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THE CANADA
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MAY, 1890.

A WORD ABOUT RUSKIN.

BY A. H. MORRISON, BRANTFORD COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

THE name of John Ruskin should be penned with feelings of admiration and reverence by all who love truth, admire originality, appreciate beauty, and foster high intellectual and spiritual aims. There is a vast difference between the Slade Professor of Fine Arts at Oxford and the ordinary paragraphist, who lives upon sensations and feeds his constituents with the mumbled scraps. There are many grades of individual between the extremes; hence, in the frequent discussions that eddy round the great name which heads this paper, have we been treated to many phases of Ruskinism or anti-Ruskinism, no two, like the portraits of Bret Harte, being exactly alike. We have the climax of adulation from the Æsthete, and the bathos of disingenuous and disparaging sophism from the Philistine with all intermediate shades. The truth is of course at neither extreme; but, it must be confessed, lies nearer the adulatory pole than opponents either determine or desire.

Ruskin was not perfect, yet it is safe to say that few men have ever lived with loftier aims, few men

have ever, in a certain line, done more good in and for their generation. Now that the noble artist-writer and art critic sits helpless amid the ruins of his former intellectual greatness, unheeding the plaudit of friend or the censure of foe, and certainly incapable of reply to either plaudit or reproach, it may not perhaps be out of season to speak a word of warning to those who have not been close students of Ruskin, or who may not have interested themselves in his life and work. Not to be misled and consequently prejudiced should be the aim of every earnest, conscientious, and original student and thinker. The unthinking and the young are particularly prone to be led astray by the misrepresentations of partisans or opponents. Whoever can talk the longest and loudest wins the day. Fashion is a monster whose enormities and vagaries, hideous as they are, prove insufficient to restrain certain votaries if influenced by example from prostrating themselves before her Juggernaut wheels, at whatever risk—physical or mental; discomfort or positive

sacrifice of intellectual or corporeal liberty and life.

The faults of John Ruskin as a mere intellect are the faults of the enthusiast and idealist, with his faults as a man we have nothing to do. Well would it be for his generation if in the aggregate it were spotless as he. "Ruskin's lavish benevolence," writes Mr. Kennedy, "is a legitimate corollary of his creed. It is the Sermon on the Mount put into practice." To judge an enthusiast with fairness needs something of the enthusiast. An iceberg would be a bad appraiser of tropical sunshine. If the salt have lost his savor cast it out, it will never serve for the effigy of Lot's wife. The thought of a Professor of Logic formulating rules for the poet makes one smile, and forcibly reminds one of the multiplication table's assuming unto itself the fans of a butterfly, wherewith to flutter into the realms of Orpheus and Eros. The ordinary stock-jobber, penny-a-liner, or creature of prosaic prose can never understand John Ruskin, but then he is in good company. His august majesty, George I., could see no beauty in "bainting and boetry." That was his misfortune not his fault. He could not help being a Philistine any more than some cheeses can help being round and very obtuse, especially as regards the rind. No thick-skinned mortal should ever presume to sit in judgment upon the idealist. The result is about as absurd as a rhinoceros' endeavouring to account for the eccentric gyrations and iridescent flights of a dragon-fly. Only the poet could write:

The burnished dragon-fly is thine attendant,
And tilts against the field,
And down the listed sunbeam rides resplendent
With steel-blue mail and shield.

To estimate fairly the genius of a man like Ruskin is indeed a very difficult task, unless one can disasso-

ciate one's self from the stock exchange of life, and look down upon its glittering, shallow, and unstable throng from a supream and serener height. To the common-place plodder and speculator Ruskin is a riddle or a crank (a pestilence take the word). His best friends must admit he is an enthusiast, and a master of original paradox, sometimes a little captious and dictatorial—as he has a right to be. So are we all; all dictatorial men. But the unpardonable sin of the arch-critic with the disaffected seems to be his fearless, original, speculative modes of thought, and his fearless and unique expositions of what he thought the truth. Of course his methods lead him into difficulties with the Pharisees of fashion and fossilized dogma, as the fearless exposition of what another once taught as truth culminated in that last tragic scene on Calvary. Truly history repeats itself, and if we do not to-day crucify men's convicted bodies, we are not averse to gibbeting metaphorically their condemned reputations, more especially if the owner of the condemned reputation be helpless and unable to reply. A live dog is better than a dead lion. But the dead lion may have friends not in the same pitiful position, able and willing to stave off the yelp and snarl of puppydom, and at least defend the fair fame of the King of Nature from desecration.

There is a sound moral conveyed in Ruskin's own remarks upon the attacks of certain detractors. Grub Street had been bleating, as is its wont, over his sentimentality. Here is the chastisement awarded: "Because I have passed my life in alms-giving, not in fortune-hunting; because I have laboured always for the honour of others, not my own; and have chosen rather to make men look to Turner and Luini, than to form or exhibit the skill of my own

hand; because I have lowered my rents and assured the comfortable lives of my poor tenants, instead of taking from them all I could force for the roofs they needed; because I love a wood-walk better than a London street, and would rather watch a sea-gull fly than shoot it, and rather hear a thrush sing than eat it; finally, because I never disobeyed my mother, and because I have honoured all women with solemn worship, and have been kind to the unthankful and the evil; therefore the hacks of English art and literature wag their heads at me, and the poor wretch who pawns the dirty linen of his soul daily for a bottle of sour wine and a cigar talks of the effeminate sentimentality of Ruskin."

It is a treat to turn from the empty verbiage of literary Whitechapel to words like those of R. H. Stoddard: "What this charm is will be better understood by the intelligent admirers of what is best in the writings of this singular man of genius than by the most skilful and most acute of critics. It defies criticism, and it defies analysis, partly, no doubt, because it is of a chameleon-like character, but more, we suspect, because it is of a new and unknown kind. How so apparently a careless writer has contrived to master the resources of his mother-tongue is a mystery which no amount of reading bestowed upon his books is able to solve. He is the greatest living writer of English prose."

A weakness, but, after all, an excusable one, of Ruskin's is, or was, his inability to appreciate the true worth of modern science. This fact alone brought him censors. "The first business," he says, "of scientific men is to tell you things that happen, as, that if you warm water it will boil. The second, and far more important business, is to tell you what you had best do under the circumstances—put the kettle on in time for tea.

But if beyond this safe and beneficial business they ever try and explain anything to you, you may be confident of one of two things—either that they know nothing (to speak of) about it, or that they have only seen one side of it, and not only have not seen, but usually have no mind to see the other. . . . Take the very top and centre of scientific interpretation by the greatest of its masters. Newton explained to you—or at least was supposed to have explained—why an apple fell (*sic*), but he never thought of explaining the exact correlative but infinitely more difficult question how the apple got up there." One can readily see, however, why Ruskin is not in accord with modern scientific thought. He is conservative by instinct. Science is an iconoclast, shivering remorselessly our dearest fetishes. He is a lover of the beautiful. Science is wholly utilitarian. It cares nothing for Alpine heights or lichen-bordered snows, further than as a site for a possible tunnel, or the prospective food for a species of fauna. He is religious, and of necessity spiritual. Science is materialistic, an agnostic, to its finger-tips, caring for nothing it cannot prove, or weigh, or resolve into elements. The idealistic seer revels in heaven. The scientific enquirer delves beneath the coal beds. The religious enthusiast plays on golden harps. The sceptical paleontologist burrows for old bones. The artist and art critic takes the cloud and the dawn light and the bloom on the butterfly's wing for what they appear to be, and for what they were probably intended, until the Paul Pry's of humanity, tired of inactivity, begin to investigate the truth of the sentiment, "things are not what they seem," then they discover that cloud is nothing but hot water, the dawn-rose vibrating motion of ether particles—what they are the Lord only

knows—and the bloom on the fan of the painted insect, simply feathers, plumage in short, hence there is no difference, from one aspect, between a red-admiral or a privet hawk moth and a goose. This is all bad enough, but when not content with destroying the theory of the resurrection, they proceed to inform an already staggered and gasping generation, that what to-day is the imposing front of the philosopher may, to-morrow, be wagging at the taffrail end of Pluto, the retriever, the artistic and æsthetic sense rebels at the self-satisfied dictum of the scientific brotherhood, and cries incontinently, "Hold, enough! Give us proof positive of what you say. We are nauseated with 'perhaps' and 'possibly' and 'may be,' we too are agnostic only in another way." This is exactly Ruskin's position with regard to modern science. One may not be altogether in accord with him, yet one cannot restrain one's sympathy nor withhold admiration for the solitary enthusiast who is fighting so valiantly and ungrudgingly his losing fight.

But regarded in a certain view, Ruskin was in the right. He was advocating the cause of faith and hope. And a man without faith and hope, however ill-developed or repressed the faculty may be, is an anomaly which even Nature abhors. So utterly does she abhor such a monstrosity that she never produces one, the few that glory in the distinction are self-elected. Down in the heart of the most inveterate free-thinker and soul-leveller cowers the ghost of the inevitable. Sphinx-like it sits and propounds its ceaseless riddle: "Can anything come out of nothing?" Who proffers the answer in the affirmative and guarantees his faith? Where after all is the man who will pluck the Creator from the created, the Maker from the thing made, the First Cause from the uni-

verse, and, staring in blank admiration at the *hole* that is the result of his ratiocination exclaim, *Eureka!* How wonderful a thing it is that the cosmos of created beauty and intelligence has issued from that *hole!*

What is Ruskin's attitude to the new school of evolutionary thought? Simply this: "It is every man's duty to know what he *is*, and not to think of the embryo he was, nor the skeleton he shall be." Again: "I take the chance you give me of adding this further word to what I before said of Darwin's theory. It is mischievous, not only in looking to the past germ instead of the present creature—but looking also in the creature itself—to the Growth of the Flesh instead of the Breath of the Spirit. The loss of mere happiness, in such modes of thought, is incalculable. When I see a girl dance, I thank Heaven that made her cheerful as well as graceful; and envy neither the science nor sentiment of my Darwinian friend, who sees in her only a cross between a Dodo and a Daddy-long-legs."

Of course this outspoken levity set the quills up on the backs of certain porcupine-like members of the fraternity. But the quills did not long remain there. They were transferred to the digitals, and then followed the horrors of war. Among others, Burroughs, who ought to have known better, wrote: "Probably the reading public has long ceased to expect anything but fresh outbursts of whim and caprice from Ruskin. . . . He has degenerated into a common scold. The public laughs at him, and when the public laughs at a man's rage, his day is about over. . . . From Ruskin's abhorrence of the scientific method and spirit—an abhorrence that amounts to a kind of childish petulance and contrariness (*sic*) one would not expect him to look with any degree of patience;

upon much of the details of Darwin's work," etc., etc., etc. Well, "look here upon this picture, and on this." Burroughs is great! But behold a greater than Burroughs is here. Says Anne Thackeray Ritchie, writing in *Harper's* of March: "I once heard a well-known man of science speaking of Ruskin; some one had asked him whether Ruskin or Goëthe had done most for science. Sir John Lubbock replied that Ruskin undoubtedly had done very much more valuable work than Goëthe; and that without any pretensions to profound scientific knowledge, he had an extraordinary natural gift for observation, and seemed to know by instinct *what* to observe, what was important amidst so much that was fanciful and poetical." After all what does it matter whether the public laugh or weep? Poor souls, they would do either for sixpence. Ruskin is not the first great man that fools have derided, and probably will not be the last. But how stands the account between science and Ruskin? If Burroughs be right follow him; but if Lubbock, follow him. *Crede Lubbock!* Burroughs may pass.

Having been forced to run amuck with the scientific, semi-scientific, and pseudo-scientific folk, and having escaped with his life, Ruskin was, as in duty bound, challenged by certain sectarians with long faces but short souls. Ruskin had been himself converted from a narrow and dry-as-dust Evangelicalism to unsectarian Christianity by the following incident: While in Turin, studying the masterpieces of Veronese, he strayed into a church, where "a little squeaking idiot was preaching to an audience of seventeen old women and three louts, that they were the only children of God in Turin, and that all the people in Turin outside the chapel, and all the people in the world outside of

Monte Viso would be damned." Needless to say Ruskin came out of that chapel a converted man. Renouncing dogma and rigmarole, he formulated a new doctrine and preached and consistently practised it. "We have no business with the ends of things, but with their beings." "I always use the word religion impartially of all the forms of submission to the Supreme Being adopted by man." "Human probity and virtue are entirely independent of any hope in futurity." "Obedience to moral law is the basis of religion."

