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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
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OCTOBER, 1892.

MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS.

BY PROF. WILLIAM CLARK, D.C.L., F.R.S.C.

THE subject of matriculation and matriculation examinations has been discussed of late almost *ad nauseam*, and the present writer almost regrets his promise to contribute something to the controversy, more especially when he considers how widely he differs from the general current of opinion on the subject.

There was one remark of Principal Grant's which forms the proper starting point for this discussion. He remarked that the proper requirement for a matriculant was, that he should have a preparation which would enable him to benefit by the college lectures when he entered the university. We have not his word before us, and, no doubt, he expressed himself much better than we have done; but that is the meaning of what he has said, and it is the common sense of the subject. To admit to the university a young man who can derive no benefit from its instructions is to induce him to waste his time and to encourage his parents to spend money without receiving anything in return.

If only the discussions on matriculation examinations had started from this point and had gone on in a

reasonable and intelligent manner, it is probable that we should have reached some useful results.

Instead of this, we have had discussions about the usefulness or mischievousness of supplemental examinations, apparently stimulated by the desire to keep all these things under the thumb of the Education Department, and, as far as possible, to deprive the universities of the control of their own students. In the university of Oxford, men can matriculate whenever they like, and it seems absurd to say to the Canadian universities that their matriculations must all be confined to a particular moment. The greater the liberty which is conceded to these different institutions the better. If they abuse that liberty they will very soon be found out.

But there is another side to the question. Whilst examiners are complaining of the imperfect preparation of candidates for matriculation, these candidates are declaring that the examinations are unfair and even ridiculous. We must say that, to a large extent, we agree with the candidates. It is true, the examiners are not altogether to blame. They are the

victims of the system under which we are living, perhaps of what Mr. Matthew Arnold called the *zeit geist*, the spirit of pretence—shall we say, of imposture? Be this as it may, two things are clear to some of us—first, that the subjects of examination for matriculation are too numerous, and secondly, that many of the papers are drawn up in order to display the erudition of the examiner, rather than to discover the fitness of the candidates. These are hard words; but they are unfortunately true.

In the universities of Scotland, in former days, the test of a candidate for admission was his ability to write a piece of decent Latin prose. No doubt the modern Scottish universities have, like ourselves, followed the example of the university of London—

Fons et origo mali—in requiring a countless number of subjects for examination. We believe that such a course has proved most prejudicial to the cause of education. A young man who can write a piece of Latin prose has a far better preparation for a university education than one who has got a smattering of fifty subjects and does not know his Latin grammar, and can spell very imperfectly the English language, and this is the case of many of our modern candidates for matriculation.

Here, then, is the beginning of the remedy: Have fewer subjects and have them better done. Beware of cram and show, and try to have whatever you require well done. But what hope is there of this under the present system?

DOES OUR EDUCATION EDUCATE?*

BY F. H. TURNOCK.

THE recent controversy concerning the Ontario examinations for teachers and others will have accomplished some good if it is a means of directing attention to the practical results of our present system of education. We are in the habit of congratulating ourselves that we have in Canada a very excellent system of education, and in some respects we undoubtedly have. But is it, as a matter of fact, doing all that it should accomplish? A recent experience has caused me to wonder whether, after all, our educational methods do not fail in really educating, whether they do not result in turning out a large number of pupils and teachers possessed, perhaps, of a certain amount of book knowledge, but

destitute of nearly all the other attributes of true education. It also serves to demonstrate that our official means of testing the educational qualifications of pupils and teachers must be sadly deficient; that is, in the words of the *Week*, that "examination by writing is unreliable as the sole test of the results of a prolonged course of study or of the mental acquirements of a given student."

The experience I have referred to was not, by any means, an unique one. It was merely looking through the applications of a number of teachers for vacant teacherships. The positions applied for were the head mastership of the High School and the principalship of the common school in the largest and most important town in the North-West. For these positions there were over sixty

* In the *Week*.

applicants. All the applicants possessed at least second-class certificates, a large number were university graduates, the great majority of them had secured their qualifications in Ontario, and, for the most part, they had been actively engaged in the teaching profession. The positions and the salaries attached were such as should have secured applications from the highest class of teachers, and I have no reason for supposing that the large number of applicants who offered their services did not represent a fair average of the teachers who consider themselves able to fill and hold the necessary Government qualifications to occupy the higher positions in their profession.

In such a class one would naturally look for some of the best results of our Higher Education. It would be taken as a matter of course that those competent to take charge of the education of our youth should at least be able to write, to spell, and to use the Queen's English correctly; and it would not unreasonably be expected that they should exhibit some evidences of that good sense, sound judgment, culture and refinement which the best education is expected to produce and which, unless possessed by himself, a teacher cannot impart to those placed under his control. In these qualities, however, as well as in the elementary attainments first mentioned, the applications in question showed a large number of the applicants to be lamentably deficient. Fully seventy-five per cent. of them could be passed over without a second reading—many of them without being read through at all—and of the remainder it did not take long to discard all but half a dozen.

In the first place the writing of most of the applications was bad; and the badness was not of that order which, because of its character, is often condoned in the writing of

scholars and geniuses. A number were written in those large, irregular and clumsy characters which one is accustomed to find in the exercise books of young scholars. A still larger number were written in a prim, copy-book hand, some fairly good of its kind, some rather shaky, particularly in the flourishes, but all quite characterless, so much so that it was generally impossible to distinguish the sex of the applicant until the end of the letter was reached. The spelling was somewhat better than the writing, but mistakes in that were numerous. One applicant, for instance, announces that she is a "Gold medalist" of some educational institution. Another, who states he holds both Ontario and North-West Territory Second Class Certificates, spells the capital of the Territories "Reginna," not once but several times. One makes "through" a word of two syllables and divides it thus, "throu-gh"; one divides "reasons" into two syllables thus, "re-asons"; another divides "application," "applicat-ion"; another, "furthering" in this way, "furtheri-ng." The applications containing these latter mistakes were not type-written, or one might be inclined to excuse the errors, nor do the mistakes appear to have been rendered imperative by great lack of space at the end of a line. The Queen's English suffers rather severely at the hands of these its guardians. One who holds an Ontario First-Class Professional Certificate and states he has "taught English with good success," writes thus: "Having noticed your advertisement for a Principal to take charge of your Public School, I wish to apply for the same." This gentleman's speciality, according to his own statement, is mathematics, but it does not appear that his study of the exact sciences has taught him to avoid ambiguity of expression. It is not clear whether

he is applying for an "advertisement," a "principal," or a "public school." An awkward arrangement of words such as the following is by means infrequent: "Sir, Would be pleased to accept the situation you advertise as Principal of the Common School at a salary, etc." It is not uncommon for an applicant to state he enclose a "recommend;" and tautological expressions such as "gave good satisfaction," "taught with good success," abound, not only in the applications themselves, but also in the "recommends" of school inspectors and others. Punctuation is apparently considered to be of very little importance.

Besides defects such as the foregoing, one finds in connection with a considerable proportion of the applications some *guacherie* giving evidence of boorishness and lack of judgment which it is difficult to imagine a highly-educated person being guilty of. One sends his application written on a big sheet of thick blue paper (10" x 14"), ruled in blue and red, evidently torn from some register, dirty withal, and folded fearfully and wonderfully. Another young man uses small sheets of thin, sea-green tinted paper, very suitable perhaps for *billets d'amour* to some village Amanda, but hardly calculated to win the favour of an urban School Board. One begins with the confidential "My dear Sir," and concludes with the ultra-formal "I have the honour to be, sir, your obedient servant," and some original souls, scorning conventionalities, place their "Dear sir" at the extreme right instead of at the left of their note paper. An individual may lack worldly wisdom and yet be a genius; but the genius who prefaces his application by censuring his would-be employers for having dismissed their previous Principal, courts the treatment genius is but too often accorded by its con-

temporaries. The country dominie who thought it an important point to submit the information that on one occasion he was presented with "a costly inkstand, graced with the antlered head of a reindeer, a fancy china cup and saucer, an elegant fountain pen, a box of finely-tinted paper and envelopes and some other articles, accompanied by an address" is no doubt even yet wondering why he failed to secure the desired position. A similar feeling may perhaps be entertained by one who wrote "Should your Board, sir, be pleased to accept my application they may depend upon it that they will not regret their choice." But the serene self-confidence which inspired the following is probably superior to disappointment: "I feel confident that should you honour me with the appointment, I shall be able to afford you every satisfaction, and achieve for your school distinguished success." The philosopher whose lengthy application is chiefly a disquisition on the advantages of "experimental psychology," concerning which he has made an "exhaustive study" and some "unique experiments," would appear either to have omitted from his investigations one important class of humanity, viz., practical business men, or to have profited but little from his experiments. And the gentleman who seeks to impress the trustees with the splendour of his intellectual attainments by informing them that he is a "graduate of the American Institute of Phrenology" has apparently not a very high estimate of Western intelligence. Many of the applicants think—and, it may be, rightly—that to be a Methodist, or a Presbyterian, or a member of some other denomination, is a very important recommendation; but one appears to base his claims almost entirely on the following qualifications: "I am a member of the Methodist Church, the

Christian Endeavour, and the Royal Templars of Temperance, have never used tobacco in any form, and can supply references from those who know me showing my character to be blameless." It is indeed sad to think that one so excessively immaculate should have to content himself with the reflection that virtue is its own—and often its only—reward. The lack of intelligence shown by some applicants in submitting "recommends" and testimonials is indeed surprising. One is not impressed favourably with an applicant's past experience by looking through a dirty, greasy package of letters, some in red ink, some in violet ink, some in black ink and some in pencil, execrably written and spelled, certifying to the opinion held by the school trustees of some obscure township as to the holder's abilities. I cannot forbear quoting one of this class of testimonials: "We the undersigned Trustees for _____ School District do hereby certify that they have known _____ for a number of year in the capacity as School Teacher and that he is thorogly competent to teach a graded school according to the laws of the School act for the Dominion of Canada and we take great pleasure in recommending him to any community in want of a teacher. You very truly." Unless assured that the applicant who relied on a testimonial such as this held a Second Class Teacher's Certificate, one would not suspect that his intelligence had been expanded and elevated by high education. One cannot but tremble for the interests of education in a community where such trustees have the management of school affairs. Some of the applicants send printed copies of their testimonials, but ap-

parently they do not realize that this creates the inference either that they are so often applying for situations as to render copying their recommendations in each case too great an undertaking, or that they are displaying vanity and bad taste. One individual has not only his testimonials printed, but prints even his application itself, blanks being left for dates, salary, etc., the whole being surrounded with a very fancy border; and he evidently intends to make use of the application elsewhere if unsuccessful, for he concludes: "Return this pamphlet (sic) if my application is rejected."

It is, of course, not possible to cite every instance of lack of knowledge, culture and intelligence, but enough has been said to indicate what a large proportion of the sixty applications in question gave evidence of these defects in the applicants. And it must be remembered that in making an application for a situation the applicant naturally endeavours to present himself in every way in the most favourable light. When so much is gathered from merely letters of application, what would be the result of a more complete and searching examination into the applicant's abilities and character? As I have said, these teachers are, or should be, the best results of our advanced education, and it is they who are conducting the education of the rising generation. Under the circumstances a doubt as to the practical results of our educational methods cannot but arise. I do not at present attempt to assign a cause for what I can only regard as a failure somewhere or to suggest a remedy. I merely call attention to the serious fact.

EXAMINATIONS OR BEARS.

THE value of expert knowledge in the science of education cannot be over-estimated. And yet manifestly education is not a subject in regard to which wisdom lies entirely with the professionalists. Indeed, there is ground for maintaining that educational progress is due to the criticisms of laymen quite as much as to the philosophy of experts; and it is certain that words of caution or protest from eminent and intelligent men outside of the calling have more apparent weight with both teachers and public than similar words from educational leaders. Eight years ago Charles Francis Adams stirred up the educational world as neither Colonel Parker nor any other professionalist could have done. The same is true to-day of President Eliot who is practically a layman so far as education in the common schools is concerned. There is a point of view from which these outsiders judge our school work that gives them an advantage and compels attention if not acquiescence from those who are doing the work as well as from those who in their families feel the result of the work.

In his speech to the National Association President Harrison made, or rather implied, some criticisms which find a response in the heart of intelligent parents who have children in our schools as well as in the hearts of intelligent teachers who recognize the unwise pressure of the machine.

Here is a pithy paragraph from his speech which our teachers ought to ponder more than they have in the past.

