, it includes a Preface and Appendix by Professor Virchow, and Appendices by Professors Mahaffy, Sayce and H. Brugsch-Bey, and by Messrs. Calvert and Duffield. The whole work is appropriately dedicated to the great English Homeric student, Mr. Gladstone. Its interest is enhanced by the Autobiography of the Author and the Narrative of his work at Troy, which form the Introduction. The story of the author’s life is one of the most interesting chapters in the work, and brings out the strong moral character of the author. Dr. Schliemann is a self-made, self-educated man, in whose life commercial success has gone side by side with ever increasing self-improvement. The climax we have in the book before us,

which virtually turns the scale in favour of Hissarlik as opposed to its rival Bounabashi—as the site of the Homeric Ilios. At Hissarlik Dr. Schliemann finds the remains of seven cities, with the third of which, or the burnt city, he identifies the Homeric Troy. He does not, however, attempt to prove the topography of Homer in all cases identical with the Troad as it is now. Time has done a great deal, as in altering the course of the Scamander, but poetical imagination did more.

“While the local features of the site and Plain of Troy were given sufficiently for a broad identification, the bards handled them loosely and at will in point of detail. . . . The imagination of the bards had full play; the small Ilium grew in their songs, in the same proportion as the strength of the Greek fleet, the power of the besieging army, and the great actions of the heroes; the gods were made to participate in the war, and innumerable legends were grouped around the magnified facts. . . . I wish I could have proved Homer to have been an eye-witness of the Trojan war! Alas, I cannot do it! At his time swords were in universal use and iron was known, whereas they are totally unknown at Troy. Besides, the civilization he describes is later by centuries than that which I have brought to light in the excavations. Homer gives us the legend of Ilium's tragic fate, as it was handed down to him by preceding bards, clothing the traditional facts of the war and destruction of Troy in the garb of his own day.”

He considers, however, that Homer was not without personal knowledge of the localities, in which opinion he is supported by Prof. Virchow, but had visited the site in later times when the Æolic Ilium had its Acropolis on Hissarlik and its lower town on the site of Novum Ilium. He considers that his excavations have reduced the Homeric Ilium to its real proportions. These concessions, of course, are differently viewed. Zimmermann remarks that Glaucus has exchanged his golden armour for brazen mail, Schliemann has found a burned city but no longer declares this town to be Troy; Mr. Benjamin hesitates to accept the theory that Troy was no larger than Hissarlik, though “agreeing with Dr. Schliemann that these discoveries amount almost to a solution of the historic reality of the Iliad.” We have said enough to show the importance of this work to all scholars. Its value is increased tenfold by the valuable illustrations, views and plans by which it is accompanied.

SERMONS.

“THE HUMAN RACE” and other sermons, by the late F. W. ROBERTSON. (Harper & Brothers).

SOME ELEMENTS OF RELIGION, (new and cheap edition), by DR. LIDDON. (Rivingtons).
(For sale by Dawson Brothers.)

The two writers, whose names we have grouped together, belong to very different schools of thought. The late Frederick Robertson was a follower of Coleridge and a leading member of the early Broad Church School; Dr. Liddon is the most eloquent exponent of the High Church School, being himself a pupil of Dr. Pusey. Yet the influence exercised by these eloquent divines makes them no unfitting companions to each other. The volume of sermons by Frederick Robertson is a posthumous work. It contains thirty-two sermons or outlines for sermons, preached at Cheltenham, Oxford and Brighton, between April 1846 and Christmas Day 1852. These are printed mostly from autograph notes or manuscripts, and should be read by all who found an interest in Robertson's former volumes. It has been often said that the literature of sermons is over; it is perfectly true that the pulpit does not wield the power it did at the time when political aspirants, like Richard III., found it necessary to tune the pulpits. But the late Frederick Robertson is a marked exception. He has always had a large and appreciative reading public. Besides the sermon that gives its name to the volume, we notice others on National Education, the Progress of Revelation and Pure Religion.