One of Ruskin's horrors was debt, especially debt contracted under the cloak of religion. And of all religious frauds that most stupendous and impudent imposture, a church debt, he held in holy detestation. No wonder he fell foul of the Sectarians or they of him. He was too outspoken and sterling a Christian to endure pretence, as the following letter will witness. A circular asking for a subscription towards paying off a church debt, or chapel debt, in some London locality had been received. Here is the answer:

"SIR,—I am scornfully amused at your appeal to me, of all people in the world the precisely least likely to give you a farthing! My first word to all men and boys who care to hear me is, 'Don't get into debt; starve and go to heaven—but don't borrow. Try first begging—I don't mind if it's really needful—stealing! But don't buy things you can't pay for!!' And of all manner of debtors pious people building churches they can't pay for are the most detestable nonsense to me. Can't you preach and pray behind the hedges, or in a sandpit, or a coal-hole, first? And of all manner of churches thus idiotically built, iron churches are the damnablest to me. And of all the sects of believers in any ruling spirit—Hin-

doos, Turks, Feather Idolaters, and Mumbo Jumbo, Log and Fire Worshipers—who want churches, your modern English Evangelical sect is the most absurd, and entirely objectionable and unendurable to me! All which they might very easily have found out from my books—any other sort of sect would—before bothering me to write it to them. Ever, nevertheless, and in all this saying, your faithful servant, JOHN RUSKIN.”

This characteristic reply conveys its own moral. “The foxes have holes and the birds of the air have nests, but the Son of man hath not where to lay his head.” Was Ruskin right? To some who are yet clothed and in their right mind, a church in debt is one of the most unsightly excrescences on the fair face of Nature—a sore which but one plaster can cover. Need it be named? It is an everlasting memorial to the parsimony of man. It is a cenotaph on which is inscribed the ironical legend of its alien souls—too mean to pay their expenses to heaven. But after the letter it is little wonder that the modern Evangelical sect had small faith in Ruskin. Yet this man had in fifty-seven years *given away* \$550,000!

Yet another sin of Ruskin’s with another class of self-elected pundits—his style in writing is too ornate and discursive, or it is effeminately sentimental, he lacks chasteness:

Be thou as chaste as ice, as pure as snow,
thou shalt not escape calumny.

Well, the chaste style is an admirable one—for certain themes. It is suited to its subject, as is apple sauce to roast goose, as is a certain cackling and hissing to the goose that is not roast. We have admirable examples of the chaste in literature, living and dead, at least one in this broad Dominion, unique in his way, but Goldwin Smith brought his style with him

from the fair banks of Iris, as did Ruskin take his, only from another fount to set it whirling and eddying on its wonderful way by another channel.

But, after all, is chasteness in style everything? One can imagine a chaste style as assumed by some when describing a snow-man or an idiot boy,

That like his bard confounded night with day,

or the tossing of a pancake on Shrove Tuesday; but what about an Italian sunset, an Alpine thunderstorm, a tropic landscape? There is a sort of chasteness known to the initiated as prudery. There is a style in literature called chaste, which might be dubbed, with far greater truth, prudish. It is the style affected by the man of poor vocabulary. It is self-contained like an oyster between its bivalvular walls; denseness and prejudice. It is restrictive. It permits itself no flights to Elysium. The inky Styx is ever before it, and between its fingers. It is cold, cowering in the bowels of the commonplace rather than soaring to the regions of the Iris. It is dull and utterly prosaic, like salt cod fish on Good Friday. It is chaste because it has to make a virtue of necessity. Never having known passion it lacks the faculty of desire, and is therefore impotent as regards virility of expression. But it assumes airs and from the icy pinnacle of its continency prates to the sunbeam, renounce thy light, thy splendour is offensive, it savours of incontinency, become as one of us. Truly a fitting epilogue to the fable of the fox without a tail!

This stickler for the chaste and the common-place can see no beauty in a figure, can permit no scope to his ideality. He takes everything *straight*, like his “sour wine” aforementioned. “Fact, fact, Sirs, fact!”

is his countersign. The scarlet woman in Revelation is a red flannel female, an Apocalyptic Mrs. Gamp, and no more. The four beasts full of eyes are very abnormal creatures, like the Irishman's elephant. They should not be loose in the Better Land, their proper place is behind the wires of Barnum's menagerie. Being blind, individuals of this stamp naturally lead the blind, and, as a united happy family of bipedal moles, they clap one another on the back and exclaim, as they tumble pell-mell into the ditch of their own obfuscation, What a glorious thing is darkness, brother Ophthalmia! How miserable must be the light! Let us eschew it. Let us denounce Ruskin. Let us rather endure Bunkum and the Jesuit. And, above all, let us be chaste; because, you know, we cannot be anything else. And because we cannot sing like an angel, let us not attempt to sing at all, we will sit still, and — croak, not unhappily like Poe's Raven, "Nevermore" but evermore!

It is all very funny, this rhodomontade of men, who tell you they believe in progress and found their hopes on heaven; who prate of art, that never drew a line or coloured a canvas; who cannot tell a good picture from a bad one; who could not, perhaps, strike a perpendicular to save their lives, or insert a middle distance that would not appear beyond the horizon, or a foreground that would not be beyond the middle distance; men, who never with loving touch drew the mist-veil across the mountain-brow, or sent the light-shaft from the cloud rift; who never suggested the shadow of the impending height, or mirrored a sail in the responsive mere; who never even attempted to imitate the artist in their diction. These tell you with grave faces of Ruskin's defects, of his super-enthusiasm, of his conceits and self-contradictions. Well would it be for

this age of iconoclasts and bankrupt Jacks of all trades, Nihilists, Socialists, and platform mountebanks were there more Ruskins to hold up the ideal to men's faces, to show them the mockery of the image and the beauty of the reality, to preach God to them, first hand, through God's own best works, and not through the gesticulating and self-interested Punchinellos of a grotesque, prejudiced and abortive fashion.

"Better to err with Pope than shine with Pye," sang Byron, and well may the lover of true art to-day re-echo the sentiment, substituting Ruskin for Pope, and any one of the hooting and blinking souls of Mammondom for Pye!

There remains the crowning sins of this illustrious sinner! Ruskin was pre-Raphaelite in his leanings, that is to say, he took Nature for his copy, and represented things as they are, not as men would have them to be. He preferred the sunshine of Italian plains to the lime light and stale sandwiches of a Ritualistic social gathering in an impossible Agape-mone. The gloom of Alpine precipices under the twilight was dearer to him than Tartarian shades, even when these latter were supplemented by blue-fire and Apollyon horns, hoofs, forked tail, trident, and top-boots thrown in. There have always been men that prefer chronic spine curvature to the line of natural and healthy female beauty, that endure acute elephantiasis rather than feminine grace and slenderness of limb, that like their beauties as they do their porter, treble X. Peace be unto such, well may the refined of Artdom say, We love them not. But on the other hand there have always been, and always will be, men that see more beauty in the tint of a petal, or the seven-fold splendour of a dew-drop, than in a pagan procession of dumpy and fat-legged cherubim, with no clothing to speak

of, and a soup plate round their heads; that prefer to paint gondolas to goblins, and affect the society of the daughters of earth rather than the devils of Dante, even when these last are emphasized by the Satanic genius of Doré. Criticism may rest assured that pre-Raphaelism is *not* dead, much as it may wish it. Nature will stand long after a meretricious art has perished, and Truth—even a true and rational ideality—will remain with us though the opponents of the pre-Raphaelite school threaten her dissolution.

Not so very many years ago, the halls of the South Kensington Art Museum echoed with wondrous ejaculations of astonishment, and doleful predictions of the decline of painting, at the sight of certain canvasses whereon were depicted, among other things, phantom-like vessels circumvented by ghostly mists through which peered watery suns, afloat upon vapoury and uncertain tides. Much the writer of these lines, then very young and untried, puzzled over these mists, feeling, at times, inclined to cry out with the crowd, "All is vanity and vexation of spirit." But, "Art is long and time is fleeting," and the mists of Turner have long been glorified and exalted by another light than his own watery suns, the insight which comes with patient thought and loving research, and close companionship with Nature, and to-day he knows that the crowd was wrong, and Turner right, and Ruskin right, and his own instinctive leanings right which prompted deeper thought and closer examination, and permitted him not to sit down in utter stagnation of mental aptitude to make another of the smirking, gibbering, self-satisfied crowd that smiled at Turner's vagaries, and went into ecstasies of well-assumed admiration at some Madonna or infant cherub of fashion whose only claim to beauty, like a

Scotch terrier's, was its ugliness. "With what do you mix your paints?" enquired a curious bystander of the colourist whose glowing tints had attracted his eye. "Brains, Sir!" was the laconic growl in response. It is the only ingredient that many do *not* use in their portraiture of life and its tremendous applications, realities and possibilities!

And now that the grand old lion is in the toils, the old battles will presumably have to be fought over again. Already we hear their menacing grumblings and mutterings, and pens are being sharpened for the conflict. Would that some sympathetic mouse could free the aged captive from the "durance vile" in which he is mentally held. Unfortunately, some of the mice will be only too busy in the other direction, blind mice, whose courage is their victim's helplessness, and whose curtailment must therefore be the office of an alien carving knife. May the blow be sure, and the edge keen. If ears and nose, proverbially long in the mouse tribe, go with the other extremity, it will not matter. One may miss a Ruskin—such men come singly—but the mouse is a prolific animal, it is not easily extirpated.

There is criticism and criticism. There is fair outspoken approval or disapproval, offering a chance for reply; and there is the straining-at-a-gnat and swallowing-a-camel method of attack, which, passing by, wittingly or unwittingly, real defects, fastens itself like the ordinary policeman always upon the wrong party. It is not a desire to be just, but a wish to degrade that animates all such criticism. Old *habitus* of Vanity Fair, who have outworn their passions, stand at the street corners and, pointing the finger of derision, cry "Behold! fit retribution for the man who outlived his use, who should have descended from God's pulpit while yet his fame was green, who was so

unselfish as to renounce self for humanity, who allowed his intellect to wither beneath the hot sun of labour. Out upon him! He should have retired to his selfish den to spend his declining years in licking his palsied paws, and mumbling with toothless gums any remnants of consolation the jackals chose to leave!"

Ruskin's greatest glory is his Divine fire; his greatest virtue, fearless exposition of what he thought the truth. Many a one has he led to the light in art and literature. Not that he was faultless, but that his very faults in some men would have been virtues, and his aim was as high as a man's aim can be. Many a striving spirit has he led to literature, as a lover to his dearest mistress, unveiling all its hidden beauties, laying bare the souls of words, painting with inimitable felicity deathless pictures of power and peace and pathos and all perfections, and making his disciples purer, humbler, better men and women. Without preaching prudery he taught chastity, taught it as the cunning hand insinuates the light by deepening the shadow, suggests the shadow by strengthening the light; taught it sometimes emblematically, sometimes paradoxically, sometimes mysteriously, but even in his mystery was strength, and light and beauty.

To quote his own powerful words: "All noble language-mystery is reached only by intense labour. Striving to speak with uttermost truth of expression, weighing word against word, and wasting none, the great speaker, or writer, toils first into perfect intelligibility, then, as he reaches to higher subjects, and still more concentrated and wonderful utterance, he becomes ambiguous—as Dante is ambiguous—half a dozen different meanings lightning out in separate rays from every word, and here and there giving rise to much contention of critics as to what the intended meaning actually was. But it is no drunkard's babble for all that, and the men who think it so at the third hour of the day do not highly honour *themselves* in the thought."

Pure, enthusiastic, unselfish, a friend to man and the confidant of women, Ruskin stands to-day the greatest master of English prose, as he is the greatest exponent of original thought and fearless truth in his special field of labour, and, please God, in spite of detractors and sticklers, for the chaste, to the last gasp will he stand, until word painting shall become an obsolete art, truth a parody, and culture and virtue barren dissyllables, mere jargons of meaningless and incoherent articulations.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.*

PROF. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

MR. MATTHEW ARNOLD has reminded us that the secondary school is the most ancient of existing educational institutions. It antedates the university by several centuries, and by its side the primary or elementary school, springing as it does from

* A Paper read before the New York Schoolmasters' Association, March 8, 1890.

needs and ideas that are comparatively modern, seems but a creature of yesterday. Moreover, the history of the secondary school is unbroken and easily traceable. The Monastery Schools and the famous establishments at St. Gall, Reichenau and Fulda are the direct ancestors of our Etons and Rugbys, of our contempor-

ary Lycées, Gymnasia and Academies.

In this country the educational organization is so indefinite and unformed, and the educational terminology in common use so unsystematic, that certain explanations are necessary before any discussion of the province and scope of the secondary school may be proceeded with. The threefold division of instruction into primary or elementary, secondary and superior, has been accepted by our National Bureau of Education, and is in accord with the practice on the Continent of Europe. By superior instruction is meant that given in institutions empowered by law to confer degrees. This may be either general or special, and includes in this country the colleges and universities as well as the professional schools of law, medicine, theology, pedagogy, agriculture, pharmacy, engineering and the like. The implication is, but unfortunately not always the fact, that these institutions for superior instruction have required of applicants for admission the possession of an approved secondary education. By primary or elementary instruction is meant such as the State is justified in requiring of all children for its own safety and perpetuity. In the present state of educational science this may safely be held to include a knowledge of reading and writing, of elementary arithmetic, geography, history, natural science and manual training. This elementary education should begin not later than the sixth year of life, and with the average child seven years may be devoted to it, although specially intelligent or studious children should be permitted, as in France, to complete the prescribed curriculum in less time.