"I am not here to instruct this convention of instructors. As I have just intimated, it has seemed to me that we are taking on in education some of the developments

which characterize the mechanical arts. No workman produces a finished product. He gives it a little touch and passes it on to somebody else. I sometimes regretfully recall the days when the teacher left his strong impress upon the pupil by reason of long years of personal intercourse and instruction — universities where the professor knew the members of his class and could detect the fraud when a dummy was substituted. Now we have the little one for a few months in the kindergarten, then pass him on to the primary, and then the graded system catches him, much as a moving belt in a machine shop, and carries him on until he is dumped from one of these great universities as a 'finished product.' Perhaps the work is so large and the demand for economy so great that this system is inevitable. Perhaps it throws the pupil somewhat more upon himself, and out of this there may come some advantage; but, without discussing the relative merits of the old way and the new, let us thank God that this great army of instructors, reinforced by the great body of our citizens, is marching on to reach that great result, when there shall not be found an adult citizen of the United States who is not possessed of an elementary education. There is a just mean, I think, between a system of intellectual competition which destroys the body, and a system of physical training that eliminates the mind. Perhaps the stress is applied too early upon our little ones. I throw out this word of caution to our good lady friends here who have them in charge. Some years ago I was passing down a street in Indianapolis from my residence to my office,

and on my way there was situated one of our public schools. The children were just gathering in the morning. As I came near the corner two sweet little girls, evidently chums, approached from different directions, and meeting at the crossing soon had their heads close together, but not so close but that I caught the conversation. One said to the other: 'Oh, I had such an awful dream last night' Her sympathizing little fellow put her head still closer and said: 'What was it?' 'Oh,' said the trembling little one. 'I dreamed I did not pass.' It is safer to allow such little ones to dream, as in my careless country boyhood I was wont to, about bears."

The protest against the abuse of school examinations has been rising from our best educators stronger and stronger for some years. Still grade examinations remain in the large majority of schools the same tyrannous and cursed nightmare that they ever were. The President was literally right in saying that it is safer to have our little ones dream about bears than to dream "I did not pass." When morning comes the bears pass from mind. They were only a dream. But no morning drives the examinations from mind until the per cent. is known. And to make the matter as bad as can be, no sooner is one examination out of the way than another one begins to appear. In many, in too many schools, it is not only one bear but a constant succession of bears from the time the child enters the first grade until he leaves the High School. Not such bears as dreams are made of, but such as haunt the days.

We have always maintained that formal written examinations have a

legitimate and proper place in education. But for at least nine-tenths of the children in our schools, the written examination in the hands of the Principal or Superintendent as a test for promotion is an unnecessary evil that cannot be abolished too quickly.

What shall take its place? For the nine-tenths of whom we speak, nothing. If the course of study is arranged with any kind of judgment, and if the teacher is at all fit for her place, every child of fair ability in her room ought to pass into the next grade at the end of the year as a matter of course and without any inquisition whatever. The child's natural growth in power and intelligence should guarantee its passage right through the course of the primary and grammar schools. At the completion of a year or grade a pupil should feel no more uneasiness or anxiety as to where he will stand at the beginning of the next year or grade than he does at the close of any Friday as to where he will stand the next Monday.

We do not mean by this that any lax or slipshod work on the pupil's part should be tolerated. Hold him to the highest standard possible. But remove the accent now placed on the end of the year or grade. Cease to recognize transition events. Regard the child's progress as an even, steady growth and not as a series of steps.

Abolish the word "pass" and the thing it signifies. If impaired health or intellect prevents a child from advancing in school as rapidly as its mates, let it drop back into a younger class. There is never need of an examination to discover such cases. They always may be known from their daily work.—*Intelligence.*

AND when the world shall link your names
With gracious lives and manners fine,
The teacher shall assert her claims,
And proudly whisper, "These were mine!"

—Whittier.

WHEN you come into the house, do you
bring sunshine with you?—*Gail Hamilton.*

HOWEVER things may seem, no evil thing
succeeds, and no good thing is a failure.

—Longfellow.

USES OF EDUCATION.

EDUCATION, intellectual and moral, is the only means yet discovered that is always sure to help people to help themselves. Any other species of aid may enervate the beneficiary, and lead to a habit of dependence on outside help. But intellectual and moral education develops self-respect, fertility of resources, knowledge of human nature and aspiration for a better condition in life. It produces that divine discontent which goads on the individual, and will not let him rest. How does the school produce this important result? The school has undertaken to perform two quite different and opposite educational functions. The first produces intellectual training, and the second the training of the will.

The school, for its intellectual function, causes the pupil to learn certain arts, such as reading and writing, which make possible communication with one's fellow men, and impart certain rudimentary insights or general elementary ideas with which practical thinking may be done, and the pupil be set on the way to comprehend his environment of nature, and of humanity and history. There is taught in the humblest of schools something of arithmetic, the science and art of numbers, by whose aid material nature is divided and combined—the most practical of all knowledge of nature because it relates to the fundamental conditions of the existence of nature, the quantitative structure of time and space themselves. A little geography, also, is taught; the pupil acquires the idea of the interrelation of each locality with every other. Each place produces something for the world-market, and in return it receives numerous commodities of useful and ornamen-

tal articles of food, clothing and shelter. The great cosmopolitan idea of the human race and its unity of interests is born of geography, and even the smattering of it which the poorly taught pupil gets enwraps this great general idea, which is fertile and productive, a veritable knowledge of power from the start.

All school studies, moreover, deal with language, the embodiment of the reason, not of the individual, but of the Anglo-Saxon stock or people. Now, the steps of becoming conscious of words involved in writing and spelling, and in making out the meaning, and, finally, in the study of grammatical distinctions between the parts of speech, bring to the pupil a power of abstraction, a power of discriminating form from contents, substance from accidents, activity from passivity, subjective from objective, which makes him a thinker. For thinking depends on the mastery of categories, the ability to analyze a subject and get at its essential elements and see their necessary relations. The people who are taught to analyze their speech into words have a constant elementary training through life that makes them reflective and analytic as compared with a totally illiterate people. This explains to some degree the effect upon a lower race of adopting the language of a higher race. It brings up into consciousness, by furnishing exact expression for them, complicated series of ideas which remain sunk below the mental horizon of the savage. It enables the rudimentary intelligence to ascend from the thought of isolated things to the thought of their relations and interdependencies.

The school teaches also literature, and trains the pupil to read by setting him lessons consisting of extracts

from literary works of art. These are selected for their intensity, and for their peculiar merits in expressing situations of the soul brought about by external or internal circumstances. Language itself contains the categories of thought, and the study of grammatical structure makes one conscious of phases of ideas which flit past without notice in the mind of the illiterate person. Literary genius invents modes of utterance for feelings and thoughts that were hitherto below the surface of consciousness. It brings them above its level, and makes them forever after conscious and articulate. Especially in the realm of ethical and religious ideas, the thoughts that furnish the regulative forms for living and acting, litera-

ture is pre eminent for its usefulness. Literature may be said, therefore, to reveal human nature. Its very elementary study in school makes the pupil acquainted with a hundred or more pieces of literary art, expressing for him with felicity his rarer and higher moods of feeling and thought. When, in mature age, we look back over our lives and recall to mind the influence that our schooldays brought us, the time spent over the school readers seems quite naturally to have been the most valuable part of our education. Our thoughts on the conduct of life have been stimulated by it, and this ethical knowledge is of all knowledge the nearest related to self preservation.—*Wm. T. Harris, in the Atlantic Monthly.*

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

PROFESSOR MEIKLEJOHN.

(Continued from page 244.)

IN the fifth place would come the life of the people, their manners and customs, prices of food and clothing, their architecture, their religion, and so on. This kind of knowledge seems to me fit for young people above sixteen years of age.

Last of all would come a general review, with constant reference to constitutional history; and for this purpose the excellent "Student's History," by Professor Gardiner, in three volumes, or John Green's "Short History of the English People," or Knight's "Larger History" would be among the best that can be mentioned.

But it may be said that this is too large a programme, and, in view of the examinations which press upon us all, that it is not to the purpose. Well, speaking as a practical man, one

must have some regard to the examinations; but I will take a case. I will suppose that the teacher buys the whole of Miss Yonge's "Cameos," in six volumes. As they cost 36s., he can hardly be expected to put them into the hands of his class. I will suppose, further, that he has three hours a week for the teaching of history. Well, I should get a boy who could read in a vivid and lively and impassioned style, and get him to read for three-quarters of an hour; the next quarter of an hour might be allotted to placing upon the black-board the chief events read of, in separate lines, and not more than two dates. These statements and these dates might be copied into the note-books of the pupils. It will be still better if the teacher would read up all he could about the persons and

events of the lesson, trying to feel them himself, trying to think of the persons as actual, eating and drinking, tax-paying Christians, and then to have a talk with the class about them, with a short skeleton on the black-board in view of the class.

The present teaching of history suffers from three diseases. The first is the disease of Encyclopædism; the second is the disease of Anæmia; and the third is the disease of Hysteron-proteron, or the cart before the horse. Let us look for a few minutes at the symptoms of each of these diseases.

The disease of Encyclopædism plainly results from the desire to put too many figures into one very small canvas. This brings with it, as a necessary consequence, a highly exaggerated degree of compression or abridgment. The result is that, instead of taking into the mind a clear and full impression of a historical personage, you have to put up with the very smallest fraction of his mental face. It is true that a great anatomist like Owen can construct the whole skeleton of an animal from the datum of one small bone; but it is given to very few of us to be Owens, and, in the sphere of human history, constructive intellects of such power are even rarer than in that of the history of nature. You cannot compress the history of two thousand years into a volume of five hundred pages; you cannot tell the story of such a period in three volumes, or in thirty volumes, or in three hundred volumes. In point of fact, you have, at the outset, to admit that you are in a state of intellectual bankruptcy, and to propose a composition with your creditors; and, with the enormous number of incidents and persons that have appeared within these two thousand years, it will go very well with you if you can pay sixpence in the pound.

Then, when you look at the question from the practical and educational

point of view, you find that the majority of your pupils can only pay a fractional percentage on their attention and understanding; and if a fraction be multiplied by a fraction, the result is smaller than either of the two factors. You cannot compress the "Encyclopædia Britannica" into the size of a Prayer Book, any more than you can paint the picture of a battle on your thumbnail, or dance the Highland fling on the surface of a threepenny-piece. In fact, when you write a history of this kind, you are reduced to making it a mere catalogue, and it is no more a history of your country than the "London Directory" is a history of the growth of London, or of the human souls that have been born into it and died out of it.

The second disease, of Anæmia, or bloodlessness, is the result of the first. Human beings are not spoken of as human beings, but as dots, or lines, or surfaces, or geometrical figures; and this view of history has resulted in the production of date-books, in which you have from twenty to forty dates given in each reign, and events put opposite each date, which have no more connexion with each other than the names of the shops which stand side by side in Oxford Street. Such books may be learned by heart, and are learned by heart every year, and then they are forgotten; but they have, in the meantime, maimed the memory and weakened the natural desire and intellectual appetite for a proper study of history.

The disease of Hysteron-proteron I can best explain to you by taking a notable example. An able writer on education says, in his chapter on Teaching History:—

"How, then, should we begin to teach English history? Not certainly by plunging at once into the story of Julius Cæsar and the Druids, nor by giving a number of dates to be learn-

ed, to form a framework for pictures we mean to paint. I should first give a short series of lessons, either orally or from a well-written reading book, if I could find one, with a view to make some simple and fundamental historical ideas intelligible—a state, a nation, a dynasty, a monarch, a parliament, legislation, the administration of justice, taxes, civil and foreign war. Scholars would then see what sort of matter history had to do with, and would be prepared to enter on the study with more interest. Then a general notion should be given of the number of centuries over which our history extends. A general outline of the period of time to be covered is necessary, in order that each fact as it is known may be localized, and referred to its due position among other facts. Thus a sort of time-map divided into nineteen centuries is roughly constructed.”

Now, this is as beautiful an example of the topsy-turvey, cart-before-the-horse business as I could find for you in a long summer's day. The ideas of a state, of a nation, of a parliament and of legislation—these ideas are called simple and fundamental ideas. A state is one of the most complex historical ideas that can be thought of. So far from being fundamental, it is the slow evolution of centuries and of thousands of contending forces. Again, to give a young class an idea of a parliament would require a very great deal of time and very careful teaching. Even then the complete notion of a parliament would be grasped with difficulty by a very small minority of the class. The class might act the idea—might work the idea dramatically out, and so some practical notion of a real parliament might get, slowly and surely, into the heads of most.

Again, to call “legislation” a simple and fundamental idea is to me a serious educational error. Even, at

the present time there are few grown-up persons who understand the processes of legislation or the complications of legislation. If this gentleman—able as he is—can, by giving oral lessons to beginners in English history, on a state, a nation and a parliament, attain anything like success in this teaching, the only supposition left open to us is that his pupils were forty years old when they were born.

The paradoxical result of all these blunders is that, in that which is the story of man, you have almost every element of humanity eliminated.

Now, most of what I have been saying is mere criticism, and criticism of the lowest type—that is, fault-finding; and you have a right to expect from me that I should give you some constructive suggestions regarding the best method of teaching history, and also some statements regarding the books that will help you in carrying out your method.