The volume by Canon Liddon is a cheap reprint of the Lent Lectures delivered in St. James' Church, Piccadilly, in the year 1870. They were considered at the time to be the most philosophic and popular of all his works—though surpassed in learning by his widely read Bampton Lectures on the Divinity of Christ. We are glad to see the valuable preface to the 2nd. edition, (1873), reprinted with the volume, though this 3rd edition has a new preface added. It contains six Lectures, the titles of which will indicate its character—(1). The idea of Religion, (2) God, its object, (3) The Soul, its subject, (4) Sin, the obstacle, (5) Prayer, its characteristic action, (6) The Mediator, the guarantee of religious life. Those to whom Canon Liddon is merely “*magni*

nominis umbra," who have never heard this eloquent preacher at St. Paul's or at Oxford, cannot do better than make a beginning with this volume, which is a philosophical exposition of the orthodox belief of the day, by one who has read and thought. These sermons, however, are no mere voice from a cloister. There is always a practical application to every-day life in all that Canon Liddon says. It is one of the sources of his power that mundane matters, such as politics, are often the subjects of his discourses. When it is added that his style is perfectly polished and that he is master of a keen sarcastic humour, his popularity as a preacher will be understood.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

SIR,—I crave permission to urge on parents and others, through your journal, the importance of carefully instructing the young in the English language. But a few days back a lady informed me that she was so tired she wanted to *lay* down. This error is very prevalent among people supposed to be educated. Also, I rather frequently hear persons say that they came *for* to see some one. This expression, I admit, is not ungrammatical. It is found in Scripture, but like the word "afear'd," which has Shakspearian authority, it is antiquated, and has long since been discarded. We have no body like the French Academy to decide, from time to time, what forms and idioms are to pass current among us, but it is very easy to avoid obsolete expressions as well as downright grammatical mistakes. The other day I heard a daughter of wealthy parents say that her mother was *real sick*. This is, I think, an Americanism, but it is surely an error, since the adjective is made to play the part of an adverb. Another person remarked that on such a day he was *that* ill, etc., an abbreviation, I presume, but most uncouth and objectionable. I admit that a certain element of carelessness in such matters enters into our natural constitution, so that the best English scholars make slips at times in conversation, and even in public speaking. In this respect we contrast conspicuously with the French, whose conversation is a marvel of accuracy and precision. But though all of us may at times be slipshod, in some instances, from heedlessness rather than ignorance, it is surely important that the rising generation should become masters of our rich and noble language. As a help to this end, I would suggest a very simple plan, which has been tried with great success. It is to encourage original composition. The young at school or at home should write to their parents or teachers frequent letters, in which they should narrate in their own words the events which have occurred in

their own circle, or in the greater world outside them, or any facts which in the course of their daily work or recreation may have left any impression on their minds. To elder boys and girls some incident in history or biography should be given, which they should reproduce in their own language. This exercise of original composition will gradually impart the power of writing good, forcible, idiomatic English, which is a faculty necessary for both sexes. Young persons will thus, instinctively and almost without knowing the exact reason why, avoid solecisms and select the expression which is appropriate in each particular case. Again some people, as we know, have a peculiar difficulty in spelling. Rules do not seem to help them, but the remedy will generally be found in reading. The eye becomes accustomed to the right form, and the writer adopts it without hesitation. As M. Jourdain, in the immortal play, talked prose without knowing it, so many people almost unconsciously write choice English, and speak with perfect grammatical correctness; but these people have read much, and have learned to express themselves on paper. It is also a good plan to give the young a small portion of classical English prose to learn by heart, especially before they are going to compose. The ear becomes accustomed to the proper construction of sentences, and the selection of fitting verbs and epithets. Competent English teachers will derive much personal interest from the correction of the exercises of their pupils, and may rest assured that no part of their labour is more important in the present day than teaching those under their charge to speak and write thoroughly correct and, I may add, where it is possible, genuinely Saxon English.

I am, yours truly,

SYNTAX.

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

Those who take an interest in such matters always look forward to the able reviews of Continental Literature, given by *The Athenæum* at the close of the year. A summary of these will be interesting. The yield of 1880 seems, on the whole, to have been poor, the correspondents from Denmark and Hungary making special complaint. Portugal has, we are told, been very prolific, but this is partly accounted for by the Tercentenary of Camoens celebrated upon July 10th. Somewhat similar was the Pushkin festival held at Moscow in June, and the celebration of the Belgian *cinquantenaire*, which gave an impulse to both French and Flemish literature in that country. But while a good deal of writing of a popular nature was done in Spain, the work that falls within the domain of the fancy and imagination has been decidedly meagre both here, in France and in Holland. The German correspondent complains that no really great historical work has been done and is not enthusiastic about any branch of letters. Philosophy, it seems, of a Pessimistic town has pauperized the imagination this year. This complaint is specially

made by the writers upon France and Germany. Contributions to the Drama have been poor in Denmark and Sweden, good in Belgium, Norway and Russia. Lyric poetry is flourishing in Denmark and neglected in Norway. Bohemia's poetical work has been mainly Epic. Belgium's best work has been done in Bibliography, and there has been a revival of the study of the classics in Spain.