It would seem natural then that the field of secondary instruction should be that which lies between the primary and the superior schools.

But this is not quite true. The aim of secondary education and the character of the subjects comprised in it are such that while it is legitimately bounded by superior instruction on the one hand, it cannot be entirely contained within the limits fixed by the ending of primary education on the other. Elementary instruction is organized as a thing by itself, and it is well understood that it is specially intended for children whose systematic education will, in all probability, end when the primary course is completed. The secondary school on the other hand, while in a certain sense complete in itself, looks forward to having its pupils pass on to some form of superior instruction and expressly prepares them to do so. It would be difficult to name a single instance of a secondary school conducted under private auspices that does not aim chiefly, if not entirely, at preparing boys for college. In order, therefore, that secondary education may be complete and harmonious, it must begin not later than the tenth year of the pupil's life. This is actually the case with the French Lycée and the Prussian Gymnasium. In the discussion that follows it will be understood that only such secondary schools are referred to as stand in direct relation to the colleges and other institutions for superior instruction. This limitation excludes those public high schools which, although nominally secondary schools, have an end peculiarly their own and do not specifically prepare their pupils for anything higher.

The American college is, in the phrase of Tacitus, *tantum sui similis*. It has no counterpart in Europe. Measured by foreign standards it is something more than a secondary school and considerably less than a university. In its early history the American college was, in the scope and character of its curriculum, essen-

tially a secondary classical schools. Boys entered its freshman class at thirteen years of age or even younger, and were Bachelors of Arts in four years. As new demands were made upon this college and as its curriculum was augmented and enriched, entrance became more difficult and was postponed until a later period. This process has gone on until now the average age of the members of the freshman class at Columbia is about seventeen and one-half years. At Harvard it has reached the extravagant age of nineteen years. The effect of this development in postponing beyond all reasonable limits the entrance of the professionally educated man upon the work of life has been to call attention in a most emphatic way to the necessity of revising our whole scheme of secondary and superior education. This revision is now going on, and it is bringing to light the composite character of the average American college. It is coming to be seen that the senior year of the college course, and not infrequently the junior year as well, is in reality a period of university and not collegiate instruction. The operation of the elective system and the introduction of original research and comparative methods of study, have transformed the latter half of the course in all of our larger colleges. But the work of the freshman and sophomore years is as a rule (qualifying phrases are necessary to all statements regarding our colleges, so diverse and even contradictory are their practices) the same as it has always been. Not only the old studies but the old disciplinary methods of teaching remain in these lower years. And, it is to be noted, these studies and these methods of teaching are substantially the same as those of the secondary school. It is here that the college not only gives evidence of its origin, but furnishes a hint as to what direction its future

development is to take. Somewhere and somehow the four years' course of study in the larger colleges is to be cut in two; the division may be made at the close of the junior or perhaps even at the close of the sophomore year. The upper portion of the course which remains will be recognized as belonging to the university and by uniting with the studies which the Germans group together in their philosophical faculty, university instruction in law, medicine, and, in some cases, theology, the real American university will arrive and the problem of an earlier entrance upon professional life adequately prepared, will be solved. In illustration of this process of differentiation there might be cited in detail certain steps which have been taken within a few years at Harvard, at Princeton, at Columbia and Cornell. When this division is made the present freshman and sophomore years will be frankly recognized as belonging to the period of secondary instruction. Some universities may prefer to do away with them entirely. Doubtless the majority will retain them as a sort of preparatory course, not indeed without its value, for the peculiar work of the university itself. In the smaller and less centrally situated colleges the present organization will probably remain substantially as it is and afford an excellent conclusion to the secondary education of those who do not look forward to university or professional studies. The baccalaureate degree, really and historically a university privilege, can probably never be reclaimed by its original proprietor. In that case some new basis on which to grant it must be arrived at, in order to sustain the reputation of this degree and put an end to the anomalous condition in which it now finds itself. It will readily be seen that it is the writer's belief that we shall approximate in this country, between our secondary

schools and colleges and our universities, a relation very similar to that which exists between the Gymnasias and the Universities in Germany, or between the Lycées and the University faculties in France. The whole trend of educational development in this country and the wisdom and statesmanship with which the relations in question have been established on the continent of Europe, are sufficient reasons for this belief. So much that is apparently beside the mark in a paper on the subject of secondary schools is necessary, because it is my wish to discuss that educational institution with reference to those conditions which, it seems to me, are rapidly approaching rather than solely from the standpoint of those which are just as surely passing away.

In the past the secondary school in this country has been dwarfed in importance and deprived of its proper spontaneity and individuality because it has permitted itself to settle down to the routine task of preparing pupils for the entrance examination to college, fixed and conducted by the college authorities. Whatever that entrance examination demanded and in some cases just a trifle more, has been taught; whatever such examination did not call for, no matter how important or valuable it might be for a boy's education, has not been taught. The secondary school, then, has been too largely dominated by the college and in few cases has that domination been other than unfortunate. As notable instances where the contrary is true may be mentioned the stimulating influence of the more recent regulations regarding entrance examinations adopted by Harvard College and the novel unity and thoroughness imparted to the instruction in English in the secondary schools by the action of the New England colleges in uniting upon a scheme of conditions for entrance

in that subject. It is neither proper nor dignified for the secondary schools to continue in this condition of dependence. They should be as independent and as self-centred as the Gymnasium and the Lycée, and by a careful study of the history and science of education coupled with the teachings of their own large experience, they should seek to devise that curriculum and those methods of instruction that are best suited to the mental, moral and physical development and culture of the boys committed to their care. Nor need it be feared that in so doing they will interfere in any way with the preparation of their pupils for college examinations. For an education it is profoundly true that that which is intrinsically the best in any particular stage of development, is also the best preparation for that which comes after.

If the American boy is to obtain his baccalaureate at the age of twenty or twenty-one (which is considerably more than a year later than the French boys leave the Lycée and the Prussian boys the Gymnasium), he must be ready to leave the secondary school not later than seventeen; and this can be arranged while actually providing a more comprehensive curriculum than at present obtains. Before discussing in detail the composition of such a curriculum, one or two preliminary considerations must be mentioned. They may, however, be dismissed very briefly since they have so recently been treated with the highest authority by Mr. Eliot.* The first of these has to do with the length of the school day and that of the vacations. The former should never be less than five full hours of study and school discipline and the tendency to shorten it any further is irrational

*Can School Programmes be Shortened and Enriched? *Atlantic Monthly*, August, 1888 pp. 250-258.

and should be checked. A program arranged on sound pedagogic principles can occupy five hours a day easily enough without in any way impairing the pupil's health or lessening his interest, unless the teacher is peculiarly lacking in mental equipment and professional qualifications. The vacations are now unduly long, and seem to be yielding to a certain strong social pressure to make them even longer. The old-fashioned summer vacation of four or six weeks has long since become one of ten or twelve and in our city schools a summer vacation of fifteen or even sixteen weeks is by no means a curiosity. It is the teacher who needs this vacation more than the pupil. But even from his standpoint the present practice has gone beyond reasonable bounds. The German method of giving three weeks at Easter, one at Pfingster, six in mid-summer, one at Michaelmas, and two at Christmas, seems wiser than ours, for it makes a more frequent alternation between work and play. Perhaps sixteen weeks—including the recesses at Christmas and Easter and a long summer vacation, as better suited to our climate and habits of life than the German plan—might be agreed upon as the average period per year in which school duties may wisely be suspended. But in addition to the school year of thirty-six weeks and twenty-five hours in each week, our secondary schools are sadly in need of better teachers. It is remarkable how entirely the teachers in these schools have remained uninfluenced by the great interest in the science and art of teaching which has of late years manifested itself both in this country and in Europe. Secure in their possession of a considerable amount of knowledge and more or less culture, the secondary school teachers have not seemed to understand the significance or the value of a profes-

sional preparation. As a result their work has been done in a routine, imitative way and their pupils have suffered. Most of the criticisms that may now be legitimately made upon the work of the secondary schools would be disarmed if the teachers in these schools were abreast of the present development of their art. One important reason why the secondary schools have not felt this full measure of progress in methods of teaching that is so marked in the elementary schools is that secondary teachers are usually college graduates and the colleges have done little or nothing to show that they are aware of what is being accomplished in the science of education. Consequently they have failed to contribute their proper proportion of duly qualified teachers. Until the colleges assume their responsibility in this matter and endeavor to discharge it, the work of the secondary school, speaking broadly, will not be as well done as it might be.

Assuming that more competent teachers are at hand and that a school year of thirty-six weeks, twenty-five hours each, is agreed upon, what should be the aim of the instruction in the secondary school and with what curriculum should it endeavor to fulfil its function? It should be the aim of the secondary school, I take it, by instruction and discipline to lay the foundation for that cultivation and inspiration that mark the truly educated man. In endeavoring to attain this ideal, the secondary school must not lose sight of the fact that it is educating boys who are to assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship and who must, in all probability, pursue a specific calling for the purpose of gaining a livelihood.

To prepare a curriculum which shall keep all the points in mind and at the same time afford the developing intellect of the pupil that exercise of which it is capable is not an easy

task. Indeed it presents some problems which but a little while ago seemed almost impossible of solution. But patience, wider experience and a careful study of the surrounding conditions have lessened the difficulties. The chief of these is perhaps that created by the rapid development and present importance of scientific and technical schools. These institutions represent a real and significant movement in modern civilization. They have complicated the question of a curriculum for secondary schools by demanding a preparation quite different from that required for entrance to the average American college. That the problem thus raised belongs to the field of secondary education in general and is not due to conditions prevailing in any one country alone is evidenced by the fact that both England, Germany and France have been brought face to face with it as we have been. In each of these countries much progress towards its solution has been made. In England the so called "modern side" has been added to the traditional classical course. In France the Lycée has its *cours special* in which mathematics and the sciences replace Latin and Greek. In Germany the well-established Real-Gymnasium and Real-Schule are every year justifying their right to exist on an equal plane with the Gymnasium itself. A specially interesting movement in this connection is that one in Germany which is now calling for the establishment of an *Einheitsschule* in which the main features both of Gymnasium and Realschule are to be combined. The curriculum that I am about to suggest for the American secondary school combines some features of the English "modern side" with some of those of the French *cours special*, and is strikingly like that of the institution which German educationists have in mind under the name, just referred to,

of *Einheitsschule*. This plan is proposed not as a finality nor without consideration of the practical obstacles to its general acceptance, but in the belief that it is sound in principle and furnishes a suitable ideal for our present efforts to develop and systematise secondary education.

As will be seen the scheme proposed makes provision for a seven years' course, extending from the tenth to the close of the seventeenth year. After the fourth year of the course a bifurcation is made in order that preparation may be had specifically for the college or for the scientific school. The alternative courses are of similar, though perhaps slightly unequal value in training the pupil's mind. They represent two different temperaments and two different points of view, which no amount of argument or invective can reduce to one. The preference of the parent of the future career of the pupil must determine which of the two courses will be pursued during the three last years of the secondary school.

To enter this school the ability to read well, write legibly and perform understandingly with integers the four fundamental operations of arithmetic must be insisted upon. The growing practice of postponing even this modicum of knowledge until after the tenth year is to be emphatically discouraged. Attention has recently been called to the fact that one of the best academies in the United States requires for admission only some knowledge of common school arithmetic, writing, spelling, and of the elements of english grammar, and that the average age of pupils on entering is sixteen and one-half years. At this age the French boy is reading Cicero, Vergil and Horace, Sophocles and Plato, Shakespeare and Tennyson, as well as studying general history, solid geometry and chemistry. His German contemporary is similarly advanc-

ed. It is very evident that there is a tremendous waste at this point in our educational system. It must be remedied and remedied at once, if our higher education is not to be discredited altogether. It can be remedied, and easily, if the secondary school will

extend its course downward to the tenth year and insist that the meagre preparation mentioned be had at this age. Upon the foundation thus provided the secondary school must build gradually and solidly. — *The Academy.*

(To be continued.)

HOW A TEACHER MAY WASTE THE TIME OF HIS PUPILS.

BY SUPT. J. C. LATTIMORE, CALIFORNIA.

1. **I**N not planning his recitation beforehand. Each recitation is a campaign against the enemy in the country of ignorance. The teacher is the general, his pupils the troops. Every general carefully studies a map of the country into which he proposes to march, familiarizes himself with the location and strength of the various strongholds of the enemy, so an experienced teacher thinks out his route, decides upon points to be gained and methods of reaching them. No battle was probably ever fought out exactly as it was planned; but the general who has a plan knows where his troops are, and in what condition they are, and so is best prepared to meet any change of plan which circumstances may require. So the teacher who plans his work may not carry out those plans entirely, but by his plan holds his work well in hand, ready to manage it in any way that circumstances may require. A poor plan is better than no plan.