First of all, I take it for granted that those who attempt to teach history are themselves fond of reading and studying history, and that they do not look upon it as a “grind” to have to read many books in order to get at the truth of a statement, but regard it as a hunt or a quest which brings to them a new and growing interest at every turn. This presupposed, it seems to me that there are two suggestions which, if heartily adopted, will form at least the germ of a method of teaching. These two suggestions are, first, that the teacher should himself, by the consultation of all kinds of authorities, form in his own mind the fullest and most adequate idea of the most prominent historical persons, and, as a result of this, construct for his own use a gallery of historical portraits, which, as time goes on, he would touch and retouch. Additions to the gallery could also be made, from time

to time, by the contributions of the pupils. Some one discovers a new anecdote about the Duke of Wellington, or a new trait in the character of Pitt; and this is added to the collection. The second suggestion is: Instead of wasting time over the fractional representations of a long number of petty events, the teacher should limit himself to the most prominent, and make of these *nuclei*, to which he could refer everything else that occurred in the so-called period. As specimens of such *nuclei*, we might take the Battle of Bouvines, the Confirmation of the Charters, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Revolution of '88, and other such central incidents.

It may, perhaps, be not without its uses to contrast the two modes of treating history, to give a few specimens of the vague style in which history is written, and the two large but very faint conceptions which teachers are supposed to place in the minds of their pupils, and then to give a few passages in which the treatment is of the opposite kind.

Here is one specimen from a well-known History:—

“The first administration of Chatham was not always, indeed, free from haste or error in its schemes; and, no doubt, owed its success to the favour of fortune, and to the genius of generals.”

Now, in order to fully comprehend this, one must have a detailed acquaintance with both of the administrations of Chatham, and must also be able to compare his administrations with those of the ministers who came before him, and of the ministers who came after him. Now I contend that this is much too large an order, and too vast a generalization for the grasp of the ordinary pupil.

Here is another:—

“In the Parliament which assembled a week after this achievement, the majority endeavoured to reflect

on the proceedings of the deceased king (William III.) by congratulating Queen Anne, on the ground that Her Majesty's arms, ‘under the conduct of Marlborough, had signally retrieved the ancient honour and glory of the English nation’; and an attempt to substitute the word ‘maintained’ was rejected by a large majority.”

Now this is a very significant fact, and is well worth introducing into a history, because it gives the teacher an opportunity, not simply of discussing the campaign and the battles referred to, but of showing how the House of Commons manages its business. The teacher has, in fact, a splendid opportunity of contrasting the campaigns under the reign of William III., and the earlier part of Queen Anne's, and of discussing the ability of the commanders in these campaigns. But I do not think that I am straining a point when I say that a vivid description of one of the battles referred to would have attracted and held the attention of a class much more strongly and much more prominently than this parliamentary discussion. Here is another:—

“For the finances William Pitt did much; for Parliamentary reform the nation was not ready; and, in a few years, events abroad threw all such things into the background.”

The obvious criticism here is that one would like to know specifically, even in one single instance, what Pitt did for finance. It is manifest, also, that the term “Parliamentary reform” is left in ungraspable vagueness, and that the colourless phrases, “events abroad,” “all such things,” and “into the background,” do not excite the curiosity or stir the faculties of the mind at all. Let us suppose that the teacher is questioning on the sentence, then he is reduced to such queries as: “What did Pitt do for the finances?” The reply is: “He did much.”

Here is another sentence :—

“The country made steady progress during this period.”

It is simply impossible to say what this means. Were the people more prosperous? Were some trades reviving, and others holding their own? Was the British Empire growing?—and so on, and so on. The fact is, this kind of statement goes in at one ear and out at the other.

Here is another, which I take from “Epochs of English History,” edited by Bishop Creighton :—

“George IV. had hoped to keep the same Ministry in office, and to carry on public business with as little change as possible. Lord Goderich, who was considered a moderate man, was therefore made Prime Minister; but Mr. Herries, and the Duke of Wellington, who were both Tories, were received into the Cabinet.”

If a man is studying the political history and the political gossip of the century, this kind of thing is not without its value; but I maintain, at the same time, that, for educational purposes, at least for the education of young people below the age of sixteen, it is of no value at all. Even grown-up people have entirely forgotten all about Lord Goderich and Mr. Herries, and very properly, as they were merely temporary politicians and transitory figures. Oblivion is, with regard to many persons and things, quite as valuable as the power of memory. Lord Goderich has merged into the Marquisate of Ripon, Mr. Herries into the Earldom of Malmesbury; but neither of these persons need be known by any one who does not care to study the British peerage.

The next three sentences go far to prove my point :—

“This was enough to bring about its destruction. A quarrel broke out between Herries and Huskisson, and Lord Goderich, not wishing to get rid of either of them, preferred to re-

sign himself. The administration had scarcely lasted six months.”

Now all this gossip—I maintain it is only gossip—might have been entirely omitted, and room kept for more detailed life of the Duke of Wellington, for an account of the conduct of Sir Walter Scott during the panic of 1825, or for the agitation in Ireland on the subject of Catholic Emancipation; but these writers suppose that they must give you their history step by step, *secundum artem*, through every petty change of administration or personal substitution; and they fancy that these things are interesting, or can be made interesting, to young people who are below the age of thirty.

Now let us contrast with all these specimens of vagueness a few passages from histories which have been written at first-hand by spectators of, or actors in, the various events. I take my examples from an excellent series published by Mr. Nutt, “English History from Contemporary Writers”; and this series contains extracts from contemporary letters, persons who kept diaries, chroniclers and other such observers. Here is an account of the execution of Sir Harry Vane :—

PEPY’S DIARY. June 14th, 1662.
—“About eleven o’clock, having a room got ready for us, we all went out to the Tower Hill, and there, over against the scaffold, made on purpose this day, saw Sir H. Vane brought. A very great press of people. He made a long speech, many times interrupted by the sheriff and others there; and they would have taken his paper out of his hand, but he would not let it go. But they caused all the books of those that writ after him (*i.e.*, the reporters) to be given to the sheriff; and the trumpets were brought under the scaffold, that he might not be heard. Then he prayed, and so fitted himself and received the blow.”

This extract brings up the image

of the body and soul of the times in a way that no ordinary history writer, with the necessity on him of compactness, which results in dreary and weary *vagueness*, could succeed in doing.

Here is another extract, from the times of Sir Simon de Montfort, in the reign of Henry III. :—

MATTHEW PARIS.—“The king sent as his alms to the Minorite Friars a waggon load of grey woollen cloths, suitable for their clothing; but the friars, hearing that the king had extorted them from the merchants, like other things which he takes, or rather seizes, and that he had retained the price, when a tallage only had been made, in abhorrence of such a present, returned all the bales on the waggon, saying that it was not lawful to give alms of the plunder of the poor, nor would they accept so abominable a gift.”

Now this short extract shows the relation of the King to the State, of the King to the Church, of the King to Commerce, and tells its story in a way that is not easily to be forgotten. In the next extract we find Simon de Montfort in his relations to the Gascons :—

MATTHEW PARIS.—“At this time Simon, Earl of Leicester, who, for his fidelity and courage, had been asked to become Seneschal of France, but had refused, because no man can properly serve two masters who are opposed to one another, came to his lord the King of England in Gascony, declaring himself ready and willing to serve him in subduing the rebels who were his enemies. Now, the Gascons dreaded the Earl as a thunderbolt; he also brought with him a chosen body of knights, maintained at his own cost, and to be so maintained during the king's pleasure; truly he had a great number of knights and serving men.”

Let us turn to the wars of Edward III. Here is an extract from JEHAN LE BEL :—

“These Scottish men are right hardy, and sore travailling in harness and in wars. For when they will enter into England, within a day and a night they will drive their whole host twenty-four miles. For they are all a-horse-back, without it be the camp-followers who come on foot. The knights and squires are well-horsed, and the common people and others on little hackneys and geldings; and they carry with them no carts or chariots, for the diversities of the mountains that they must pass through in the county of Northumberland. They take with them no purveyance of bread and wine; for their usuage and soberness is such in the time of war, that they will pass in the journey a great long time with flesh half sodden, without bread, and drink of the river water without wine; and they neither care for pots nor pans, for they seethe beasts in their own skins. They are sure to find plenty of beasts in the country that they will pass through.”

From another section I extract a passage which gives a striking account of the state of society after a visit of the Black Death :—

KNIGHTON.—“There were small prices for everything on account of the fear of death. For there were very few who cared about riches or anything else. For a man could have a horse, which was before worth 40s., for 6s. 8d., a fat ox for 4s., a cow for 12d., a heifer for 6d., a fat wether for 4d., a sheep for 3d., a lamb for 2d., a big pig for 5d. a stone of wool for 9d. Sheep and cattle went wandering over fields and through crops, and there was no one to go and drive or gather them, so that the number cannot be reckoned which perished in the ditches in

every district, for lack of herdsmen, for there was such a lack of servants that no one knew what he ought to do."

Those who have to teach the writing of English (what is technically called "Composition") are often at a loss for subjects that are suited to the age of the pupils they are engaged in teaching. But in history they will find no lack; there is rather too great an abundance—too great an embarrassment of plenty. From the very beginning they can teach composition by the use of history and historical subjects; and history by means of composition. And here again comes in the test of the books on history that you are in the habit of using. Do they give stories and subjects enough, and do they tell these stories and describe these subjects in so clear, so lively, and so vigorous a manner, that the young learner is eager to retell them, or at least will find it easy to reproduce them either orally or in writing? If the teacher employs such a method, or uses such a book, then most assuredly he is killing two educational birds with one stone.

Now the purpose of this whole paper is to advocate the narrowing of the field of work, and the intensifying of the attention of the pupil, in the only way in which that can be done, that is, instead of throwing on the mental view of the learner every detail of every dynasty or vast constitutional change, I would restrict it to two subjects, and to two subjects only: persons and interesting events. These would be the *nuclei* round which would gradually cluster new facts, new persons, new ideas, picked up in reviews, or books, or magazines. These *nuclei* are living germs, which can grow and assimilate new matter, which new matter becomes living, as they are living themselves. And I should further be inclined to recommend that the method be the oral

method, that the teaching be, as far as possible, *viva voce*, with the help of note-books, in which the notes should be very sparingly made. It is a fact worthy of mention that you can, in an hour, speak to your class a volume of about sixty pages. You can, therefore, in ten hours, speak a volume of six hundred pages; though it would hardly be possible to find any mortal printer to print, or any human publisher to publish it. But the living results of this talk remain in the minds of your pupils; and, moreover, your own knowledge of history is strengthened and clarified.

To carry out this plan, it would be necessary to have a fair historical library, and I will mention a few books that I think would be useful, in addition to those that are supposed to be upon everybody's shelves.

Among the writers of school histories, I know no one who has such large first-hand knowledge, or who can give expression to his knowledge with so much vigour, as Mr. York Powell. His sketches of Alfred the Great and William the Conqueror, and the first volume of his history, published by Rivington, are books that are models of how history should be written. Then there are Ewald's "Stories from the State Papers," which are always fresh and interesting. Everyone knows Mr. Freeman's "Old English History," and many of the narratives in it are of great interest and value for young people and schools. Then there are Macaulay and Walpole, Knight's "History of England," Lingard, John Richard Green, Lord Mahon, and others. Professor Gardiner's "Student's History of England" is an excellent book, always accurate, and sometimes vigorous; but, on the whole, there is a great deal too much in it, and the style is too often quite bloodless.

Then, for a large part of English

history we have Shakespeare's plays, and for modern history we have the volumes of *Punch*. Every teacher should also have Mr. Courthope Bowen's "Descriptive Catalogue of Historical Novels and Tales," published by Mr. Stanford. Many of the books in this list will enable him to inform his history lessons with living interest, and to stimulate the constructive imagination of the learners. But if I were asked to mention the book which would enable your historical library to dispense with all these—that is, if necessity should limit you to one book—I should again name Miss Yonge's "Cameos from English History."*

As examples of how history should not be written, and what books ought not to be read, I should give Dr. Franck Bright's "History of England," and Professor Freeman's volume, "General Sketch of European History," in his historical course for schools. This last book is as dry as a remainder biscuit after a voyage, and is crammed as full of uninterpreted and uninterpretable facts as a blue book.

There remains a final objection to all these plans of mine, and I will try to meet it in the face. I think I hear the "practical teacher" say: "This is all very fine; but these are mere barren counsels of perfection; the examinations lie before us all; what about the examinations? The portions of history set generally extend over long periods, and the learner is supposed to get up every detail of these periods." To this I would reply that I should treat these periods in the same way I have tried to describe. In this case the pupil would get a firm hold of the lives of the most

prominent persons in it, and would also know all that was interesting and really memorable in the chief events. Perhaps, out of the twelve questions given in the paper, the pupil taught in this way would only answer six or seven; but the examiner would be struck by the style in which they were answered, and he would say: "Here—in this paper—the knowledge is full, is adequate, is real, is living, and it can graft itself on to other knowledge and absorb new facts into itself. Besides, the learner has had a method given to him, a method that he now has full power over; and more—and what is best of all—he has been filled with the true historic spirit, which is the spirit of first-handness, of life, and of intelligence."

I can sum up all the ideas expressed in this paper in two words: First-handness and Limitation.

Let the teacher get as near the original sources (Mr. Nutt's books, etc.) as he can; let him feel everything said at first-hand; let him realize each character and incident; let him express himself not in the washed-out verbiage or the fifth-hand phraseology of an effete and used-up literary or journalistic style, but in first-hand phrases and words that he has found or has coined for himself.

In the next place, let the teacher give his pupils as few facts as he possibly can, but take care that the facts given are inspired with life; and that the events studied and the personages he becomes acquainted with become keys for the understanding of other events and other personages.