London has witnessed the unusual sight of plays by two great living poets, performed simultaneously in her theatres. "The Nine Days' Queen, a Romantic Poetical Drama," by Robert Buchanan, has been running at the Gaiety. "The Cup," by the Poet Laureate, has been presented at the Lyceum. This drama is founded upon a tale given by Plutarch in his "Virtuous Deeds of Women." The theme is that of the evil love of an unscrupulous tyrant thwarted, when it seems to be indulged, by the devoted wife of a man whom he has slain. The play is a compromise between the classic and the romantic drama. The villain Synorix is played by the celebrated tragedian, Irving, and the heroine Camma by Miss Ellen Terry. The first house was, as usual, filled by men of eminence in politics and letters (such as Mr. Gladstone and Edmund Yates), and the play has been pronounced a success in every way. "If anything can reconcile to the modern stage that small section of the cultivated public which has hitherto held aloof, it is the class of entertainment now to be seen at the Lyceum." As far as we can judge from short extracts, the poetry is above Tennyson's ordinary dramatic level. The following passage is admirable :—

I once was at the hunting of a lion.
 Roused by the clamour of the chase, he woke,
 Came to the front of the wood—his monarch mane
 Bristled about his quick ears. He stood there
 Staring upon the hunter. A score of dogs
 Gnawed at his ankles. At last he felt
 The trouble of his feet, put forth one paw,
 Slew four and knew it not; and so remained
 Staring upon the hunter. And this Rome
 Will crush you, if you wrestle with her.

But we must wait until its author allows it to be printed, before deciding on its literary merits.

Since writing our last summary two well-known characters have passed away, viz., George Eliot on Dec. 22nd, and Sothorn, the actor, on Jan. 20th. Much interest has naturally been evinced in the life and early training of the great novelist. Space forbids our giving a full account of her life, but a few notes will, we believe, be acceptable. Marian Evans was born at Griff, near Nuneaton, in Warwickshire, on November 22, 1820. Her father, Robert Evans, was a land agent, but had begun life as a carpenter and joiner, and is believed to have been the prototype of Caleb Garth. In 1841, six years after her mother's death, her father removed to Foleshill, near Coventry, where she remained till his death in 1849. It was during this latter period that her education was completed, if such a term may be applied to a life which must

have been one of constant improvement. In 1846 her translation of Strauss' *Leben Jesu* was completed, and at this period she became acquainted, through her friends the Brays and the Hennells, with many eminent men. From 1849 till 1851 she lived abroad, and on her return she resided with the Chapmans in the Strand and became sub-editor of the *Westminster Review*. She thus got to know George Henry Lewes, whose wife she virtually became. Upon his death she married Mr. J. W. Cross, an American merchant settled in England. Her death was sudden, and she was buried in Highgate Cemetery, the service being performed by the Rev. Dr. Sadler, an Unitarian minister. She was followed to her grave by many of the most eminent literary men of the day, such as Herbert Spencer, Robert Browning, Prof. Tyndall and the Stephens.

In early life, like the Newman brothers, she was a devout Evangelical, but her views gradually changed till she became a professed follower of Comte. Her fame will doubtless rest upon her inimitable pictures of English country life, rather than upon *Romola* and *Daniel Deronda*, which deal with an entirely different range of interest. "George Eliot," writes a discriminating critic, "was most happy when recalling mid-England in the days before the Reform Bill"—the days, the flavour of which still lingered about her life at Griff and Foleshill. "Both George Eliot and Georges Sand had learned that provincial life is more intense, if more monotonous and simple, than the busy life of towns. * * * While the subject (of her novels) is entirely obsolete, the reflections are in accord with the most advanced thought of the day. * * * Generally speaking, they all treat of the influence of adverse circumstances on the inner life of the actors. It is essentially the spiritual life of her heroes and heroines which interest the writer. It is characteristic that she has introduced the religious life as a leading motive of the novel." Alfred Austin has written some fine lines to her memory, but we may most fittingly close this brief notice with the first lines of her own hymn, describing the aspirations she has now realized.

O may I join the choir invisible
Of those immortal dead who live again
In minds made better by their presence: live
In pulses stirred to generosity,
In deeds of daring rectitude, in scorn
For miserable aims that end with self,
In thoughts sublime that pierce the night like stars,
And with their mild persistence urge men's search
To vaster issues.

A volume containing her translation of Spinoza's *Ethics* and the essays contributed to the *Westminster Review* would be a welcome boon.

R. W. B.

The Scientific Department, owing to want of space, stands over till next month.