The younger and less experienced a teacher, the more necessary to study out a plan, and the more time it will require. An experienced teacher, being familiar with the route and difficulties, may not require so much preliminary preparations, but, though it may take him but a moment, he needs it and makes it just as certain, even though he be unconscious of it.

2. In not studying the roll of his class previous to recitation. This is also preparatory work, determining the strong, the weak, the unreliable, the unworthy. It will be well to make a special list of certain pupils who have been neglected, who are specially weak and need special attention. It is a good thing to grade the class just before recitation, thus discovering pupils whose standing you are uncertain of, or really do not know. This is especially necessary at beginning of term, when pupils are strangers. Let the known ones alone, make a memorandum of the unknown. Call on them at the recitation for the purpose of finding them out and fixing them on the mind.

3. In talking too much. He is the best teacher who manages to have his pupils say the most by saying the least himself. Pupils grow by their own activity and not by the activity of the teacher. The talking teacher will run his class down in numbers and power. The better he talks the worse his work, and the more wasteful he is of his pupil's time. The pupils may call him entertaining and enjoy listening to him; notwithstanding they will lose interest and drop away. A talking teacher cannot stay long before his classes. His pupils understand his game at once, know their rights and dare maintain them. The talking teacher

can soon break himself of this time-wasting habit by always calling on a pupil to say what he intends to say himself. If the pupils cannot say it, then they are not sufficiently prepared, and it should go over as a part of the next lesson. The pupils are there to recite, not to hear their teacher recite. The talking teacher can never know the condition of his class. By holding his tongue between his teeth, if necessary, and permitting his pupils to recite, he will not only discover how little his pupils know, but that many of his class can recite their lessons much better than he can, if he will give them a chance.

4. In pretending to hear a lesson that has not been sufficiently prepared. I say pretend, because it cannot be recited by the pupils if they have not studied it. It may be recited by the teacher, but that is sham and wasteful, and the pupils know it. My usual practice is, if about five average pupils fail to respond to any point in the lesson to say: "Take it again, you are not ready to recite!" Sometimes the whole lesson goes over under such circumstances, and I use the time in reviewing or in giving a preliminary drill on the ill-prepared lesson.

6. In calling on some pupils too frequently. This wastes the time of the many, who are thus neglected in giving activity to those who need it least, and denying it to those who need it most. The teacher must resist the tendency to be overpowered by the three or four active members of the class. Better habitually not

call on the leaders. Reserve them for the rarely hard places, work in the others on the easiest points.

7. In repeating questions to pupils. This is a bad habit, and can be overcome. Pupils enjoy being held closely to the rule, that questions shall not be repeated. The habit trains pupils to inattention, its correction awakens a spirit of attention and mental vigour in the class. Repeating questions is weakening and wasteful.

8. In permitting pupils to repeat questions. This is unnecessary, is weakening, and therefore a waste of time.

10. In permitting pupils to recite when they are not making a point. When a pupil is reciting thus, stop him, ask another pupil, if he is saying anything. If he, the second pupil, thinks he is, request him, the second pupil, to state the point made by the first. Energy of expression, clearness of ideas, thoroughness of mastery are encouraged, and time saved by not permitting this bad practice. Pupils will not be offended by close ruling, if it is done kindly. They like it.

11. In repeating answers to pupils. A teacher can have no idea how much time he wastes in this way till he watches himself closely. The repetition is, of course, usually to have a faint of answer heard by all, or to emphasize it. The same result will be better accomplished by calling on another pupil to repeat it, and so by correcting the habit, give the pupils greater activity.—*Ex.*

THE library at Chatsworth is being rearranged, and the Duke of Devonshire has promised that any surplus or duplicate works shall be sent to the new library of Toronto University, to replace those destroyed by fire.

GREAT men are the fire-pillars in this dark pilgrimage of mankind; they stand as heavenly signs, everlasting witnesses of what has been, prophetic tokens of what may still be, the revealed, embodied possibilities of human nature.—THOMAS CARLYLE.

CIVIC AND MORAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS.*

BY REV. DR. ABBOTT.

MOST school subjects imply not only rules (with reasons where they can be made intelligible) but also exercises. One reason why it is hard to teach history profitably to young boys is, that they cannot "do exercises" in it—that is to say, exercises that are something more than mere repetitions. A pupil learns arithmetic, or Latin, or geometry, by being led up to rules; by seeing his teacher do exercises; but, best of all, by doing exercises himself, with an intelligent knowledge of the principles on which they are based. The most efficacious means of teaching appears to be teaching by exercises.

This applies to moral and civic training. The "rule" for morality—to love one's neighbour as one loves one's self—is intelligible and simple. The great point is—for all of us, old as well as young—the "exercises." Reading may do something, discourse from a teacher with convictions can do still more; but neither can do much in comparison with the "exercises," many of which—for boys at a day school—are done in the streets, or in the train, and most of all at home. "I don't mind your teaching him the Catechism," said some parent who did not believe in the Catechism, but who was asking that his son might be admitted into a school where the Catechism was, at that time, indispensable; "you may hammer it into him at school and I'll hammer it out of him at home; I shan't object." The story is probably legendary; but it understates, rather than exaggerates,

an important truth. Moral training in a day school, so far as it is mere book teaching, may be excellent in its way, and yet quite unable to compete with the more powerful training—not "hammering" at all, but much more silent, persistent, and efficacious—of the out-of-school world.

I make no apology, then, for speaking first of "exercises" in morality, although there is nothing novel in this part of the subject. If teachers were waiting to give moral and civic training until the publication of some authoritative text-books on it, I am convinced that it would never be given. The text-book might be published, but it would be sure to disappoint expectations. If we cannot make a considerable use of the instruments at our command, no new instrument is likely to help us much. My impression is that our present means may be better used than they have been; and, therefore, though I shall touch on the introduction of new means, I shall lay most stress upon the improved use of the old. But bearing in mind that many of my suggestions may have been anticipated by others who have long acted on them, I will ask you to excuse me if I state points briefly, rather as subjects for discussion than as defined conclusions.

First, then, what means are there of securing the co-operation of parents, and can they be improved? Are there monthly or other reports sent home to them? If there are not, and if there is a general feeling that this would be useful in itself, but more than counterbalanced by the increased burden of secretarial work, already perhaps too heavy, could not the secretarial assistance be increased?

* A paper read by the Rev. Dr. Abbott, late Head Master of the City of London School, at the Conference of the N. U. T., London, 1890.

I have heard that the principals of some schools encourage meetings of parents now and then at the school, in pre-arranged groups, to talk over school matters with the teachers: is this practicable? A society has lately been established called the "Parents' National Educational Union," one object of which is "to secure greater unity and continuity of education by harmonizing home and school training." How far can such a society be useful? And, if it can be of use, can we co-operate with it?

Next, as to training in the school itself. We all know that if the tone of a school is to be good, the teacher must be in touch with his pupils, realizing their individual difficulties and temptations, appreciating their efforts, and understanding and making allowance for—even while firmly punishing—their faults. But this cannot be done if the teacher's time is wholly taken up with preparing pupils for examinations, or if he is distracted between many classes. Lecturers do good work, but lecturers cannot give training in morality; and a teacher of many classes tends to become a lecturer.

Where a teacher's attention is thus distracted (and there are many intellectual advantages to be pleaded for the system which thus utilizes specialists as teachers), it becomes desirable that a group of boys should be attached during the term to some one master whom they may consult as their friend in troubles and difficulties, and to whom they must present regular reports of their work and conduct. If a teacher has not time or opportunity for acquiring more than a mere intellectual knowledge of the pupils under his care, the moral loss to them is very great. An overworked teacher tends to become a machine, and a teaching machine produces in its pupils machine-like learning, and machine-like morals.

Not, indeed, that I underrate the minor and mechanical habits of punctuality, neatness, orderliness, and general attention to things seemly. Drill, in itself, exercises a good influence, though much depends upon the spirit of the drill and character of the instructor; but these small habits also constitute a kind of drill, which strengthens the mind, increases energy, self-respect, and self-control, and forms a kind of bulwark or outer circle to resist attacks against morality. And how often it happens that the mere mechanical arrangements of a school, or parts of a school, fight, so to speak, against these minor moralities! Ill-constructed passages, or staircases, or lavatories, or cloak-rooms, or ill-devised arrangements in connection with them—how often do they encourage disorder, bullying, dishonesty, suspicion of dishonesty, and a generally bad tone! I have often seen, and still sometimes see, young boys emerging from schools into the street, who regularly act as though there were no accommodation for decency in the school, and whose conduct toward one another would certainly not suggest that in that very afternoon they had been receiving a lesson on the Sermon on the Mount. Certainly, therefore, so far from underrating the machine-like routine of ordinary school discipline, I am of one mind with the head master of the most successful day school in London—or, I may say, in England—who told me that, in a former school of his, the chairman of his council, after visiting the class-rooms, was in the habit of saying, "I don't believe much good is being done in Mr. So-and-so's room; there's too much paper on the floor;" "and," continued the head master, "the chairman was right." And I wish I could induce all the members of my profession, especially the untrained members, to believe in that chairman.

But, still, while enforcing exact obedience to school rules, you must not—under penalty of becoming a martinet yourself, and inflicting great injury on your pupils—neglect to remind yourself constantly that these small school rules are but means to a great end. You may inculcate discipline and order as means for getting on in life (and I am by no means disposed to deny that for boys of a certain kind and at a certain stage that argument may sometimes be rightly used), but, as a basis for morality, they must be enforced on the ground of the good of the school—the common good. If the young can be made to recognize that the school rules are for the school's interest, then, and not till then, in the simplest actions of school routine, by giving a willing and intelligent obedience, they are being imperceptibly imbued with that habit of subordinating private inclinations to public benefit, which is one of the best means of preparing a boy in a school to become a citizen in a state.

But, now, to pass from the "exercises" of the pupils to those of the master. They are, of course, not direct or deliberate, nor even conscious for the most part: but, for this very reason, they are often most effective, when they naturally and spontaneously spring out of his management and control of the class. I sometimes think a teacher might do more for the morality of his pupils than he is aware by paying an absolute and almost punctilious respect to their rights, and by consulting the wishes of the majority on small occasions where no harm can be done.

To keep pupils over time, because you are greatly interested in a lesson, is a mark of zeal; to do it because you came into the class-room after your time is a mark of penitence; but in neither case is it quite fair. Again, if boys are fined for dropping paper or leaving books about, is it

altogether Quixotic that a master himself should contribute to the fine fund for similar offences? Then, as regards the administration of justice and punishment of faults, although the pressure of work in a great school prevents nice discriminations and lengthy inquiries, still, the habit of always allowing an appeal (after lesson), even to the perpetrator of seventy-times-seven offences, is so valuable to our pupils as to be worth some expense of a master's time and energy. Some masters think it right to punish a whole class for the fault of one or two undetected pupils in it. I would not go so far as to say that it is not right; but I am pretty sure that it is not wise. For the same result can be obtained by holding an investigation after school hours, at which, of course, you require the attendance of the whole class for the purpose of giving evidence. Thus you inconvenience the whole class, as also you inconvenience yourself; but you do not treat the whole class as guilty any more than you treat yourself as guilty. The lesson to be deduced from these natural inconveniences is that if one member of a body goes wrong, the whole of the body is liable to suffer; and this is a profound moral and civic truth well worth inculcating in practice. But it is all lost if you arbitrarily say, "Since I cannot detect the one offender in a class of forty, I will punish thirty-nine innocent boys simply that I may punish one guilty one." I lay the more stress upon justice because it is the one virtue that is open to all teachers to practice, and easy for all pupils to understand and respect. Many teachers are so shy and reserved, or so afraid of being partial or indulgent, that they cannot make themselves liked; but they can all make themselves respected if they are just. No lessons on morals are of much use from a master who is not respected by his

pupils; but a perfectly just teacher, even though he may give no moral lessons, is a great indirect teacher of morality.

Discrimination between offences, and adaptation of punishments to faults, are excellent "moral exercises," and it is needless to dwell on the mischief that would arise if no more severe punishment could be inflicted on dishonesty and indecency than on inattention, carelessness, or unpunctuality. For this reason, if for no other, I am disposed to think that corporal punishment should be regularly used, to draw a line, intelligible to the whole school, between the graver and the lighter faults. I have grown to dislike inflicting corporal punishment more and more; yet, if I were to begin a schoolmaster's life over again, I would do one of two things, I would either cane more often than I did, or else I would introduce a substitute of the following kind: I would try the experiment of a *concordat*, a compact with my pupils after this fashion: "So-and-so has lowered the character of the school by committing such-and-such an offence, and deserves to be caned; but I should much prefer not to cane him if the boys will punish him themselves by not speaking to him for a week. If the boys do this, I shall not punish him myself in any way. So many as promise this, hold up their hands." Great care would be needed at first to ensure that the boys kept their promise, but if they did, and if it became a school tradition, I think it would be an excellent tradition. The experiment has perhaps been tried by many here present; if not, it seems worth trying.