By following these two simple rules, he will make the study of history in his school a perpetually flowing well of interest, and an instrument for catching and holding the attention, and perhaps of supplying a pursuit which his pupils may follow during the rest of the life that lies before them.—*The Educational Times*.

* A *cameo* is a clear-cut engraving on shell or pebble *in relief*. "In relief"—that is, where the analogy with the writing of history comes in.

HASTEN SLOWLY IN UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

IT is a great mistake in introducing university extension in this country to imagine that a copy of the English methods will suit our different circumstances. Education with us is more nearly universal than in England, and we have ten colleges where they have one. We have no education for the classes. The poor are as able, or almost as able, as the rich to secure the benefits of the university or the college, and our secondary schools are to-day furnishing a public and varied education which is an immense advance upon our earlier systems. There is not the same call for university extension in the United States on account of this levelling up of the people. This takes away the large constituency for this work which is found in England, and compels the carrying of it on by different methods. Further, as Professor Palmer admirably points out in the *Atlantic*, we have no competent men to spare for the work of teaching in this way.

The colleges make such heavy demands upon their professors that, if they are to keep up with their duties, they cannot have any relations in term time with outside work. It is all they can do to meet the demands of their professorships. Chautauqua has been a success because it is a summer picnic, where professors can turn an honest penny by a course of lectures, and where flirtations and the acquisition of knowledge can go on hand in hand, but it is very different to organize classes in the leading cities for the evenings in the working season, and secure such attention and study as make the lectures to these classes in any sense thorough educational work. If they are to be made worth while, a man who is as much of an expert as our best college professors should be in charge, and no man

occupying a professor's chair at Harvard or Yale or Princeton or Johns Hopkins can give his nights to university extension in the cities, without destroying or impairing the usefulness of his days at the university. He cannot serve two masters, and such is the demand for competent men to take places in our growing universities and colleges that all men who are worth anything as instructors are snapped up by these institutions, where they can obtain better salaries and more regular work than can be offered anywhere at the present stage of the development of university extension.

These points are well urged by Professor Palmer, who is not opposed to this movement in itself, but looks at it as a man who feels that we ought to proceed slowly in organizing a work which our different institutions are, by the necessity of the case, far better prepared to do themselves than are the corresponding universities and colleges in Great Britain. The day of copying literally a good thing in England has gone by in this country. The Old World can teach us something about building up universities, but it can teach us nothing about popular education. Professor Palmer thinks, and we agree with him, that the present enthusiasm which has been aroused in behalf of university education must be kept within practical limits, or it will exhaust itself in an attempt to do more than the people need or demand. We have rushed everything in this country, and attempted more than our people can stand up to. Even the workmen and women, who are chiefly to be benefited by the system of lectures and private study, are so much exhausted nervously by their daily occupations that they are practically unfit for what university extension

proposes to do for them, and not until the nine hour day is generally accepted can large numbers of our citizens command the leisure for these generous efforts at culture.

Professor Palmer thinks that university extension might utilize in many cases the best of the college graduates for the two or three years during which these men are casting about to see what they shall do; but even these men, fresh from the university and fully acquainted with the latest

methods of teaching, would not be a fair substitute for their own professors in this kind of work. The result of the present effort for university extension is that its promoters need to be cautioned lest they shall attempt too much, and proceed too strictly upon the English plan and methods. There is no question about the need of university extension, but it must be carefully adjusted to the popular demand if it is to have any large measure of success.—*Boston Herald.*

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

I SUPPOSE there are few, if any, rational people who will not admit that, human nature being what it is, we must have some kind of punishment both for youths and adults, and that, for punishment to be of any value, it must be something that the person on whom it is to be inflicted will dislike and seek to avoid. In England we have abolished flogging in the army, and experienced military men say the effect of this will be that in time of war certain offences, which have hitherto been punished by flogging, will be punished by death, as it is impossible to preserve discipline and protect the army from serious peril without severely visiting breaches of discipline and duty, and no other punishment is possible in the field. So with respect to children: If we are to train them up to habits of reverence and respect for guardians and instructors; if we are to instil into them habits of industry and application to studies to which they are disinclined, there must be in reserve some power of compulsion which they will be afraid to invoke, and that power must be punishment. The boy who will say to his father, when threatening to box his ears for being

disobedient or impertinent, "If you do, I will summon you before a magistrate," will soon set all parental authority at defiance, if his threat is allowed to prevail, and the natural consequence will be an undisciplined life, estrangement between father and son, probably a vicious youth and a miserable old age. For the sake of the child, of the family, of society, of the country, there must be some deterrent punishment, both at home and at school. The question is, What shall it be? Whatever it is, to make it effective it must be well and wisely administered, with a single desire to amend the child, and not under the excitement of anger or irritated feeling. Moreover it must be proportioned to the offence, and not an indiscriminate application of the same treatment, whether the wrong doing be great or small—a casual neglect or thoughtless disobedience that has to be amended, or a serious moral delinquency that has to be cured. For purposes of discipline there ought, therefore, to be drawn a sharp line between grave offences which denote serious moral obliquity, such as dishonesty, drunkenness, treachery, and such like, in an aggravated form,

and offences which spring from a less vicious source. For the less serious kind of wrong-doing, what can be better than suitable corporal punishment? It is sharp and short; it is sufficiently unpleasant to make it disliked; while it has the advantage of teaching a boy to bear bodily pain without screaming, as every boy with noble instincts would despise himself for yelling over a little pain in the presence of his companions. It is what brave, high-spirited boys greatly prefer to any other kind of punishment, as it does not interfere with their ordinary sports. I well remember a manly, high-toned boy grumbling to me one day because at his school the

master had substituted a task for some strokes over the hand for trifling offences; as he well said, "It interferes with our games, spoils our chance of any enjoyment of our leisure time, and makes us do work in which there is no good." On the other hand, a tame-spirited lad, who took no part in games, and only loafed about during holiday time, would find little to annoy him in the work he would have to do, as it would be an excuse for not sharing in games in which he ought to take part, and would nurture the idea that bodily pain was the greatest of evils.—*Robert Gregory, Dean of St. Paul's, in North American Review.*

ETHICS IN SCHOOL.

BY MARY A. CUSHMAN, AKRON, OHIO.

IF all children were assured of the moral influence at home, it would be unsafe to leave so large a portion of time as they spend in school, unimproved in this most important part of education. But when it is remembered that, especially in cities, an alarmingly large number of school children come from homes of vice and moral ignorance; and when we remember the contagious nature of all forms of immorality, and how helpless, childish innocence is against contamination, the need of every known weapon with which to fight evil is seen to be imperative.

The common school and the Bible were the great civilizing powers of New England.

It may be that we are so much truer and stronger than our fathers that we can dispense with the chief one, and make the common school do the work alone; for it is certain that

the school is the only place where children of degraded and vicious parents are sure of getting any training that helps them to rise above their unfortunate birth and grow into good citizenship.

Unless we mean to allow the vicious and criminal classes to increase practically unchecked, the public school must teach ethics, and teach it effectually.

The public school alone has power to compel attendance; church and Sunday-school can only invite and entreat.

To develop the intellect in the public school, without corresponding development of the moral nature, would only increase the capacity for mischief in the dangerous classes.

Probably the first thought in a child's mind, when required to subordinate desire to duty, is "Why should I do this?"

Too often, the only answer given has been practically, "Because I am stronger than you."

No teacher can command true obedience on this basis. Conquered submission is not obedience. To overpower the will is not to train it.

A child knows very little of its relations to the rest of the universe. It is a rather uncommonly wise adult that apprehends them fully; to explain them, and show them in their true light is the task of the teacher. To point out the life the pupil should live for the greatest good of himself and his fellows is the first step; this is, in fact, establishing the ideal.

Next, by all possible means to help the pupil to voluntarily attempt its realization.

Fortunately there is in the childish heart, a mighty capacity for admiration, a ready appreciation of noble and heroic deeds, and a desire to imitate what is admirable.

Every child cherishes some idol in its secret heart. Hero worship is universal. So it only devolves on the teacher to exhibit the model.

Short and striking anecdotes illustrating noble traits of character in famous men, may help point the way to the little beginner!

Sir Philip Sidney's saying, "Thy need is greater than mine," Luther's "Here I stand God helping me I can do no other." John Brown's, "I thank God that I am permitted to die for a cause."

Neither is fiction to be left out of account. "Col. Newcome," "John Halifax," "John Brent," "Jeanie Deans," "Emma Burton," and "Hope Maxwell:" all these, and similar creations, are of as much value in forming character as living models. An appreciation of the beauty and grandeur of poetry is far more common among children than generally supposed, and as a civilizing power is not to be overlooked.

There is no lack of material in this line to suit every taste, and inculcate every virtue from the lesson of tenderness in "The Ancient Mariner," to the courage, self-devotion and patriotism of "Horatius." And there are many methods of bringing such poetry before the child.

Writing passages on blackboards, and letting the children read them, reading a favourite poem to them as a reward for good conduct, requiring recitations of poetry, all these are effective.

The personal example of the teacher is a factor of incalculable weight in the moral training of the scholar.

The teacher is scrutinized, understood and criticized with an appalling severity and accuracy known only in children. I overheard a conversation between two mites of seven or eight years to this effect, "I am going into Miss J's room." "Well, you won't like her, she's cross and lazy." Now, this unfortunate teacher was doubtless nervous and over-worked, and had shown irritability, and a dislike of her work to the sharp eyes surrounding her, and the children, detecting the fact and not the cause, called her conduct by the names given to similar behaviour in themselves.

Insincerity in the least degree in the teacher is fatal to her influence. A child will at once detect a sham, and there are no such pitiless judges and unscrupulous imitators. There is a remedy, however, for any inadvertent wrong-doing on the part of the teacher, which will reinstate her in the good opinion of her pupils, namely, frank confession. The instincts of justice and magnanimity are both stirred by this course, and the teacher's moral prestige restored. Wholesome motives for good conduct should be supplied. The fear of punishment is of course one motive, but incentives of a nobler kind should be provided, as far as possible.

To love of approbation we can al-

ways appeal, aspiration for excellence can be invoked, loyalty to the school can be cultivated, yet it will sometimes happen that a child will remain incorrigible. In this case, corporal punishment is perhaps the only resort, but it is always a pity to have to resort to brute force. In some cities a special school-building is set apart for incorrigibles, and the sending a child there is in itself a punishment; the discipline is also more rigid, so that it partakes of the character of a reformatory.

This is certainly better than expulsion, which is practically removing all restraint from the offender, and seems like an admission of defeat on the part of the school authorities.

One of the most efficient methods of teaching morals in a school must be the administration of justice in the school, and the method of discipline should be, as far as possible, a model for self-government. The use of text-books is also an invaluable help.

It seems as if an elementary moral philosophy ought to be put in the hands of a child, as early as any other scientific work. Surely the laws of right conduct are no harder to understand than the laws of mathematics, and the two taught at the

same time might be made mutually helpful.

The spiritual analogies in all true scientific work need only be pointed out, to be plain as day. The very language of morality is borrowed from the terms of natural science, and the true, upright, pure and straight, are as beautiful in moral science as in physical form. One of the very best text-books on this subject is a little book called "Duty," by Ex-Pres. Seelye of Amherst College.

Plain, simple in style and precise in definition, fixing the basis of moral obligation where it belongs in the duty of a creature to its Creator; establishing an absolute law for right and wrong, it treats the whole subject so clearly and thoroughly, that one wonders that moral philosophy is ever made obscure and hard.

Another excellent work of the same class is Prof. C. C. Everett's "Ethics for Young People." It is more diffuse than the first, and not as simple in diction; in fact, the difference in the titles of the two books is indicative of the difference throughout but Prof. Everett's book is sound philosophy and well worth reading for its interesting treatment of the subject.—*School Journal*.

IMMANUEL KANT AS A PEDAGOGUE.

BY PROF. LEVI SEELEY, LAKE FOREST, ILLINOIS.

WE are not to think of Kant as an author of pedagogical works; indeed he has left behind no complete work on pedagogics, nor did he evolve a system of education. But his teachings are found scattered throughout his other works, in his lectures, being largely recollections of his own experience as a teacher, or, perhaps it were better to say, theoretical and practical principles derived from that experience. This was not from lack of interest in the subject,

for he says in one place, "The great secret of the perfection of human nature is hidden in education, and it is pleasant to think that human nature is destined to become ever better by means of education; this opens to us a prospect of a happier condition of the human family." It now remains for us to show the pedagogical teachings of Kant as collected from the various sources at hand. Let us study them in order:—

1. Parents from the very nature of

the marriage relations have the right and it is their duty not alone to feed and care for their children, but also to prepare them to care for themselves in the future, and to give them a moral basis of action. Man is the only creature that must be taught how to take care of himself, the lower animals knowing how to do so by instinct. The child can come to real manhood only by means of education; he is nothing except what education makes him. The animal knows from the first how to take care of itself, while the child must be cared for, trained and directed for years. By this is asserted the natural necessity of training; it is natural for the child to be trained in order that he may become a man. Without education man is but an animal; education transforms his animality into humanity. But education, however necessary to his well-being, cannot be attained without the help of others: hence the necessity of intelligent parents, of teachers and of other instructors.

2. Children must be trained not with reference to the present, but with reference to a probable better condition of the human family. In a word they must be educated having in view the idea of humanity and its destiny. No narrow view of education which considers the child without reference to the world, is to be tolerated, but the good of the child from the broadest standpoint is to govern its education. Thus every parent easily recognizes that his advantages of a generation ago are not sufficient for his son who is to enter upon the stage in the next generation.

3. Education must be cosmopolitan in its aims. It must not simply seek to prepare one to earn his daily bread, not merely utilitarian, but broad and far-reaching, unselfish and humanitarian. The utilitarian idea had obtained a very strong hold upon the

German schools very much as it has at present upon the American schools, and Kant rendered no greater service to the world than when he led the German educators to break away from this idea. Of course he would have every child learn how to take care of and provide for himself, but he would not measure or limit his culture by any such base standard.

4. Pedagogics treats first of physical education. To this belongs the bodily care of little children, and the discipline and culture of the senses and other organs. Secondly, it treats of practical education, under which Kant includes instruction, pragmatic culture and moral training. By pragmatic culture he means practical education having special reference to happiness. He urges proper food and clothing, giving many suggestions that are valuable for parents, and of a most practical character. Food and clothing must be of such a character as to make the child hardy and strong. Such food as is demanded by the needs of the body, given periodically and in proper quantities, and such clothing as does not hinder the freedom of the body nor keep it too warm, are recommended as a means of securing good dispositions and preparing for happy lives. Herein lies an important lesson which all parents should learn, and which is not without its significance to teachers.

5. Kant's ideas of school morality are interesting. As in his philosophy, he bases it upon maxims. These maxims must arise within the child himself and all moral culture should seek to establish such maxims. The child must be early given an idea of right and wrong, and in all things certain plans and certain laws must be given him which he is required to follow with great accuracy and strictness. These laws are at first school maxims and afterwards maxims of humanity. By this means the forma-

tion of character is attained, which consists in the ability to act according to definite maxims. It is not expected, however, that this shall be the character of an adult, but of a child.

There are three things necessary to the formation of character: 1. Obedience, which must be absolute and unquestioning. The child must learn to obey authority in school in order to learn to respect law as a citizen, even if the law does not meet with his approval. 2. Truthfulness, without which there can be no such thing as character. Kant says with greatest emphasis: "The truth must under no circumstance be forced from children by means of punishment." They must be taught to love the truth and

not to be moved by fear. 3. Lastly, the philosopher mentions cheerfulness and sociableness as essential to character. For it is the gladsome alone that is capable of pleasure in the good things of life.

6. Unlike Rousseau, Kant taught that the child must early be taught about God, though he would not teach him doctrine; in a word the child should be taught religion, but not theology. Morality should precede religion, but should not be divorced from it.

These are some of the important teachings of Kant in pedagogics. He believed that education is an art, a profession, and the problem of education is the greatest that can be given to man.—*The Teacher*.

THEORY OF TEACHING—HOW DOES THE CONCEPT ARISE FROM THE PERCEPT ?

DR. J. MARK BALDWIN, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

IN answering this question, I shall be plain at the risk of being commonplace. It is only partially true that the concept arises from the percept at all. It is rather true that the two arise together, by the same mental movement. Going back to that neglected period, infancy, we may ask as a matter of fact, what takes place.

Suppose a single presentation, A, in the infant consciousness; then suppose it removed. The child is now ready to germinate in two different ways, forward and backward, futureward and pastward. He remembers and he expects. Viewed as memory, his experience, A, is particular, a sensation, a percept; viewed as expectation, it is general, a concept. For viewed as expectation, it is the whole of the child's reality; it is what will happen, for it is all that can happen:

he knows nothing else. Whatever then actually does happen is at first A, and remains A if it is possible for the child's consciousness to keep it A. This fact that past experience, taken as representing future experience, is general, I may call the general (concept) of the first degree. It means that at this stage particular experiences are the measure of all things, of things generally.

But as particulars increase, they limit one another, both in memory and in expectation. Instead of A (red colour) happening, B (green colour) happens; and instead of all my reds being red squares, and all my greens, green squares, I have red circles and green circles, red and green triangles, fantastic shapes of red and green, etc. This means two

things in the growth of concepts : first, that my expectation is no longer of all reds, *i.e.*, my red is no longer a general of the first degree. It is a particular as compared with green ; and second, my expectation is no longer that all my reds will be square. There will be circular, triangular, irregular reds ; *i.e.*, my red is still general as compared with particular instances of red. Now the particularizing of experiences in reference to one another is the function of perception, and this generalizing of experience, with reference to its own single instance, is conception—the general of the second degree. So conception and perception arise together.

At the same time, experience takes on another psychological aspect. New experience not only adds new items opposed to old items, but it leads to revision of the old. What passed for greens turn out to be part blues. So in my expectation of greens, I leave out the blues. So also I leave out the demand that my greens be either square, or circular, or triangular ; *i.e.*, I leave out figure. Or, to give a more concrete example, first, boat is boat, with spread sails, three masts and sailors in the rigging ; then sailors are dropped, sails and masts go, etc. What is left is ordinarily said to be abstracted, as, for instance, the concept colour, a quality

abstracted from particular instances. But true abstraction is not a singling out ; it is rather a paring down, a wearing off, an abrasion, due to the inconsistencies of new experiences with old. Thus is reached a general in the third degree. It represents that which is essential in an experience as tested by its uninterrupted recurrence amid shifting and drifting details.

How experience gets collected, related, distinguished, in this way is the question of the function of consciousness itself. I prefer to call the process apperception, and to say that both the percept and the concept arise by the apperceptive function of consciousness. They become, on this view, simply different aspects of one thing—a synthesis of elements. Looked at backward, the product is an event, a particular percept ; looked at forward, it is representative of other events, a general, a concept. The question of the relation of the two has largely lost its importance. The important question now is not how we get concept, but how we get anything, concept, percept, sensation. Recent work, especially in infant psychology, is showing that no line can be drawn sharply between generals and particulars. Every mental product is more or less general and, at the same time, more or less particular.

DISSIPATIONS AND THE YOUNG.

IT is not our present purpose to warn against dissipation in its more repulsive forms, but to draw attention to dissipations of a milder sort, to which the young are exposed, some of which, indeed, are deliberately put in their way by those older and supposed-wiser than themselves.

These dissipations are largely the product of our complicated modern

life. The literal meaning of the word is "to throw asunder, to scatter," and children now-a-days find themselves from infancy in the whirl of such distracting influences.

Especially is this the case in town and city life. The nursery is an antiquated institution. It has gone out of fashion. The baby, as soon as he is fairly on his feet, must be marched

or carried to the kindergarten, public or private, and be subjected to the excitement of elaborate study-games and a crowd of other children. The children's party, with its late hours and heavy supper, is the horror especially of the holiday season. Where there is a large circle of friends, it becomes a grievous evil at all seasons. Fairly launched on his school days, the child has to run the gauntlet of an elaborate programme of studies. We try to keep ourselves in touch with the best in educational improvements, but we confess to regarding it with something akin to alarm, the multiplication of subjects in the public schools, and the perpetual harassments of inspection and examination. A large part of it is utter dissipation to the scholar. Instead of developing, in a simple and natural way on a few elementary lines, the child, if of a keen and active mind, becomes a little prodigy of knowledge, but with vital forces exhausted. If careless or dull, the attempt to learn so many things at once distracts, and the child becomes the victim of chronic inaccuracy. Robustness of intellect and thoroughness are sacrificed to the dissipations of show and cram.

Libraries and reading-rooms are answerable for no small amount of dissipation. We are not decrying these. We would have them established in every community, and used. But the superabundance of reading matter has its dangers. In the old days when the whole stock of available books consisted in the two or three shelves of the corner kitchen cupboard, there was no choice. The few books were read over and over again. There were mastered; and the mastering process developed strong and sturdy intellects. The few books, thoroughly read, were like plain fare well masticated and digested. The boy who had leisurely made them his own, was already educated

in the best sense of the term, his faculties trained for efficient use. A boy of fifteen set loose, without guidance, in a well-stocked reading-room, and with the privilege of as many books a week from the Public Library as he can skim, is in sore peril of knowing nothing well, and indeed of losing the power of ever learning anything thoroughly. It is a question whether his leisure hours would not be better spent at a trade or at hard work in the garden, without books at all, than remaining at large in the fields of miscellaneous literature, as many town and city boys are permitted to do.

A physician, speaking the other day at a college commencement, advised his young professional graduates not to give much time to society. Its distractions would be fatal to any real progress or success. The waste of time and energy on the part of young people in amusement is perfectly appalling. Recreation they must have. Indeed, to forego recreation is often to commit grievous sin. But is it not of too frequent occurrence that the youth endures his daily task at the bench, or in the shop or office, only that, the moment he is free, he may plunge into some form of gaiety? Now and then, one finds young fellows who utilize their hours out of business in fitting themselves better for their work. Everyone can quote remarkable instances of success through such concentration of endeavour. But they are, after all, the exception. Short hours of work are prized, because they leave long hours for idling or recreation. The town or city is preferred to the country, because it brings shorter hours of labour and more time for amusement.

The question is a very serious one for those who have charge of the young. It is a difficult one as well, especially in the larger centres. It seems almost impossible to secure simplicity

of life and freedom from hurtful dissipation for growing boys and girls, or to prevent the formation by them of habits which send them out into the world eager, first of all, for "a good time." And yet nothing is surer than that such habits mean a second place

for them in the race of life. The first place will be taken by those who, in the quiet atmosphere of farm house or cottage, have matured without stimulation, and have learned to be content with simple and homely pleasures.—*Exchange.*

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

AFTER all, the great safeguard for good and happy discipline is to fill the time with work. If a child is to have an interval of leisure, let it be in the play-room or grounds, where relaxation is permissible. But let him have no intervals of leisure in school. There, and in school time, where play is not permitted, let work be systematically prescribed. You will of course take care that the work is duly varied, that it does not put too great a strain on one set of muscles, or on one set of faculties; you will see that light mechanical work alternates duly with serious intellectual application. But work of some kind—work which is duly superintended, and which cannot be evaded—should be provided for every minute of the school day.

No doubt this business of disciplining comes more easily to some than to others. There are some who seem qualified and designed by nature to exercise ascendancy over others, or better still, they are naturally endowed with that sweet graciousness and attractiveness of manner which at once win confidence, and predispose the hearers to listen and obey. Of such a teacher her pupil may often say as Richard Steele once said in the finest compliment ever paid to a lady, "To love her is a liberal education." And yet those of us who are not thus equipped by nature have no right to be discouraged. Every one may acquire the power to govern others by steadily setting himself to

do so, by thinking well over his orders before he gives them, by giving them without faltering or equivocation, by obeying them himself, by determining in every case, and at whatever cost, to see them obeyed, and above all by taking care they are reasonable and right, and properly adapted to the nature of childhood, to its weaknesses and its needs.

Since obedience and fixed attention are habits, they are subject to the same law which is found to regulate all other habits. Butler says "practical habits are formed and strengthened by repeated acts." I know of no truth more fruitful or far-reaching in its bearing on a teacher's work than this, nor one on which he will do well to reflect oftener. Think what it means in relation to the pupils who come to you for instruction. It means that every time they come into your presence the habit of obedient attention is being either confirmed or weakened. It means that prompt and exact obedience if insisted on in little thing becomes available for great things; it means, in short, that on the daily regime of your school depends the whole difference for life, in the case of your pupils, between a wandering, loose, slipshod style of thinking and of reading, and an orderly and observant mind, one accustomed to put forth all its best powers, and to bring them to bear on any subject worthy of pursuit.—*Fitch's Lectures on Teaching.*

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

A CHILD'S CONSCIENCE.—A law of great value, which every teacher should impose upon himself is this: Never give a pupil the tremendous advantage of feeling that he is in the right and you in the wrong. The best auxiliary you can possibly have in school government is the child's conscience on your side. Conscience makes a coward even of a little child when it condemns him. On the other hand, it often makes him a determined rebel, if it but sides with him in the dispute. The teacher who can succeed in making it manifest to each pupil that he is striving, above everything, to do right and to do good, will find himself reinforced at every turn, not only by the best public opinion in the school—in itself a mighty influence—but by the monitor which dwells in the bosom of every child, and whose office it is to approve the right and to denounce the wrong. Great mistakes are made in consequence of underrating the power of a child's conscience. — *Public School.*

WHAT A BOY DID.—This boy's heart ached because of all the children in New York who have to go barefooted, so he started a little paper called the *Sunny Hour*, with the idea of buying boots and stockings for them out of the profits. He canvassed for advertisements, and he canvassed for contributors, and found it all very uphill work at first, but he did not give in. It is wonderful to think of that one boy's pluck and perseverance. Then he began to succeed, and went on succeeding, and the secret of his success, the young editor thinks, is that he was "working for others and so put his heart into it." The *Sunny Hour* is now in its fourth year. Kings, Queens, Rulers, etc., have written him

permission to put their names on the list of patrons. He has subscribers all over the world. He has given about three thousand eight hundred pairs of boots and shoes to the New York children, besides clothes and other things. That boy's name is Tello d'Apéry. He was twelve years old when he started the *Sunny Hour*. — *The School Newspaper.*

THE REAL TEACHER cannot be measured by the grade he is able to make in examination, but the final result he can produce in the character of those who come from under his hand. This efficiency is not of the sort that can be counted upon always to work an increase of salary. But the ability to leave a lasting mark on the mind and character of the pupil, is the unmistakable sign of the real teacher. And the source of this power lies not in the teacher's acquirements, but deeper, in the very fibre of his character. "Words have weight, when there is a man behind them," said the prophet of Concord. It is the man or woman behind the instruction that makes the real teacher a great deal more than a mere instructor. Real teachers are of various magnitudes, and the humblest mistress of a country school, who manages to inspire her pupils with a thirst for knowledge and an aspiration for veracity in character, is in the class of real teachers as truly as Socrates, the first great professor of the divine art of moulding youthful character and pushing the human mind in the direction of truth. Blessed be the humble teacher who, without any chance for the great rewards of fame or money, renders noble service and leaves the impress of a genuine and generous character in one little corner of the world.—*Edward Eggleston.*

PUBLIC OPINION.