Meantime, greatly though we may dislike inflicting corporal punishment, it is our duty to inflict it, if it is for the good of the school as a whole. From an interesting report of Mr. Fitch on American Schools, published last year, I learn that "in most of

the state and city regulations teachers are absolutely forbidden to inflict it"; and that is a point well worth considering. One would like to know what punishments are reserved for graver offences; whether the teachers themselves acquiesce in this restriction: whether they are satisfied with the tone and morality of their pupils, as well as with the outward order and discipline which favourably impressed Mr. Fitch; and whether there is, owing to national character and circumstances, an earlier seriousness and sense of responsibility among boys at school and young men at the universities in the United States. It may be we can learn something from a fuller knowledge of what is done elsewhere. But meantime, I hope none of my fellow-teachers will be deterred from their duty by mere abstract arguments apart from facts. "Caning brutalises a boy," people say. I do not believe it does, unless a brute holds the cane. But, if it did, bullying, falsehood, dishonesty and indecency do worse than brutalise him; and not only him, but also the innocent companions among whom he is spreading the infection of his evil habits. Under proper regulations, and in the hands of experienced and responsible teachers, the cane seems to me an instrument for good in English schools as at present constituted; and if, as I believe, this is the general opinion not only of school teachers but also of school managers, it seems time that some pressure should be brought to bear upon those magistrates who set their faces against caning under any circumstances. The magistrate's son, if he went to a public school, would be freely birched in some schools or caned in others, and if the father dared to utter a word of remonstrance against an ordinary caning, he would be ridiculed by his old schoolfellows and friends, repudiated by his own son, and rebuffed in any

appeal to the laws. In the elementary schools, the work of maintaining discipline and morality is probably far more laborious than in the schools of the wealthy; surely, therefore, it is monstrous that a punishment freely allowed in the latter should be denied to the former—and this not by any recognized interpretation of the laws, but by an eccentric and capricious abuse of the power of a local magistrate!

In the infliction of all punishments, corporal or otherwise, the old and humane caution of Deuteronomy is ever to be present with us. There is to be a limit to the number of stripes, "that thy brother may not seem vile unto thee." The young teacher should bear this in mind in the infliction of metaphorical as well as literal stripes. We sometimes resort to reproach or sarcasm with the view of stimulating without punishing; and too often, without knowing it, we have exceeded the forty stripes and made our brother "vile," not perhaps in our eyes, but in the eyes of his schoolfellows and his own. That is a sad mistake. If we are to imbue boys with the spirit of morality, it is essential that they should count no one "vile"; they must be taught to believe that there is some good in every one—some good even in the worst of their schoolfellows. Whether they believe this or not will largely depend upon you; upon your faith in human nature and upon your power of manifesting that faith in action.

But it is time to pass from moral "exercises" to moral "rules." I have omitted much that seemed inapplicable to day schools for young boys—organised school games, debating societies, school clubs and the like. Any defects in this part of my subject will be supplied, a hope, by subsequent speakers. Let us come now to "rules," and "reasons for rules," that is to say, direct teaching

bearing on moral and civic duty. Under this head we may consider, first, what we teach at present, and whether we might teach that better; and secondly, new means and methods of teaching.

Direct moral instruction, apart from that which is based on Scripture lessons, should not, I think, be given frequently, nor even regularly, lest it should come to be taken as a matter of course and become stale and flat. The most impressive teaching of this kind can often be given in the way of warning, when something has gone wrong in the school. But it is not well, either to delay giving one's pupils guidance till some of them have gone astray. At the beginning of each term the head master, with the whole school, and class masters, with their several classes, have an opportunity of giving direct moral instruction which is likely to have good and permanent results if masters can speak with conviction. The topics will be always open to variety of illustration based on the experience of the preceding term, but in themselves they will be always much the same. How the welfare and happiness of the whole school depend upon the good conduct of each member of it; how the disorder and mischievousness of a few may disturb and trouble the many; how unfairness, and cheating, and dishonesty in school work, as well as in other things, infect the atmosphere of the whole school, vitiate the relations between boys and masters, and drive away the spirit of frank confidence and friendliness which should bind all together; and how much a majority of well-disposed boys might do by remonstrance and moral or other pressure to put down those mean and dishonest tricks which they ought no more to tolerate in school work than in school games—these subjects, term after term, will re-appear, and may be so handled as

to perceptibly improve the tone of the school for a time. Presently there will be a reaction, and another such lay-sermon will be needed—and the best of such sermons must never tempt the preacher of them to dispense with constant watchfulness or to imagine that they furnish a substitute for sympathy between teacher and pupil.

We all dislike—perhaps too much dislike—to warn boys beforehand against indecent and impure language and habits. It is a painful, but I fear a necessary, duty. But such warnings should be brief; and argument, I think, should have but little part in them. Boys may be told that impure words lead to impure deeds, which sometimes bring disease on body and

mind, as well as on the soul; but, for the rest, I would no more argue with boys about the mischief of unclean language than about the mischief of dirty hands or faces. I have always, hitherto, held aloof from social efforts in this direction; and even now I intensely dislike the notion that purity requires a society to encourage it. But, if I were to begin a schoolmaster's life again, I think I should support, even in a day school, the formation of a society which had for its object the suppression of anything unseemly or indecent by remonstrance in the first instance; by social excommunication in the second; and, as a last resort, by reporting to the master.

—*The Schoolmaster.*

(To be continued.)

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

A LESSON FOR US.—One of the best lessons to be learnt is the absolute necessity of preventing work from degenerating into worry. It is worry that kills for the most part, not work. To learn to put forth our best powers steadily, continuously, in the proper grooves, to the proper ends—this is one of the most precious fruits of wisdom and experience.—*The Nursing Record.*

LITERATURE IN INDIA.—An interesting piece of news comes to us from India. In the literature of the Madras Presidency there is an increase in original works as opposed to translations, and considerable improvement is reported in the quality of the native literature. A very diversified range of subject has been taken up in the department of poetry, whilst there is a perceptibly growing taste for fiction. "As You Like It" has just been translated into Tamil.—*The Publishers' Circular.*

BORAX.—Few people probably were aware of the existence of enormous deposits of borax in California till Mr. C. Napier Hake read his paper before the Society of Chemical Industry. Some 450 miles from San Francisco there is a dry salt lake about twelve miles long and eight miles broad, in the valley of the Slate Range and Argus Mountains. This lake yields bi-carbonate of soda, common salt, and borax. Beneath the incrustation is a deep bed of black mud. Formerly the supply of borax was obtained from Thibet and the north of India, until Italy and Peru became sources of supply.—*The Hospital.*

SALARIES OF FOREIGN PARLIAMENTS.—In Portugal, peers and deputies receive \$355 a year. In Holland, members of the Lower House receive \$830 per annum. In Denmark, members of both Houses receive \$3.75 a day during the ses-

sion. In France, senators and deputies are paid \$1,780 per annum, and the same rate obtains in Austria. In Belgium, each member of the Chamber of Representatives receives \$84 a month if he does not live in Brussels. In Switzerland, members of the National Council get \$2.50 a day, and members of the State Council from \$1.50 to \$2.50. In Italy, neither senators nor deputies are paid, but they travel free and receive other concessions in taxes and patronage.—*London Court Journal.*

A GOOD EDUCATION.—Edward Everett said: "To read the English language well, to write with dispatch a neat legible hand, and be master of the first rules of arithmetic, so as to dispose of at once, with accuracy, every question of figures which comes up in practice—I call this a good education. And if you add the ability to write pure, grammatical English, I regard it as an excellent education. These are the tools. You can do much with them, but you are helpless without them. They are the foundation; and unless you begin

with these, all your flashy attainments, a little geology, and all other ologies and ophies are ostentatious rubbish.

MANNERS MAKETH MAN.—The *Montreal Witness* is inclined to think that, though of little avail with a weak character, manners are worth more to a man in life, and are, consequently, better worth teaching a boy than half of the subjects in which he is daily drilled through five or six long hours. It is, however, by no means such an easy thing to prescribe a course of manners as one in geography and spelling, nor as it was in the old dame school days when manners were understood to consist in bobs and curtseys. Something is to be done by training, more by example and imitation. What is important in this respect is to secure teachers of as good manners and culture as possible, and to impress on them on every occasion the importance of insisting on the observance on the part of their scholars, and that for their own sakes, of the respect which is due to their teachers and to each other.—*The London Free Press.*

GEOGRAPHY.

THE BAY OF RIO DE JANEIRO.—Tell the pupils that the bay of Rio de Janeiro is even more beautiful than the renowned bay of Naples, or the Golden Horn of Constantinople. As one lies on the deck of the ship, watching the night steal over the city, the scene is one of marvellous enchantment, and fairy-like loveliness, with the brilliant waters, the lamps of the ferry-boats, and the city in the distance, showing its avenue of palms; the foliage shows every tint of green, birds of glittering plumage flit through giant boughs, and flowers of rainbow beauty are everywhere.

THE RAINIEST REGION IN THE WORLD.—More rain falls in a year over the Khasia Mountains, which lie north of Calcutta, in Assam, than in any other district in the world. How among these hills the torrential rain-sheet really rushes down may be inferred from the fact that at the meteorological station and observatory situated at Cherra Poonjee, in that region, as much as 610 inches of rain—that is, 50 feet—have been collected in a single year; and that of this enormous quantity nearly 550 inches fell in the six rainy or winter months beginning in May. As much

as 26 inches of rain have been observed to fall on the Khasia Mountains in a single day. The annual rainfall in Edinburgh is only about 25 inches.

CLOVES.—Tell the pupils about cloves. They are the unopened flower of a small tree resembling the laurel. It was first found in the Spice Islands, but is now cultivated in all the tropical parts of the world. The flowers are gathered while still green, and smoked, then dried in the sun. Each clove consists of two parts, a round head, and four points. If you soak a few cloves in hot water for a while, you will see the leaves soften and unroll. The more oil the cloves contain, the stronger and better they are.—*The School Journal.*

WHERE THE NICKEL COMES FROM.—In the Copper Cliff mine near Sudbury, Canada, it is said more nickel is being produced than the entire market of the world calls for at current prices. A little branch of the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, four miles in length, leads out to the mine, which opens into the face of a crag of the brown, oxidized Laurentian rock, characteristic of this region. The miners are now at work at a depth of about 300 feet below the surface. As fast as the nickel and copper bearing rock is hoisted out, it is broken up and piled upon long beds, or ricks of pine wood to be calcined or roasted, for the purpose of driving out the sulphur which it contains. The roasting process is of the

nature of lime kilning or charcoal burning. Each great bed of ore requires from one to two months to roast. When roasted, the rock goes to the principal smelter, a powerful blast furnace, "jacketed," in mining phrase, with running water, to enable it to sustain the great heat requisite to reduce the crude, obdurate mineral to fluidity. The dross of the molten mass is first allowed to flow off, and afterward the nearly pure nickel and copper, blended together in an alloy called the "mat," or matte, is drawn off at the base of the furnace into the barrow pots and wheeled away, still liquid and fiery hot, to cool in the yard of the smelter. The mat contains about 70 per cent. of nickel, the remainder, 30 per cent., being mainly copper. When cold, the conical pot loaves of mat can easily be cracked in pieces by means of heavy hammers. The fragments are then packed in barrels and shipped to Swansea, in Wales, and to Germany, where the two constituent metals are separated and refined by secret processes, which are very jealously guarded by the manufacturers. So jealously is the secret kept that no one in America has yet been able to learn the process, although one young metallurgist spent three years in Swansea as a common labourer in the factories in order to obtain it. At present there are produced daily at the Copper Cliff mine about ninety pot loaves of mat, each weighing nearly 450 pounds, an output which yields an aggregate of more than 4,000 tons of nickel a year.—*Manufacturing Jeweler.*

PUBLIC OPINION.

THE EVIL RESULT.—The public schools of the country, under their present management, educate boys and girls to be clerks, and in a way generally which unfits them for the

commoner and far more important, useful and self helpful employments in life. Aside from reading, and writing, and arithmetic, they fail utterly to teach or train the pupils in

anything which will be helpful to them in the struggle with life which is before them, and which constantly grows more arduous. It is the evil and purely evil result of the public school system in the hands of those who control it, and who meet, as here, to magnify themselves and their misdoings, that the greater part of our young people are, by the so-called education they receive, forced into a few, and those the least paid and least useful employments, and come out of the public schools averse to manual labour and unfitted for it in mind and body. — *The New York Herald.*

INDEPENDENCE. — "My view is simple: the skilled workman ought to be allowed uncontrolled management of the work. No work can flourish over a series of years which is exposed to interference from local amateurs or authority." — *Edward Thring.*

THE OUTWARD APPEARANCE. — Mr. Gladstone, like every true lover of books, believes that noble works ought not to be published in mean and unworthy forms, nor cheapness secured by the sacrifice of elegance. The binding of a book he regards as the dress with which it walks out into the world, whilst paper, type, and ink are described by him as the body, in which its soul is domiciled; and these three, he maintains, ought to be adjusted to one another by the laws of harmony and good sense. — *The Publishers' Circular.*

OUR PROFESSION. — The London *Educational Times* and *Journal of the College of Preceptors*, April 1, says: "The University of the City of New York has formally established the School of Pedagogy, and will grant degrees and recognitions to those who complete its courses of study. This

school will be put, in every respect, on the same plane as the departments of law, medicine, and theology, and give all students who are prepared to enter it a professional training equal in every respect to the demands of higher instruction. This is the first time in the history of education that a university has formally recognized teaching as a profession, equal in scholastic dignity and importance to the other learned callings. Recognition is everything in this world. The bondage of teaching has consisted in the fact that it has not been recognized as having any professional rights worth noticing."

THE POLITICIANS' FOOTBALL. — The time is at hand when teachers will not submit to being made footballs for politicians. Heretofore they have been obliged to submit to all possible insults through personal motives and political spite. A principal of a city training school lately told us that several members of the board were in favour of cutting down his course from two years to one, because the longer course interfered with their political manipulation. "We can't get our friends in as soon as we want to—the training school stands in the way." Political manipulation in school affairs is outrageous. The result of it is to render wages uncertain, and tenure of office insecure. Superintendents, principals, and teachers should be as free as they please, to do all that Christian men and women ought to do. If a teacher does wrong, let him be punished, but if he does not do wrong, let him alone. When a young man enters upon his work, let him marry a wife, buy a house, and settle down for life. Let him act in all respects in political, social, and religious life as other good citizens act. This will cultivate manhood and all the other good things, and make teaching what

it ought to be, the best esteemed and best protected of all the learned professions.—*The New York School Journal*.

THE QUEEN'S ENGLISH.—The appended "bitter cry" from Mr. W. E. Norris has moved the compassion of many readers of the Agony Column of the *London Times*: "In a notice of a recent work of mine—'Mrs. Fenton'—your reviewer remarks upon the American style of orthography adopted therein, and takes exception, as well he may, to such words as 'traveled,' 'offense,' and 'theater.' May I be permitted to say that I am innocent of having thus foully murdered the Queen's English? The story as it originally appeared in *Longman's Magazine* was not so disfigured; but, unfortunately, Messrs. Longman printed it in book form from plates which they obtained from my American publishers, and I knew nothing of the liberties which had been taken with the text until the deed was done. Immediately after the appearance of the book I wrote to Messrs. Longman, with the tears running down my pen, to repudiate all complicity in the crime which had been perpetrated in my name, and they have kindly promised that any future editions which may be issued shall be printed in the vernacular." No reader of this lamentation sympathized more warmly with the aggrieved author than *The Satur-*

day Review, which forthwith from its glittering staff unfurled its brightest writer, and bade him appeal to the American people for more considerate treatment of a language that has never consciously done its votaries a wrong. They might mend their ways, the "Reviewer" thinks (it is Mr. Lang, or I am no detective) "if they could only be brought to see the hideous aspect of their printed books as others see them, and could only reflect that the saving of a few letters which some—and only some—of their nightmare innovations secure to them, is really not worth the candle of the distress and disgust which they give to their brethren on this side of the Atlantic." If the American spells "defence" with an s to show that it is from the Latin, why does he, when he comes to "theatre," transpose the last two letters of the word? Echo returns no audible reply. And what, in the privacy of his own home, does the American compositor really think of the word "knowledge"? Does he regard it as formed from the verb to "know," and the termination "ledge," or from the verb "knowl," and the termination "edge"? That he favours the latter derivation we have no reason to know, or even suppose. But if he favours the former, why does he divide the word "knowledge" in this maddening manner? But the subject grows too exciting, and we must change it.—*The Critic*.

"ALL actual excellence, whether earthly or spiritual, has been attained by the mind keeping before it and dwelling upon the ideas of the great, the good, the beautiful, the grand, the perfect. The tradesmen and mechanic reach the highest eminence by never allowing themselves to rest till they can produce the most finished specimens of their particular craft. The painter and sculptor travel to distant lands that they may see, and, as it were, fill their eye and mind with the sight of the most beautiful models of their art. Poets had their yet undiscovered genius awakened into life as they contemplated some of the grandest of Nature's

scenes, or as they listened to the strains of other poets the spirit of inspiration has descended upon them. The soldier's spirit has been aroused, more, than even by the stirring sounds of the war trumpet, by the record of the courage and heroism of other warriors. In this way fathers have handed down their virtues to their children, and those who could leave their offspring no other have in their example left them the very richest legacy, and the deeds of those who perform great achievements have lived far longer than those who do them, and go down from one generation to another."—*Dr. McCosh*.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE Toronto Humane Society has decided to offer \$100.00 in prizes for the best essay written by the school children of Toronto on the following subjects:—(1) The duty of kindness to animals; (2) Why birds and their nests should be protected.

THERE are few better ways of teaching national history than by setting up monuments to the memory of national heroes, and the proposal of Dr. Ferguson, of Welland, which was endorsed and enlarged upon by the Minister of Militia, in the Dominion House, that suitable monuments should be erected on Lundy's Lane and other battlefields of Canada is one that we feel sure the country will approve and heartily support.

JOHN MILLAR, ESQ., B.A., Principal of the Collegiate Institute and Public Schools, St. Thomas, has been appointed Deputy Minister of Education, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Alexander Marling, LL.B. To attend to the duties of Deputy Minister of Education, it was most fitting that an experienced educator, who has given such long and faithful service in the schools as Mr. Millar, should have been selected, and the position we may say of right belongs to the teaching profession. Mr. Millar's personal acquaintance with the work which comes to the schoolmaster in both public and high schools will enable him actively to sympathize with those who are carrying the burden of the day in these institutions. THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY wishes him satisfaction and success in the discharge of the duties of his office.

EARLY last month, upon the invitation of the Senate, a well-attended conference was held at the University

of Toronto for the purpose of agreeing upon the works to be read by candidates for matriculation as well as the standard to be exacted at the preliminary examination. All classes of secondary schools were represented—public and private—and the following colleges and universities: Knox and St. Michael's, Toronto, Trinity, McMaster, Victoria and Queen's. The draft scheme of work for matriculation sent out by the Senate of Toronto University was carefully, critically considered, and amended in many particulars. There was the greatest freedom and harmony in the conference, all the members working heartily together in order to have the best possible scheme of study for the Collegiate Institutes and High Schools in the Province of Ontario.

THE death of Mr. Alex. Marling came as a shock to his many friends, most of whom were quite unaware of his illness. The late Deputy Minister of Education died on his birthday at the age of fifty-eight. The family came from England in 1842. Master Alexander got his preliminary training in Upper Canada College, and graduated LL.B., Toronto University in 1862. He has been connected with the Education Office since 1854; under the Hon. Adam Crooks he was made Secretary of the Education Department, and, as we noticed in a late number of this magazine, was very recently appointed Deputy Minister of Education. Mr. Alexander Marling was a first-class officer, accurate, painstaking, kindly, courteous and honourable. Upon many occasions he had delicate and difficult duties to perform, but never have we heard of his doing anything with which either Minister, teacher or publisher could justly be dissatisfied. His

name will be held in kind remembrance by the active educators of this Province.

TEXT BOOKS.

THIS magazine and *The Week* agree so much in their opinion of the indefensible character of the mode adopted for the authorization and publishing of text books by the present Minister of Education that we quote from our contemporary the following timely remarks:

"Nothing in Ontario politics is more surprising than the complacency with which the great majority of the people have accepted the school-book system which has been foisted upon the Province by the present Minister of Education. We refer more particularly to the modes of authorization and of publication which he has adopted—modes which are not only educationally indefensible, but are so completely at variance with the principles of Liberalism, as commonly understood, that it is astonishing they should have been proposed by a so-called Liberal Government, and adopted by a so-called Liberal Legislature. Those modes involve the essential features of the worst kind of monopoly—a monopoly fostered and protected by the Government and Legislature. The healthful principle of competition is, as we have shown on former occasions, almost entirely eliminated. The Minister of Education virtually chooses the books to be used in the schools, and in some cases even employs or appoints the person to edit the books. The absurdity of this arrangement, from the literary and educational point of view, is equalled only by the absurdity, from a business point of view, of the mode of publication, under which the Department holds the copyright, and enters into a contract with some favoured publisher to produce and sell the books at a fixed price. We make

no insinuation against the good faith of the Minister, but it is capable of demonstration, and has in fact been demonstrated, that in the case of different books now in use, the profits made by the publishers are enormous. The single fact that the price of one set of books, of which hundreds of thousands of copies are required annually, was recently cut down from ten to six cents per copy at a stroke, speaks volumes. It is not easy to conceive a system combining a larger number of the worst features. Under it a corrupt Minister would have it in his power to put a small fortune into the pocket of any favourite he might choose to entrust with the compilation of a school-book, or of any publisher with whom he might choose to contract for its publication. All inducement to the production of improved text books by native authors, or to the publication of such by enterprising publishers, is taken away. The public school teachers who ought, in virtue of their profession, to be the best judges of the merits of the text books they use, are utterly without choice or voice in the matter. These are but some of the features and results of this system—a system which is condemned and denounced by leading educationists in other countries. Now, that the Province is on the eve of a general election this matter should be intelligently discussed and clearly set before the people. We hope the Opposition candidates will study the question, and present it in its true light. We say this not because we are desirous that the Government should be weakened or overthrown, for we see no reason for hoping for a better one on the whole, but because we think there is great need of reform in the very important Department referred to, and would like to see whatever Minister or Government may be in power compelled to accomplish such reform."

REPORT OF THE MINISTER OF
EDUCATION FOR THE YEAR 1889
WITH STATISTICS FOR 1888.

THE regularity with which this report is published, year after year, is liable to make us overlook the important interests which it represents. Many may not be aware that the expenditure upon Public, High and Separate Schools is largely in excess of that for the whole affairs of the Province controlled by the Government. Not far from five and a quarter millions of dollars were spent on these schools in 1888, while the expenditure of all the departments of the Government was little over three and a half millions. Taking the Registrar General's estimate of the population as 2,148,971, the cost per head for education was about two dollars and a half, while the whole affairs of the Province were managed for about one dollar and three quarters per head. In view of these facts it is satisfactory to know that the greater part of the expenditure for schools is under the control of the people themselves, and if it is not judicious they have only themselves to blame.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Registered, Public Schools, 464,300; Separate Schools, 31,323; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, 17,742. Average, Public Schools, 228,801; Separate Schools, 17,136; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, 10,464. Percentage of average attendance to total attendance, Public Schools, 50; Separate Schools, 55; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, 59. The above figures show an increase on the previous year of pupils enrolled of .3 per cent. in the Public Schools, .3 per cent. in the Separate Schools, and 1.6 per cent. in the High Schools, while the school population of the Province increased .7 per cent. The

percentage of average attendance is almost stationary. The above figures show that in the Public Schools only 50 out of every 100 pupils attended the whole year, while Mr. Ross' tables show that 223,070 pupils attended less than half the year, of this number there were 87,874 between the ages of seven and thirteen years. A clause in our law demands that children between these ages should attend some school for at least 100 days, but beyond showing to outsiders how complete our system of public education is, it might as well not be on the statute book. Whose duty is it to enforce this compulsory clause? The Minister of Education implies that it rests on the trustees. But to whom must the people at large look to see that the trustees do their duty? We know of no one but the Minister himself, and so long as he rests content with drawing attention to the laxity of trustees in this particular by a paragraph in his report year after year, he is practically neglecting a most important duty of his office. Of course these remarks apply with greater force to the 5,744 children between seven and thirteen years of age who attended no school whatever. Our criminal population is largely recruited from these two classes of children, and surely it would be greater economy to train them to be industrious citizens than to have them prey upon the country as criminals.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE.

Receipts, Public Schools, \$4,178,237; Separate Schools, \$278,114; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, \$684,266. Expenditure, Public Schools, \$3,599,361; Separate Schools, \$260,003; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, \$637,654. Cost per pupil in average attendance, Public Schools, \$16; Separate Schools, \$15; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, \$61.

The cost per pupil is greatest in the cities and least in the towns. It is greater in the counties than in the towns on account of their smaller average attendance. It will be noticed that a High School education costs about four times that of a Public School, and the statistics further show that the cost per pupil in High Schools proper is \$65, while in Collegiate Institutes it is but \$55. This difference is accounted for by the expense incurred in putting up new buildings in connection with several of the High Schools.

Teaching Staff, Number of teachers—Public Schools, 7,273; Separate Schools, 523; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, 419. Average number of pupils to each teacher—Public Schools, 64; Separate Schools, 60; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, 42. Teachers' average salary, Public Schools, \$334; Separate Schools, \$283; High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, \$837.