OVER-TRAINED.—In a certain leading Missionary Institution in our country the Principal says: "Yes, we know our teaching is poor. We know our teachers are untrained. I wish this might be remedied; but of the two we get better results, our pupils *are reached more vitally* by the refined, cultured, *untrained* college young women than through the narrow-visioned, pedagogical, *trained* Normal graduates." The testimony of this Principal should not be ignored. He speaks from long years of experience. What does he mean?—*The Popular Educator*.

TRULY SAID.—The young teacher generally lays a great deal of stress upon methods and, if inclined to be pedantic, he lifts into much prominence mere knowledge and the examinations he invents to search for it. But we have noticed that the abler and more thoughtful, as age comes and experience widens, while respecting the judgments of their youth, place a much higher estimate upon the ability that is able to influence thought and motive. Here is a bit of evidence in point from the confessions of an Ohio superintendent:—"I think we test our schools too much by mere intellectual acquisition, and some of you who know me, will perhaps be surprised at that statement. I certainly was at one period of my reflections upon this subject a little less inclined to give much prominence as I now give to the purely human side of education. But the education that does not result in making a boy gentle, more kind, more courteous, less thoughtful of self, more thoughtful of others, more sympathetic, more helpful, more appreciative, more obedient, more courageous in the maintenance of right, more highminded than he was on entering school is a failure,

no matter how much intellectual knowledge he may have." All of which is true to the letter.—*The Popular Educator*.

WHAT WE ARE COMING TO.—Nanking at the latest dates is described (says the *Daily News*) as full of strangers on account of the triennial examinations. Not far short of one hundred thousand visitors were calculated to be in the city, of whom twenty thousand were bachelors of arts, or students who, having taken the first degree, were now to compete for the rank of Ku'Kiu. If they succeed they then go to Peking for the final examination; but only about two hundred were expected to succeed. Similar scenes were going on in other provincial cities—in Wuchang, for example, which had fifteen thousand bachelors of arts within its walls. "In the wake of these Confucian scholars," says a local journal, "comes a rout of all manner of traders, painters, scroll-sellers, tea-pot venders, candle merchants, spectacle mongers, servants, and friends." The great examination hall at Wangchu is described as being composed of a series of pens shut off from each other in little rows of twenty or thirty, the whole resembling a huge cattle market in the centre of the city. When the actual examination begins, martial law is practically proclaimed. In the central tower is a sword, and any misdemeanour within the limits renders the offender liable to instant death. The examination, which consists chiefly of the writing of essays on the "five classics" and "miscellaneous subjects," is divided into three sessions of about thirty-six hours each, with intervals of a day. The strain is said to be very great, and at every examination several victims die in the hall.

GEOGRAPHY.

PUSH ON THE CANAL!—The Minister of Agriculture has been spending a few days at Sault Ste. Marie, and, as the *Globe* correspondent states, receiving the courtesies of the citizens. It is stated in the same journal that the promise has been made by Hon. Mr. Carling that the canal now in course of construction will be ready for the next season of navigation, which, if true, means that the work will be pushed on throughout the winter with the utmost vigour. No doubt after the Presidential election is over, a conference will be held between the two Governments, and a good understanding arrived at, both for the future navigation of the inland waters and transportation by land. But it is meanwhile quite in accordance with the public sentiment of this country that the work on the Canadian canal should be hastened with all convenient speed so that our interests may not be left at the mercy of the United States any longer than necessary. It will be a signal instance of the progress of Canada that a canal should be built on the Canadian side of the rapids, giving the same facilities to shipping as the American canal which has been the subject of so much ado. The British were the first to overcome the Sault by means of a canal. The Hudson Bay Company were the first in the field there with that aid to navigation. Their canal, if canal it may be called, was a long wooden flume, in which there were little gates in size sufficient to pass the Mackinaw boats, laden with furs or supplies. It was one of a number of little canals built in 1798 by the company where needed, from the Lake Superior region to far Ottawa. The remains of this canal are still visible in the form of three blackened pieces of timber in a stand-

ing position, protruding, one from a little pond and the two from the earth, a foot or two above the surface.—*Free Press* (London).

DENSITY OF POPULATION — ENGLAND AND AMERICA.—An interesting set of tables has been prepared at the census office which compares the population and the density of population in sixteen of the largest cities in the United States and England. The table of English cities is as follows:—

	Population 1891.	Per cent. increase	Total area, acres.	Population to acre.
London	4,211,056	10.4	74,692	56.4
Liverpool.....	517,951	06.3	5,210	99.4
Manchester ...	505,343	09.3	12,788	39.5
Birmingham...	429,171	07.1	8,400	51.1
Leeds	367,506	18.9	21,572	17.0
Sheffield	324,243	14.0	19,651	16.5
Bristol	221,665	07.1	3,595	61.7
Bradford	216,361	11.2	10,775	20.1
Nottingham....	211,934	13.6	9,960	21.3
Hull	199,991	20.7	7,916	25.3
Salford.....	198,136	12.4	5,170	38.3
Newcastle	186,345	28.2	5,371	34.7
Portsmouth ...	159,255	24.4	4,320	36.9
Leicester	142,051	16.1	3,200	44.4
Oldham	131,463	18.1	4,730	27.8
Sunderland	130,921	12.3	3,032	43.2

The table of American cities is as follows:—

	Population 1890.	Per cent. increase.	Total area, acres.	Population to acre.
New York..	1,515,301	25.62	25,740	58.87
Chicago...	1,099,850	18.58	102,764	10.70
Phil'delph'a	1,046,964	23.58	82,809	12.64
Brooklyn ..	806,343	42.30	16,934	47.62
St. Louis...	451,770	28.89	39,264	11.51
Boston	448,477	23.60	22,579	19.86
Baltimore..	434,439	30.73	18,163	23.93
'Frisko	298,987	27.80	9,894	30.22
Cincinnati..	296,908	16.37	16,000	18.56
Cleveland..	261,353	63.20	15,923	16.41
Buffalo	255,661	64.80	24,985	10.23
New Orle'ns	242,039	12.01	23,737	10.20
Pittsburg...	238,617	52.58	3,891	61.32
Detroit....	205,876	76.96	13,177	15.62
Milwaukee..	204,468	76.90	10,880	18.79
Washington	202,978	26.96	6,553	30.97

THE NEW LIVERPOOL WATERWORKS.—The Duke of Connaught has visited the Mersey city to inaugurate the Vyrnwy water supply. The scheme was begun twelve years ago, and between two and three million pounds have been expended on the works. Eighty miles away, in one of the sources of the Severn, the water is found in the valley of the Vyrnwy. This valley is five miles long, and formerly contained the village of Llanwddyn, some farms, and a parish church. These have all been re-

moved; an immense dam of solid masonry, with a carriage road at the top, has been built across the valley, and Lake Vyrnwy, containing some thirteen thousand million gallons of water, now covers the place, where centuries ago, it is believed, another lake also existed, filling the beautiful mountain basin as if it had lain there from the beginning. An aqueduct conveys the water to the Cheshire side of the Mersey, under which river a tunnel carries the water to the city. —*The School Newspaper.*

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE RECENT EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of THE MONTHLY:

SIR,—Now that the clamour caused by the nature of some of the recent examination papers has died away, a few remarks as to the time when these examinations are held, and the character of the questions set, may not be out of place.

First, as to the Time.—The experience of the last year has convinced me that the time when these examinations are held is too late in the summer. The season is the very hottest in the year, and the effects upon the physical and mental health of the candidates are in some cases most injurious. It must be remembered that the candidates are, in the majority of cases, young girls, whose physical strength is not such as to withstand the strain involved in ten months' hard study and an examination held when the thermometer is hovering in the neighbourhood of the nineties. Therefore, it is not at all surprising that cases of collapse in the midst of the examination should be frequent. Again, it is physically impossible for candidates to do justice

to themselves under the present circumstances. The utter weariness and exhaustion due to long hours of study and to continued hot weather cannot fail to lead to bad examination results, to say nothing of the injury inflicted on the nerves and constitution. Besides, it is safe to say that all that is now accomplished, and more, could be secured by holding these examinations in June instead of July. I would suggest that the examinations begin the middle of June instead of the middle of July. This would not render it necessary to close the schools, for the junior pupils composing the majority of those in attendance could proceed with their work. As the schools close the 30th June, the reading of the examination papers could proceed at once. The results would then be known by the 1st August, and appeals might be read and the whole machinery stowed away by the 1st September. As it is now, the candidates are given untold misery, the examiners are left without holidays, and the final results are not known till the 1st October. Candidates are left uncertain as to their fate until it is too late to secure situa-

tions, or apply for admission to the Normal and Model Schools.

Second, as to the Nature of the Questions Set.—I am not in a position to speak with confidence of any papers save these on Mathematics, Physics, and History. Of the mathematical papers a great deal has been said. After a careful examination the conclusion I have reached is that the examiners, in the papers on Arithmetic and Algebra, were too anxious to raise the standard, and did not consider that the papers in 1891 were what the candidates would measure their strength by. The result was that when the papers of 1892 came to hand, consternation and dismay prevailed everywhere. The change was too abrupt. It is evident that the central board of examiners did not properly discharge its duties, otherwise such glaring illustrations of defective judgment would not have taken place. An effort was made by the associate examiners to remedy the evils resulting from the nature of the papers on Arithmetic and Algebra, but it has been found that only a very partial remedy was available. I would, however, suggest that now that the standard in Mathematics has been raised at least fifty per cent., that it be allowed to remain there. So long as pupils know what is expected of them, no great evil can result from maintaining a high standard for teachers' certificates and matriculation. It would involve a raising of the standard all along the line, from the Entrance Examination to the Senior Leaving, and it probably would diminish the number of candidates for

teachers' certificates, and also the attendance at our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. This would not be an evil; but it is a standing source of just complaint that the standard fluctuates from year to year.

The papers on History were, so far as contents were concerned, fair. Something, however, may be said as to the form in which they were presented. It is doubtful if such a minute subdivision of topics and heads as characterized the Junior Leaving History paper is wise. It must tend to confuse and impede both candidate and examiner. Something must be left to the judgment of the examiners, and if an examiner knows his business he will prefer to have his judgment left untrammelled by a network of minute subdivisions. This year clearness was sacrificed by the extreme care taken to make the candidate know precisely what was demanded.

A word as to the mode of reading the examination papers. It is a pity that some better plan cannot be devised than the present one of bringing together a regiment of teachers at the hottest season of the year to read a host of papers. Notwithstanding the care taken to secure fairly accurate results, one cannot but feel that chance enters very largely as an element into the final results. Mistakes are made—sometimes serious mistakes. It is unavoidable under the present plan. And yet it is difficult to believe that County Boards would serve the purpose any better. It seems to be the choice of the least of two evils.

Yours truly,

W. J. ROBERTSON.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES—OCTOBER-NOVEMBER.

BY THOMAS LINDSAY.

THE most interesting astronomical event of the past month and one of the most important of the century is the discovery by Professor Barnard, of a fifth satellite in the Jovian system. This new member is not within the light-grasp of humble instruments as it is only of the 13th magnitude and never more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the radius of the primary from its centre. The period is 11h. 59m. A question arises in this connection that is of the deepest interest to astronomers—whether the satellite is really a new one formed from the matter surrounding a planet not yet condensed, or whether it has been there for thousands of years but not seen till now. A Toronto observer, Mr. E—, has long held that new satellites were in course of formation, and some short time since published his reasons which were mainly deduced from observations of the great red spot on Jupiter.

The planet itself is now the most beautiful object in the evening sky, much brighter than Mars and presenting a much more interesting appearance in a small telescope.

From midnight on Oct. 15, until the evening of the 17th, all the phenomena of the satellites will be visible at Toronto, and also on the evenings of Oct. 24th and 25th.