In Public Schools the average salary for male teachers was \$424; one dollar less than that for the previous year. The average salary for female teachers was the same for both years, \$292. While discussing the educational estimates at the last session of the Legislature, Mr. Meredith drew attention to the condition of the teaching profession in our Public Schools, and said he had reason to fear that a number of very young, and, perhaps, not very competent teachers were employed. Mr. Meredith's fear is far from groundless, and how can it be otherwise when nothing but the very faintest attempt is made to weed out the incapables from those who attend either the Normal or County Model Schools. Mr. Ross, in the course of his reply to Mr. Meredith, said, that teachers were giving more for what they got than they did years ago. The figures above quoted show that in the case

of male teachers at least he is right. He said further, that the great thing was to try and get the ratepayers to pay the teachers larger salaries. If the ratepayers are getting more out of teachers for the same money than they did years ago, by what means are they to be induced to spend more money in paying larger salaries? Mr. Meredith suggested a very effective means, quite under the control of the Minister, which is, to make the Legislative grant to a greater extent than at present, dependent on what a locality itself does in getting a better class of teachers. Mr. Ross might also set a slight example to trustees by paying his own teachers in the Provincial Model Schools salaries commensurate with the important position which these schools hold in the Province. It is to be feared that the Minister of Education too often mistakes niggardliness for statesmanship in managing the educational affairs of the Province. Mr. Harcourt, in the course of the discussion, showed another means by which the proficiency of teachers might be increased. He said, that the term for student teachers at the Model Schools should be lengthened. If this were done, and increased opportunities were given to these students to learn the art of teaching by practising it, and greater care were taken to exclude those that show themselves incompetent, and the plan that Mr. Meredith recommended were adopted, what our legislators are agreed are greatly needed, both efficiency and permanency in the profession, would be secured.

OVER-CROWDING THE PROFESSIONS.

WHY, when our young men and boys get a certain amount of education, will they not "take their coats off" and work at trades, such as

bricklaying, etc. ? said a father who has several sons, and is a tradesman, intelligent, hard-working, either as a bricklayer or contractor. He added, "Our young men have great advantages; almost any one of them may be well educated at the public schools and High Schools, and to have such an education would be of great use to them when they are working for themselves. But here is the trouble, we fathers dare not go beyond a certain point, even in the course of the public schools, or else we lose our boys from our trades. Why should this be? Why should not learning and steady work on necessary employments hold together? Why, indeed, is asked in perplexity by the thoughtful and well-read educator, as well as by the parents of both boys and girls. The boast is frequently heard in Ontario that our educational system is so "fixed" that a pupil can begin in the public school, and be prepared in the High School, and finish his high academic course at the University at comparatively little expense. It may be taken as an axiom that the people of a country cannot be too well educated, but clearly the education of a country may easily be misdirected. Is the education of Ontario at present misdirected? Many think and say that it is. The father to whom we refer is a representative of many a father. They ask the question: "Why will not the boys take their coats off." While we were writing the above the advice of Mr. William Arrol, the contractor for the celebrated "Forth Bridge," came to hand; as it bears on this important topic we print it here:

"Mr. W. Arrol, in thanking the members of Ayr Town Council for conferring the freedom of the burgh on him, said: 'The first time I was in Ayr was thirty years ago. I remember travelling through it looking for work as a journeyman blacksmith.

I had a fancy to get work in Ayr, as I greatly wished to see Ayrshire. I thought the best way to gratify that desire was to seek work in Ayr, but, unfortunately, I did not succeed in getting employment. That was my first connection with Ayr. Speaking as a representative of the working classes and of the honour which the Provost and Magistrates have done me to-night in presenting me with the freedom of the burgh, I should like to say a few words about our working men at the present moment. I am afraid they are apt to do what some of us here say when a horse gets the bit in its mouth, they run away. I fear that the working classes have got the bit of good trade in their mouths, and are going to run away with it. I saw at least a dozen of gentlemen to-day, and every one was complaining about the prospects of this coming year. I am sorry to think that our working classes will soon run away with the great prospects of the trade of the country, and of the great boom of two years ago. I fear that at the end of twelve months the thing will be at a dead stand. The cause of that is simply the present state of trade unions and the Stock Exchange. Our trade cannot settle down to any quiet, steady trade, the same as we had some years ago. No person can safely go into any contracts that will last over a few months. I know I have been asked to offer for work to the extent of a million of money, but I would not look at it, and incur the very great risk in the present state of business. There is no safety in anybody going outside our own country, for you no sooner have settled down than the trade unions are down on the top of you for an increase of wages. There is another thing I should like to mention, and perhaps it will be as much in the ladies' as the gentlemen's way. I refer to the education of our younger members. We

do a great deal so that the best of our young men may get a good education and be raised to a higher and better position socially. I am sorry to say that our tradesmen are not benefiting by that, because most people now seem to think their sons are getting a better education than their fathers, and therefore they must be gentlemen and not tradesmen, so that our better young men have learned to be clerks and to follow other light employment. The result is that in the inside of a few years the country is getting overstocked with that class, and I believe thousands and thousands of them would be glad to get half the wages paid to working men. I hold it is altogether wrong that so many young men are not learning trades. Give

them certainly the best education you possibly can, but at the same time give them a trade which they could follow, and by which they can earn a living. Our trade has got into the hands of a few, and you cannot get so many decent steady tradesmen. If you advertise for a tradesman you will not perhaps get a single application; whereas, if you advertise for a clerk, you will get 400 or 500. If our legislators, therefore, instead of advocating the system of eight hours a day and that sort of thing, would try to get some Act whereby our younger members would be forced to learn a trade along with their education, it would do the country a great deal of good."

SCHOOL WORK.

CLASSICS.

J. FLETCHER, B.A., Toronto, M.A., Oxon., Editor

This column is open for the discussion of points of interest or difficulty connected with the School work in Latin or Greek.

QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR, BOOK IV.

1. Translate idiomatically, chap. 21: *Volusenus. . . . renuntiat.*

(a) *Quantum ei facultatis.* Explain the construction.

(b) *Auderet, perspexisset.* Account for the mood in each case.

(c) *Auderet.* To what class of verbs does this belong? Name and conjugate any others you know of.

2. Translate chap. 25: *Nam et . . . praestitero.*

(a) Parse *genero, maxime, contestatus.*

(b) *Tormentorum.* Tell briefly what you know of these.

(c) *Ea res.* What is meant?

(d) *Prodere.* What compounds of *do* are of the 3rd conjugation?

(e) Change the standard-bearer's speech to *oratio obliqua.*

3. Translate chap. 27: *Hunc illi . . . petiverunt.*

(a) *Mandata.* What were they?

(b) *Petenda pace.* Give an alternative construction.

(c) *Ignosceretur.* Why not in the plural?

(d) *Perferret.* Account for the subjunctive.

4. Translate chapter 30: *Quibus rebus . . . confidebant.*

(a) Parse *collocuti, hoc, optimum.*

(b) Construction of *equites, reditu.*

(c) *Impedimentis.* Give other examples from Cæsar of words having a different meaning in singular and in plural.

(d) *Factu.* Give rules for the use of the supines.

5. (a) Conjugate *questus, demesso, sublati, factis, consuerunt, coactis.*

(b) Give the nom. genit. and gender of *fundis, anchoris, aere, armis, latere, remis, onere, vadis, portum, hiemi, paludum, acie.*

(c) Compare *aegre, citissime, diutius, maxime, audacter.*

(d) Mention any peculiarity of *complures, portum, deos, reipublicae, necesse, neminem.*

(e) Mark the penult of *aurigae, Oceano,*

removet, egredi, impeditos, subsequi, commode, desilite, maritimos, omnino, convocat, totius, imperiti.

6. (a) Exemplify the different ways in which "to be done" may require to be rendered in Latin.

(b) Exemplify at least three distinct uses of *qui* with the subjunctive.

(c) When does *quod* in the sense of *because* take the indicative, and when the subjunctive?

(d) Derive *tormentum, mandata, princeps, rursus, impeditos, vincula, facultas*.

(e) Form nouns from *remus, sagitta, funda, impero*, and adjectives from *nox, finis, navis, bellum, audeo*.

7. Translate into Latin :

(a) The Britons, being unable to sustain the fierce onsets of our cavalry, fled into the woods.

(b) Calling together the chiefs of all these states he told them what he had learned, and urged them to collect all their forces and attack the Roman camp.

(c) Leaving these two cohorts to guard the camp he set out with the rest of the army about midnight by the same route by which the messengers had come.

(d) Our men having made a sudden attack from all sides upon the Gauls, who were not expecting them, slew a great number, and captured one of their leaders.

(e) The consul, suspecting from what he had learned from the scouts, that the enemy were not far distant, sent forward the prefect with a few horsemen.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Editors { H. I. STRANG, B.A., Goderich.
W. H. FRASER, B.A., Toronto.

EXERCISES IN ENGLISH.

1. Expand into complex or compound sentences :

(a) The mist was too thick for the eye to penetrate it.

(b) The Genius making me no answer, I turned about to address myself to him a second time.

(c) Gladness grew in me upon the discovery of so delightful a scene.

(d) Columbus supposed himself to have landed on an island.

(e) He made signals for the ships to cast anchor and the boats to be manned and armed.

(f) They thronged around him, some embracing him, others kissing his hands.

(g) Fortunately, the proofs of land being near were such on the following day as no longer to admit of doubt.

(h) There was great danger of their breaking forth into open rebellion.

2. Combine the following into simple sentences :

(a) He entered his own boat. He was dressed in scarlet. He held the royal standard.

(b) They fell at his feet. They begged his pardon. They promised obedience for the future.

(c) The day dawned. He saw before him an island. It was level. It was several leagues in extent. It was covered with trees. It was like an orchard.

3. Combine into compound sentences :

(a) He landed. He threw himself on his knees. He kissed the earth. He returned thanks to God. He wept tears of joy.

(b) Unfortunately, it struck the top of the palisade. It fell back among the brave defenders. It exploded. It killed or wounded several of them. It nearly blinded others.

4. Combine into complex sentences :

(a) In the tropical regions the sea greatly exceeds the land in extent. Immense evaporation takes place in these regions. The ocean currents are partly the result of this evaporation.

(b) Hubert had been victor in the first trial of skill. He had therefore the right to shoot first. He took his aim with great deliberation.

5. Combine into compound-complex sentences :

(a) These streams of cold water leave the poles. They then flow directly towards the equator. They do not proceed far thus. Their motion is deflected. The diurnal motion of the earth does this.

(b) The English archers poured a shower of arrows upon them. They were unable to stand it. They turned. They fled. From that moment the panic and the confusion were very great. As a result the day was lost.

6. Break up into a series of short simple sentences :

(a) When the king saw the English horsemen draw near, he advanced a little before his own men, that he might examine them more closely.

(b) He tried to pacify them by speaking gently and promising large rewards, but finding that they only increased in clamour he assumed a decided tone.

7. Change the voice of the verbs :

(a) The examiner had allowed him a second chance.

(b) No one said a word to me about it.

(c) It was never found out who did it.

(d) He told me that a doctor had been sent for.

(e) They should not have taken any notice of it.

8. Right bitter was the agony
That wrung that soldier proud ;
Thrice did he strive to answer,
And thrice he groaned aloud.
Then he gave the riven banner
To the old man's shaking hand,
Saying, "That is all I bring ye
From the bravest of the land !"

Ay! ye may well look upon it,
There is more than honour there,
Else, be sure, I had not brought it
From the field of dark despair.

(a) From what lesson is this extract taken?

(b) Who were the "soldier proud" and the "old man"?

(c) What was it that he strove to answer, and why was it so hard a task?

(d) Show the force added by each of the following words: *proud, aloud, riven, shaking*.

(e) What did he mean by "more than honour"? Quote the lines if you can that explain it.

(f) What was the "field of dark despair"? Why does he describe it thus?

(g) "Ay." Pronounce and give the meaning.

(h) Classify and give the relation of *right, saying, all, bravest, more, sure, else*.

(i) Point out the difference in the use of *there* in l. 10, and of *that* in ll. 2 and 7.

(j) *Had brought*. What mood? Why?

(k) *Else*. Expand this word into a clause.

(l) Is *ye* correctly used in l. 7?

(m) Select three different examples of inflection, and give the object of each.

(n) Classify the verbs in the first six lines.

(1) As Transitive and Intransitive. (2) As strong and weak.

(o) Write sentences using the words *well, look, honour, answer*, with a different grammatical value from that which they have in the passage.

(p) Rewrite the last six lines in the form of indirect narrative, in prose.

CLASS-ROOM.

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

FOR THIRD AND SECOND CLASS CANDIDATES.

1. What is meant by functional interchange? How and why has it been affected by the loss of inflections?

2. What principles guide us in assigning grade in personification?

3. What parts of speech are mostly of native origin?

4. On what two grounds is the Interjection denied a place among the parts of speech?

5. On what grounds is the Potential Mood denied a place in the list of moods?

6. Illustrate different ways in which Intransitive Verbs may be made Transitive?

7. Explain how *to* came to be regarded as the sign of the infinitive.

8. What are the limitations in deciding what constitutes "good usage"?

9. Classify phrases (1) according to their grammatical value, (2) according to the chief word in them, and give examples of each class.