In the early mornings Venus is still an object of great beauty, but her brilliancy is rapidly decreasing. She is now about one-half illuminated. The eclipse of the sun, Oct. 20th, is the most interesting event of the month. The first contact is predicted to occur at 11h. 53m. 36'. a. m. standard time at Toronto, and the last contact 2h. 53m. 42'. p. m. It is hoped that observers generally will report the observed times accurately. A series of observations from different stations in Ontario would be very valuable as a means of determining geographical positions. It is a matter of extreme regret that there are comparatively few places in the Province the longitude and latitude of which are laid down with rigorous accuracy. In the sidereal heavens we have now the great nebula in Andromeda in good position for observation. A line from Jupiter to the pole passes midway between the nebula and the beautiful double Gamma Andromeda. The continuation of a line joining these two, passes nearly through Algol, the variable about which so much has been written.

Eclipses of this wonderful star will occur Oct. 8th, 11h. 24m., and Oct. 31st, 9h. 56m. Occultations of stars by the moon occur on the evenings of Oct. 6th and 7th.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

IN this number of the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY special attention is given to examinations. Our readers will find some indication of the current of opinion amongst educated men by reading the various articles, extracts and notes to be found in this number. It is our belief that we have not yet arrived at

the best attainable in examinations; that the whole question, for educational purposes, should be carefully reconsidered. As a matter of fact, the crudeness and unfairness of our methods force the question upon us year by year. Can we in Canada give any assistance in solving this difficult and perplexing problem in education?

EXAMINATIONS.

AT the meeting of the Dominion Education Association in Montreal last July, the Minister of Education for Ontario, in his address on the educational tendencies of the age, referred in very strong language to his disappointment at the results obtained by the annual examinations conducted by the Education Department, and expressed an ardent wish that some better plan could be devised which would serve to secure the ends aimed at in a better way. In speaking thus, the Hon. Mr. Ross simply gave utterance to the sentiment of every thoughtful educator in the English speaking world. It is an undoubted fact that the discontent with examinations in every form is growing stronger every year. Less reliance now is being placed on results obtained by examinations than for many years past.

The injustice done to candidates by examinations and their results is becoming so apparent and so notorious to the best and most experienced educators that the question of what to do in the matter, whether to abolish examinations altogether or how to modify their results, is now a very serious question to those who are responsible to the public in educational affairs. The opinion is well nigh unanimous that examinations

supply a test of some qualification in a candidate which can scarcely be got in any other way, and the opinion is almost as unanimous that if examinations are solely relied upon the conclusion is misleading. The conclusion is misleading in two ways. The standing given to a candidate may be too high or too low, but it is more likely to be too low.

If the authorities who are responsible for the final results of the examination had information about a candidate's state of preparation for any particular examination, (which someone must have) and could apply this information to the correcting of examination results, the eminently unsatisfactory results obtained by the first test would be modified in the right direction. But who has this information and how can it be made available? Generally speaking, the Principal of the school has the information required concerning most, if not all, of the candidates. Can the educational authorities get this information in such a shape that they would be justified in relying upon it to such an extent as to modify the results of the written examination?

As all teachers are deeply concerned in this question, we will be glad to have suggestions from them on this matter which is now so largely engaging the attention of educators.

SCHOOL WORK.

CLASS-ROOM.

THE HIGH SCHOOL PRIMARY, 1892.

ENGLISH POETICAL LITERATURE.

Examiners: W. J. Alexander, Ph.D.; J. E. Bryant, M.A.; F. H. Sykes, M.A.:

A

1 (a) Give in a single phrase or short sentence the main idea brought out in Byron's poem beginning "The isles of Greece."

(b) Indicate the connection between this main thought and the ideas expressed in each of the following passages:—

The isles of Greece! the isles of Greece?

Where burning Sappho loved and sung,

Where grew the arts of war and peace,—

Where Delos rose, and Phœbus sprung

Eternal summer gilds them yet,

But all, except their sun, is set.

A king sate on the rocky brow

Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis ;

And ships, by thousands, lay below,

And men in nations ;— all were his !

He counted them at break of day—

And when the sun set, where were they ?

Must *we* but weep o'er days more blest ?

Must *we* but blush ?—our fathers bled.

Earth ! render back from out thy breast

A remnant of our Spartan dead !

Of the three hundred grant but three,

To make a new Thermopylæ !

In vain—in vain : strike other chords ;

Fill high the cup with Samian wine !

Leave battle to the Turkish hordes,

And shed the blood of Scio's vine !

Hark ! rising to the ignoble call—

How answers each bold Bacchanal ?

2. Describe (in as far as appears from the poem itself) the person who might be supposed to give utterance to "The isles of Greece," and the circumstances under which it is uttered.

3. Give briefly and exactly the meaning of the italicized words in the following passages :—

(a) Twice seven *consenting* years have shed
Their utmost bounty on thy head.

(b) "Surely," said I, "surely that is something at my window-lattice."

(c) What of the heart of hate
That beats in thy breast, O Time ?
Red strife from the furthest *prime*,
And anguish of fierce debate.

(d) He stared at the Pacific—and all his
men
Look'd at each other with a wild *surmise*.

(e) The weak and the gentle, the *ribald*
and rude,
She took as she found them, and did
them all good.

4. Either quote any two consecutive stanzas of *The Cloud*, or state clearly in a single phrase or short sentence the Subject of *Eucnè and All*, and show how the poet enforces and illustrates it.

5. Among the following four poems, select one which you admire, and shew the reasons for your preference by comparing the poem

which you select with any other one of the four :—*The Cloud*, *The Raven*, *Cloud Confines*, *The Return of the Swallows*.

B.

Mighty victor, Mighty lord !

Low on his funeral couch he lies !

No pitying heart, no eye, afford

A tear to grace his obsequies.

Is the sable warrior fled ?

Thy son is gone. He rests among the dead.

The swarm, that in the noontide beam were
born ?

Come to salute the rising morn.

Fair laughs the Morn, and soft the Zephyr
blows,

While proudly riding o'er the azure realm

In gallant trim the gilded vessel goes ;

Youth on the prow, and Pleasure at the
helm ;

Regardless of the sweeping Whirlwind's
sway,

That, hush'd in grim repose, expects his
evening prey.

6. Mention the historical events and personages referred to in the above passage, indicating in each case the words which contain the reference.

C

TO THE SKYLARK.

Ethereal minstrel ! pilgrim of the sky !

Dost thou despise the earth where cares
abound ?

Or, while the wings aspire, are heart and eye
Both with thy nest upon the dewy ground ?

Thy nest, which thou canst drop into at will,
Those quivering wings composed, that music
still !

To the last point of vision, and beyond,

Mount, daring Warbler ! that love-prompt-
ed strain,

('Twixt thee and thine a never-failing bond)

Thrills not the less the bosom of the plain :
Yet might'st thou seem, proud privilege ! to
sing

All independent of the leafy spring.

Leave to the nightingale her shady wood :

A privacy of glorious light is thine ;

Whence thou dost pour upon the world a
flood

Of harmony, with instinct more divine ;

Type of the wise who soar, but never roam;
True to the kindred points of Heaven and
Home!

7. In a single phrase or short sentence, state the main idea brought out in this poem as a whole. What do the first two stanzas contribute towards bringing out this main idea?

8. (a) "To the last point of vision," l. 1. Give clearly the meaning of this phrase.

(b) "a never-failing bond," l. 9. Why does the poet call the bond "never-failing"?

(c) "Thrills not the less," l. 10. Explain the force and reference of "the less" here.

(d) "A privacy of glorious light," l. 14. Give clearly the meaning of this phrase.

(e) "with instinct more divine," l. 16. "More divine" than what, and why "more divine"?

(f) What do you gather from the poem would be the poet's answer to the questions contained in lines 2 to 4 inclusive? Give the reasons for your answer.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

NOTE.—Candidates will take section A, any two questions of section B, and any two questions of section C; that is, six questions in all.

A.

1. Write short descriptive and explanatory accounts of

(a) The North-West Rebellion of 1885;

(b) The Washington Treaty of 1871;

(c) The founding of the Public School System of Ontario under Egerton Ryerson;

(d) The Quebec Act of 1774.

2. Give as full an account as you can of the causes which operated to bring about the British North America Act of 1867, and of the constitutional settlements effected by the Act, both as regards the Provinces and the Dominion.

B.

3. Sketch very briefly the character, life, and reign of any three of the following rulers of England, particularizing only those acts or events which are of considerable historical importance:

(a) King John; (b) King Henry VII; (c) King James I; (d) Oliver Cromwell.

4. Write short notes upon any eight of the following historical characters, describing very briefly what these men did, or tried to do, for the benefit, honour, or renown of England:—

(a) Stephen Langton; (b) Simon de Montfort; (c) John Wiclif; (d) William Caxton; (e) Sir Francis Drake; (f) Sir John Eliot; (g) Sir Harry Vane; (h) Robert Blake (admiral); (i) Charles Montague; (j) John Wesley; (k) William Wilberforce; (l) Horatio Nelson.

5. Give some account of

(a) The more important Acts passed by the British Parliament since 1869;

(b) The difficult governmental problems confronting English statesmen to-day and needing settlement.

6. Give a short account of the Indian Mutiny of 1857-8, with a statement as full as you can of its causes and its results. Describe the improvements effected in the political, social and material condition of India since the Mutiny.

8. Describe as fully as you can the political, social and commercial reforms effected or attempted by Canning, Peel, and Huskisson, 1822-7.

C.

8. (a) Explain fully what is meant by Longitude and Latitude as geographical terms, and shew how Longitude and Latitude are measured. In illustration of your answer explain fully what is meant when we say that the Observatory of Toronto is situated in Longitude $79^{\circ} 23' 38''$ west, and in Latitude $43^{\circ} 39' 35''$ north.

(b) Explain what is meant by Solar Time. Shew how the solar time of any particular place on the earth's surface (as for example, Toronto) is determined. Shew also where places must be situated to have the same solar time as that of Toronto, and where places must be situated to have a solar time differing from that of Toronto by one hour, two hours, three hours, etc.

(c) Describe what is meant by Standard Time in North America. When it is twelve noon by Standard Time in Toronto what o'clock is it at Greenwich, England?

9 Describe particularly the mineral resources of the various Provinces of Canada, specifying where they are found, and as far as you can the extent to which they have been utilized.

10. Describe generally the physical characteristics of the British Islands, and shew how these have to a large extent determined the occupations of the people in the various parts of the islands.

11. Give the geographical position of, and write full but concise descriptive notes upon, ten of the following places (of which, however, at least five must be outside of Canada):

(a) Three Rivers; (b) St. John (N.B.); (c) Yarmouth (N.S.); (d) Winnipeg; (e) Regina; (f) Vancouver; (g) Esquimalt; (h) St. John's (Nfld.); (i) Liverpool; (j) Birmingham; (k) Leeds; (l) Sheffield; (m) Portsmouth; (n) Plymouth; (o) Glasgow; (p) Dundee; (q) Aberdeen; (r) Paisley; (s) Belfast; (t) Cork; (u) Calcutta; (v) Bombay; (w) Capetown; (x) Melbourne; (y) Sydney; (z) Wellington.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT: IV.—LEGISLATIVE POWER.

PETER MCEACHERN, B.A.

(Continued.)

The Senate—Number of Senators:

21. "The Senate shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, consist of seventy-two members, who shall be styled Senators."

The provisions of this section are qualified by sections 146 and 147 of the B. N. A. Act and by legislation for the admission of new provinces and territories under these and other sections. Section 147 provides that "The Normal number of Senators shall be seventy-six, and their maximum number shall be eighty-two." At the beginning of 1892 the number of Senators was 74.

Representation of Provinces in Senate:

22. "In relation to the constitution of the Senate, Canada shall be deemed to consist of Three Divisions:—

"(1) Ontario; (2) Quebec; (3) The Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia and New

Brunswick; which Three Divisions shall (subject to the Provisions of this Act) be equally represented in the Senate as follows: Ontario by Twenty-four Senators; Quebec by Twenty-four Senators; and the Maritime Provinces by Twenty-four Senators, Twelve thereof representing Nova Scotia and Twelve thereof representing New Brunswick."

"In the case of Quebec, each of the Twenty-four Senators representing that Province shall be appointed for one of the Twenty-four Electoral Divisions of Lower Canada specified in Schedule A, to Chapter One of Consolidated Statutes of Canada."

As before stated, it was feared that under such an absolute system of representation by population as prevails in the Commons, adequate protection for the various interests of the Provinces which surrendered important powers to the Federal Government, might not be secured. Hence the three sections, Ontario, Quebec, and the Maritime Provinces were given an equal representation of twenty-four members each, in the Senate. The provision that each Senator from Quebec shall represent one of the Electoral Divisions gives the English-speaking population of the Eastern Townships, two representatives in the Senate.

[The Constitution of the United States provides that each State shall be represented by two Senators.]

Qualifications of Senator:

23. "The qualification of a Senator shall be as follows:

"(1) He shall be of the full Age of Thirty Years.

"(2) He shall be either a Natural-born Subject of the Queen (a), or a Subject of the Queen naturalized by an Act of the Parliament of Great Britain (b), or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (c), or of the Legislature of One of the Provinces of Upper Canada, Lower Canada (d), Canada (e), Nova Scotia (f), or New Brunswick (g), before the Union, or of the Parliament of Canada after the Union (h).

"(3) He shall be legally or equitably seised (a) as of Freehold (b) for his own Use

and Benefit of Lands or Tenements held in free and common Socage (c), or seised or possessed for his own Use and Benefit of Lands or Tenements held in Franc-alieu (d), or in Roture (e), within the Province for which he is appointed, of the Value of Four thousand Dollars, over and above all Rents, Dues, Debts, Charges, Mortgages, and Incumbrances due or payable out of or charged on or affecting the same.

"(4) His Real (a) and Personal Property (b) shall be together worth Four thousand Dollars over and above his Debts and Liabilities.

"(5) He shall be resident in the Province for which he is appointed.

"(6) In the Case of Quebec he shall have his Real Property Qualification in the Electoral Division for which he is appointed, or shall be resident in that Division."

NOTES :

(1) The qualifications of a United States Senator are : age 30 years ; residence in the State he represents, and nine years' citizenship.

(2) (a) Of any part of Her Majesty's dominions ; (b) Before 1801 ; (c) After 1800 ; (d) 1791 to 1841 ; (e) 1841 to 1867 ; (f) from 1758 ; (g) from 1784 ; (h) from 1867.

(3) (a) To be seised of : to have possession of.

(b) Freehold : property which a man holds for life in his own right.

(c) Socage : tenure of land in return for service to be rendered to the owner.

(d) Franc-alieu : freehold.

(e) Roture : commonality, plebeian state, the inheritance of a peasant.

(4) (a) Real property : lands and houses.

(b) Personal property : all other kinds of property.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

THE *October Overland* will contain an illustrated and carefully-prepared article on the "University of California." Other articles will be on "Lawn Tennis" and a "Trip to Cook's Inlet."

THE August *Wide Awake* is a breezy vacation number. Margaret Sidney has a delightful story called "Trypheny's Bicycle." "French Leave," "The Crimson Handkerchief" are both good stories. The continued story, "That Mary Anne," is especially interesting.

Scribner's Magazine for September opens with a finely illustrated article, by George Grenvill, on "The Last of the Buffalo." The poetry of the number is especially worthy of note, "Insomnia," by Edith M. Thomas, "Her Last Word," by L. W. Reese, and "Death at Day Break," by Annie Reeve Aldrich. The sixth article in the series of Great Streets in the World is on the "Névesky Prospékt," by Isabel F. Hopegood. "A Case in Point," by George Hibbard, and the second "Story of a Western Town," by Octave Thanet, are the fiction of the number.

Education for September contains an article on "Browning," by May Mackintosh, and an interesting paper on "The Woman's Educational Movement in Germany," by A. Witte. There are many other papers valuable to educationists. "Thought Children" is a poem of considerable merit by Julia H. May.

AN interesting number is the September *Dominion Illustrated*, which opens with an amusing story by Mrs. K. A. Chipman. There are valuable articles by Mrs. Lemoine and Dr. Brymner. Miss A. M. McLeod begins a story entitled "A Summer in Canada." The supplement this month is a portrait of the late Hon. John Robson.

Littell's Living Age for September 17th contains the conclusion of that remarkable novel "Aunt Anne" from *Temple Bar*. A pathetic short story called "Phil" is given from *Belgravia*. "Death Week in Russia," from the *Spectator*, will be eagerly read. Other interesting articles are "The Chateaux of the Loire" and "A Critical Review" by Andrew Lang."

THE September *Century* is quite an art number with the space it devotes to Antonin Dvarak, Claude Monet and Tintaretto and the fine reproductions of famous pictures. "The Grand Falls of Labrador" is a valuable and finely illustrated paper. Edmund Clarence Stedman and Emilio Castelar continue their articles on "Poetry" and "Christopher Columbus." The short stories of the number are very good.

THE September number of the *Cosmopolitan* is a number of such great interest that it is almost impossible to select among the poems, articles and stories for notice. The poems "Three Moods of Midnight," by George Pellew, with the notice of the young author, now dead, by W. D. Howells, will be eagerly read. "Anna-San" and "The Regret of Spring" are good short stories, and "Social Strugglers," by H. H. Boyesen, promises well as a continued story. An exceedingly interesting article is on "Celebrated British Spectres," by Esther Singleton. Edward E. Hale, J. B. Walker, Murat Halstead and Brander Matthews all contribute valuable articles.

TWO recent issues of Macmillan's favourite *Golden Treasury Series* are Sir Thomas Browne's "Religio-Medica" (3rd reprint), and Prof. Buchheim's "Deutsche Lyrik" (8th reprint). 2s. 6d.

The History Reader for Standard V. (Macmillan & Co.), with its good illustrations—we observed particularly a fine portrait of Columbus—and clear sympathetic narrative is a real history and not a "sawdust pie."

WE are glad to find that an easy introduction is now issued to the excellent Elementary Algebra for Schools, by Mr. H. S. Hall and Mr. S. R. Knight (Macmillan & Co.). *The Algebra for Beginners* will be a success we have no doubt.

Johnson's Life of Milton is the latest "English Classic" issued by Messrs. Macmillan & Co. Mr. Deighton is the editor. The great doctor was sometimes mistaken in his estimate of the poets, but he was ever instructive and worthy.

ANOTHER volume has been added to the *Leading Facts of History Series*, by D. H. Montgomery (Ginn & Co.), entitled *The Beginner's American History*. It possesses many merits, and is, as an elementary history ought to be, largely biographical.

MESSRS. D. C. HEATH & CO. have just published No. 4 of the *Nature Readers*, by Julia McNair Wright. We have also received from the same firm *The Complete Music Reader*, by Charles E. Whiting, which contains numerous good exercises and songs.

MR. H. ST. JOHN HUNTER has published in a small book, bristling with figures, a series of rules, with examples, for performing all operations in decimals accurately to any assigned place. The methods used appear to be short and successful. (Macmillan & Co.) 1s. 6d.

Clarendon Press Series: Cicero Pro Milone. Edited by A. B. Poynton, M.A. (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press.) 2s. 6d. The introduction, notes, indices, etc., in this edition are admirable. The notes contain a great deal of useful and suggestive information, and the book is one which it would be hard to criticize adversely.

Lessons on Heat and Light. D. E. Jones, B. Sc. (London: Macmillan's.) 3s. 6d. Prof. Jones is master of a simple, pleasant style, knows his subject thoroughly, and explains it successfully. There are many admirable illustrations and diagrams. The arrangement of matter is good, and the questions and solutions numerous.

Cathcart's Literary Reader. \$1.15. (New York: The American Book Co.) This is a good manual of English Literature, and while we do not approve of the "piecemeal" method of teaching Literature, we know well that it is not likely to hinder the development of literary taste, and is, in some circumstances, the only practicable method. We cordially recognize the merits of this book; the specimens are thoroughly representative (while of course prominence is given to American authors), the editor's work, on the whole, well done, and the mechanical execution good.

FROM the American Book Co. we have *The Sloyd System of Wood Working*, by B. B. Hoffman, an interesting work, containing a good account of the theory of manual training and the practical application of the Swedish system (\$1.00), and a supplementary *First Reader*, by Rebecca D. Rickoff, beautifully executed. (25c.)

Nature's Story Books : Sunshine. By Amy Johnson, L.L.G. (Macmillan's.) 6s. We are prejudiced in favour of this book on account of its attractive appearance and also because we noticed that it is not a textbook for any public examination. *O si sic omnes*. It is a book intended for real children (now rare). The illustrations are numerous and the book interesting.

WE have recently received three excellent series of copy-books, including *Spencer's New Copy-Books*, Nos. 1-10 (Ivison, Blake-man & Co., New York), a revised edition of *McLaurin's Copy-Books* (Knigh, Ioomis & Co., New York), and *Pen-written Copies Reproduced* (Williams & Rogers, Rochester). The last named consists of two hundred and fifty-five copies beautifully printed on slips of heavy paper.

A WORTHY book is that of Professor Cook of Yale on *The Bible and English Prose Style*. (D. C. Heath & Co.) 55c. First is the introduction, giving some account of the inestimable influence of the Bible on the English language and literature. Then follow illustrative comments from the authorities, Addison, Ruskin, Newman and others, and then selections from Scripture. We welcome this book, such a one as we have often wanted.

Selections from Wordsworth. (Gage & Co.) Another Canadian book bears on its title page the names of Prof. Clark of Trinity, Principal Grant of Queen's, Wm. Houston, M.A., and Prof. Chas. G. D. Roberts, who contribute respectively a memoir of Wordsworth, an essay on his mission, a monograph on the æsthetic use of his poetry, and a critical estimate of Wordsworth. The editor is Mr. J. E. Wetherell, B.A., and we are sure such names as these are sufficient guarantee of the high character of the work.

MESSRS. COPP, CLARK AND CO. have just published the *Public School History of England and Canada*, by Mr. W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B. This elementary history is intended to lead up to the High School history, and is well adapted for use in Canadian Schools. The second part is almost the same as the history of Canada given in the High School history. Mr. Robertson's style is good, and the narrative clear and interesting. The book has received authorization from the Department of Education.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN & Co. have also issued Part Third of the *Dictionary of Political Economy*, Parts X. and XI. of the Illustrated Edition of *Green's Short History of the English People*, and two new numbers of *The Elementary Classics Series*, containing "Livy," Book V., with notes and vocabulary, edited by M. Alford, and selections from Books V., VI., with introduction, notes, appendix and vocabulary, edited by W. C. Laming, M.A. 1s. 6d. each. We observe in the latter concise and very useful notes on the subjunctive mood.

AN ever-increasing number of Canadian books come to us from Messrs. Copp, Clark & Co., William Briggs, Gage & Co., and other Canadian houses. Three from the first-named house are before us :

The Sketch Book, by Washington Irving. Edited, with introduction and notes, by Fred H. Sykes, M.A.

Studies in Poetry. Selections from Wordsworth. Edited, with notes, by M. F. Libby, B.A.

Les Frères Colombe and La Fee. Edited, with notes and vocabulary, by Fred. H. Sykes, M.A., and E. J. McIntyre, B.A. It is a pleasant task to chronicle the appearance of these books and offer our congratulations, not only to the authors and publishers, but also to the teachers and pupils for whom they were written. We notice in the "Sketch-Book" an appendix on essay writing which will be found useful, and the notes are also good. Mr. Libby's notes and questions, and especially his remarks on the "Study of a Poem, Definition of Poetry,"

etc., are of permanent value, and we know they will be appreciated by his fellow-teachers. The editor's part is well done.

A REALLY thorough practical work on *Book-keeping*, from the press of Silver, Burdett & Co. (Boston and New York), \$2.00, has recently appeared. It contains all that is essential, and will be found valuable as a book of reference by accountants and business men, as well as a satisfactory and well-arranged text-book. Single and double entry forms are both given, and the manner of changing from one to another carefully shown. There is a key published for the use of teachers in which all the sets given are fully worked out.

WE have received three excellent books from the American Book Co. *Apgar's Trees of the Northern United States*. *Virgil's Æneid*—Six Books. \$1.00. President Harper and Prof. Miller of the University of Chicago. \$1.25. *Milne's High School Algebra*. \$1.00. This edition of the *Æneid* leaves little to be desired. Text, notes, appendices, indices, illustrations, in fact everything that a student or teacher needs from a book is here given. Prof. Milne's work on Algebra is a good text-book on the inductive plan, with numerous examples.

Macmillan's Geographical Series: Geography of the British Colonies. George M. Dawson and Alexander Sutherland. (Macmillan's.) 3s. Melbourne and Montreal have given us a good geography, a simple, unpretentious, useful book, which is a model of judicious selection and arrangement. The statistics are recent, the facts not too numerous and the descriptions short and much to the point. Remarks on Products, Industries,

Commerce, etc., are excellent. We observe little or nothing about education and social condition, but we know no better book of its kind.

English Men of Letters: Carlyle. By Prof. Nichol of the University of Glasgow. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.) 2s. 6d. To write a Life of Carlyle is no easy task. No man could do it without displeasing many inhabitants of the world of books, and Prof. Nichol's work, which is well worthy of its place in this excellent series, while it has been well received on the whole, has not escaped adverse criticism. Still, we think he is not far from the *via media*, though, possibly, he is not entirely sympathetic. The chapters on Carlyle's literary position and work are perhaps the best. But the work is good throughout.

On Service at Home and Abroad. By Major J Percy Groves. (London, Paris and New York: Raphael Tuck & Sons.) This is a handsome book. It contains brief narratives of the Peninsular War, Crimean War and Indian Mutiny, also chapters on the Royal Marines, Royal Engineers, the 5th Dragoon Guards, the 17th, the 26th (Cameronians), and other famous regiments, enlivened by numerous anecdotes. But the pictures equal or surpass the narratives in interest. They are by Messrs. Harry and Arthur Payne, and are simply magnificent. Here we find representations of scenes now famous in history, pictures of very many crack corps, and illustrations of the incidents of a soldier's life. The coloured plates are numerous. The book is dedicated to the Duke of Cambridge, and is in every way a work of art.