10. Give, if you can, any rule or principle that will aid in deciding whether to use an adjective or an adverb after such verbs as

look, smell, e.g., "looks sour," "smelt strongly."

11. Give what you consider the two most useful cautions in regard to the error of using *will* for *shall*.

12. Distinguish "if it was," "if it were," and give examples of each correctly used.

13. Explain the origin of the term, "The Queen's English."

14. Distinguish clearly between inflection, derivation, and composition, illustrating by examples formed from *long, father, work*.

15. Explain and give examples of *assimilation, hybrids*.

16. Give a dozen different examples to show from what a variety of sources English has incorporated words.

17. Point out the difference in the use of the underlined words or phrases in

(a) He *may* go if he likes. It *may* rain to-day.

(b) The storming *of* the castle. The singing *of* the children.

(c) He endeavoured *to rise again*. He sank never *to rise again*.

(d) It looks *good*. It looks *well*.

18. Discuss the comparative correctness of such forms as "The house was building," "The house was being built."

19. Show that the same adjective may be used attributively, predicatively, and appositively.

20. Show that the same phrase and the same clause may be used with different grammatical values.

A THOUGHT AWAKENING EXERCISE.

Place a few answers on the blackboard and require the pupils to write out suitable questions to them. The teacher must be sharp and see that the question includes all that is given in the answer.

1. The Dominion of Canada lies north of the United States, and comprises seven Provinces:—Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, and British Columbia and Vancouver Island.

Capital—Ottawa. Three largest cities—Montreal, Quebec, Toronto.

Population—4,324,810.

2. Greece is remarkable for having been the most civilized nation of antiquity; it embraces the northern part of the Balkan Peninsula. It is a hereditary kingdom of which the legislative power is shared by the king with a single chamber of representatives, elected every four years.

3. Lisbon and Oporto. Port wine.

4. The chief industries of Massachusetts are manufacturing, commerce, and the fisheries; of Pennsylvania are mining, manufacturing, agriculture, commerce; of Iowa are agriculture and mining; of Colorado are mining, cattle-raising and agriculture; of Florida are agriculture and the raising of tropical fruits and early vegetables.

5. Victoria is queen of the United Kingdom. Its principal divisions are Great Britain, including England, Scotland and Wales, and Ireland.

6. (a) Sultan; (b) Khedive; (c) Emperor.

7. (a) Brazil; (b) Rio Janeiro.

8. (a) France is southeast of England, and has an area of 204,000 square miles. Its surface is hilly and mountainous in the east; the valleys of the Seine, Loire and Garonne rivers occupy the west.

Agriculture and manufacturing are the chief industries. Paris is the capital.

Switzerland lies between Germany, Austria, Italy and France. The surface is very mountainous; the scenery is the sublimest in Europe. The capital is Berne.

9. (a) The States raising tobacco are Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee, Ohio, Maryland, and Connecticut.

(b) Rice is raised in South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, North Carolina, Mississippi.

(c) Cotton—in Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, Florida, Arkansas, Texas.

(d) Wheat—in Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Wisconsin, California, Indiana, Ohio.

10. The evidence is found in the mounds and other earthworks found throughout the Mississippi Valley and in Ohio; and in the articles found in these mounds; as, imple-

ments of copper, carvings on shell and stone, woven clothes, and ornamental pottery.

11. The characteristics of most of the early settlers from England were simplicity in dress, austerity in laws, intolerance in religion, and energy of action. Some of those

in the Jamestown settlement were of quite a different character; they were idle and lazy.

12. Slavery was introduced into the Jamestown colony in 1619, by a Dutch trading vessel. The first importation consisted of twenty negroes — *Intelligence*.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE

THE *Missionary Review of the World* for May opens with an article on Japan, relating the changes accomplished there during 1889. "Dr. Pierson's Mission Tour of Britain" is continued. The history of missions is treated of in an able paper by Rev. Edward Storrow. Dr. Knox, who was in Brazil during the revolution, has an article on the crisis there. The "Shadowings of Messiah in Heathen Systems" shows profound study of the religions of the world. These with the seven missionary departments present a number of much interest and importance.

Lippincott's story for April is "A Cast for Fortune," by Christian Reid, concerning a young American's adventures in Mexico. The extracts from a manuscript story of Hawthorne's are concluded in this number. We are told something of the life of a Torres Straits Islander, by Alfred C. Haddon. The poetry is by Helen Grace Smith, W. H. Hayne, Frederick Peterson, and others. The number abounds with articles on subjects interesting to literary people, as Hamlet, by Wilson Barrett, Mary Wollstonecroft Shelley, by C. H. Herford.

THE April *Overland* contains, among other interesting short stories, a more than usually good one by Julie M. Lippmann, "In a Dim Religious Light." "The Decadence of Truthfulness," by John Le Conte, is an article worthy of careful perusal. There is also an article on "Skilled Labour Organizations," by A. S. Hallidie. This number of the *Overland* is an excellent one.

THE April number of the *English Illustrated* contains two articles on "Rowing at Cambridge and Oxford" of great interest

and well illustrated. The fifth of the "Cycle of Love Lyrics" is given in this number, and the labours of the Twelve Months with their quaint proverbs are also continued. "Highclerc Castle," another historical article by Elizabeth Balch; a short story, "Morised," and several papers make an exceedingly good issue of this magazine.

THE April *Book Buyer* contains the answers to the questions and the names of those receiving prizes. W. Clark Russell, the sea novelist, is the author whose portrait and life are given in this number. The London and Boston letters are as usual interesting, and the notes on books and authors good.

Education for March contains a valuable article on a "Term's Work in English Literature," by Prof. Henry A. Frink, Amherst College. "The Education and Schools of Norway," by Belle C. Pogue, indicates the awakening of interest in anything belonging to Norway. Two able articles treat of classical education,—"Greek in Secondary Schools," by Mr. Clement, High School, Mito, Japan, and "Classical Instruction in the High School," by Mr. Webster, Providence High School. There is also a timely article on the "Practical Value of a Liberal Education."

THE first issue of the *University Quarterly Review* opens with "Autochthon," by Chas. G. D. Roberts. It is pleasing to note the frequent occurrence of a Canadian poet's name. "The National Sentiment in Canada," by J. G. Bourinot, is a patriotic paper of great interest. "Browning's Sordello," by Prof. Alexander, is a masterly study of the poet's early production. The *Review*

presents a most attractive appearance, and the management are to be congratulated on the number they have presented to the public.

The *London Illustrated News* contains a series of sketches in Formosa, the meeting of the German Emperor and the Prince of Wales with members of the Labour Commission is represented, portraits of noted men, sketches of places of interest and two attractive pictures "The Approach of Spring" and "Eyes Right," make up the illustrations. "Armored of Lyonesse," now running in the paper, is one of the best of Besant's later stories.

Simon Peter: His Life and Times. By Chas. S. Robinson, D.D. (London, Edinburgh and New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.)—The twenty-six sermons composing this volume are arranged in the form of a biographical sketch of the life and times of S. Peter, and are characterized by the same practical wisdom and clear insight into the treasures of Scripture, amply displayed in the many other volumes of sermons already published by Dr. Robinson. Used as an aid in Sunday School work or for private reading much is to be gained from a perusal of these sermons; they give a striking and instructive picture of the noble disciple who is unknown and misunderstood, even by some who think they know the Bible.

Bible Illustrations from the New Hebrides. With notices of the progress of the Mission. By the Rev. John Inglis, D.D. (London, Edinburgh and New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.)—Much difficulty is felt by those responsible for the selection of volumes for Sunday School and other Libraries in obtaining books that will be unobjectionable and at the same time interesting and readable. Dr. Inglis' new book is one of the best for such a purpose, but many others besides those interested in Sunday School libraries will be anxious to read it. The first part of the book is devoted to the consideration of many passages of scripture which were interpreted and illuminated to Dr. Inglis by what he learned among the natives of the New Hebrides. After all, we need the help of the whole world to understand

the Bible. The rest of the book gives some account of the natural history, etc., of the islands, biographical sketches of some of the native Christians, letters written by one of the noblest of them—William—which are of great interest, and an essay in conclusion on the "Claims of the New Hebrides." We in Canada have not forgotten that the martyr missionaries of the New Hebrides Mission were Canadians.

Imago Christi: The Example of Jesus Christ. By the Rev. James Stalker, M.A. (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. Toronto: The Presbyterian News Company.)—The author of this book has already published two volumes which are much esteemed—"The Life of Christ" and "The Life of St. Paul"—but we venture to say that this one will be still more widely read and more greatly esteemed. The plan of it is simple: to draw a picture of the Lord from the Gospels as a Friend, a Student of Scripture, a Teacher, and in numerous other aspects. As Mr. Stalker remarks, no one knows till he begins to search for it how great the wealth of material is for such an undertaking. The charm and simplicity of the style, the earnestness and freshness of thought and expression, and the great helpfulness of the whole book make it a treasure. The chapter on Christ as a Teacher is worth very much to the reader.

The Normal Review System of Writing. By D. H. Farley and W. B. Gunnison. (Boston, New York and Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co.)—Four separate courses of writing and also a book of business forms are included in the above system. Besides the regular course in five numbers we have the Short Course, the Tracing Course, and the Movement Course (for which two tablets of copies are provided). The system is practical, thorough and simple, and the copies are well selected.

"*Open Sesame!*" Edited by Mrs. Bellamy and Mrs. Goodwin. (Boston: Ginn & Co.)—The first volume of a collection of prose and verse representative of English literature, and intended for memorizing, reciting, and for educating the taste of scholars is here published. This volume is adapted

for the use of children from four to ten years old, and others more advanced are to follow. Not a great deal of prose is given, but the book on the whole is an excellent one for the purpose. We observe some remarkable statements about British soldiers on page 185.

Pitt Press Series. An Atlas of Commercial Geography. By John George Bartholemew. (London: C. J. Clay & Sons.)—This is, in every sense of the time-honoured expression, "a new and beautiful" atlas. Besides valuable Introductory Notes by Mr. Hugh Robert Mill (whose work on Commercial Geography we had the pleasure of reviewing some time ago), we find in the volume twenty-seven maps fully illustrating by a most ingenious system of colouring and diagrams nearly everything one can think of. Here is a map coloured to show the diseases peculiar to certain countries (Canada has no colour at all), and here another to show the leading religions, others show the leading races, the degree of self-government, the railway, steamer and postal routes, the density of population, the rainfall and tides, the height of land and depth of sea, the mean annual snow fall, etc., etc. We consider this a most useful atlas.

A First Latin Verse Book. By W. E. P. Pantin, M.A. (London: Macmillan & Co., and New York.)—In the preface the author explains the plan and amply justifies the issue of another book on Latin verse. It is a *bona fide* book for beginners, and the greater part of it has been in actual use for more than a year.

Dr. John Brown and His Sister Isabella. By E. T. McL. (Edinburgh: David Douglas.)—An intimate friend of Dr. John Brown and his family has written a brief memoir of him which she modestly calls "outlines," and has at the request of her friends allowed it to be printed. It will be a great pleasure to all who know anything of that sweet and wise spirit to read so natural, simple and charming a sketch of him and of his sister. Delightful anecdotes enliven the "outlines," which are all too brief.

The Lily Among Thorns: A Study of the Biblical Drama entitled The Song of Songs. By William Elliot Griffis, D.D. \$1.25. (Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)—Many Hebrew students and critics are now strongly of opinion that "The Song of Songs" was not written by King Solomon, and that it is not an allegory but a dramatic story intended to describe and exalt the pure and true affection of a humble maiden and her lover, as contrasted with the sensual love and extravagant life of King Solomon. This view is strongly presented by Dr. Griffis in a series of studies characterized by learning and piety.

William Cullen Bryant. By John Bigelow. "American Men of Letters Series." (Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 1890. \$1.25.—Mr. Bryant's old comrade on the editorial staff of the *Evening Post* has written his biography, and the book is sure of a welcome among the admirers of the poet. There is much to be learned from the career of William Cullen Bryant, the journalist and author, more still from his life as an industrious and thorough worker and a sincere and honest man. Every chapter in the book is interesting and the topics are skilfully chosen. The requirements of space alone prevent us from adding some extracts. We take pleasure in offering our congratulations to the publishers on the mechanical execution of the book.

Dying at the Top; or, The Moral and Spiritual Condition of the Young Men of America. By Joseph Waddell Clokey, D.D. 50c. (Chicago: W. W. Vanarsdale.)—One reads this book with a feeling of horror. Sad indeed is the prospect that it presents of the future of the American nation, and from the facts and statistics referred to it seems that the fears of the author are only too well founded, and his hope that the influence of Christianity may avert the perils one to be most fervently joined in.

A German Reader. By Prof. Edward S. Joynes. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.)—So many good texts of German literature are

now easily accessible that an elementary reader need not be more than an introduction to the study of the language. A sufficient amount of good material is here provided, with a full vocabulary and notes.

Blackie's Geographical Manuals. The British Empire. By W. G. Baker, M.A., Lecturer at the Training College, Cheltenham. (London: Blackie & Son.)—"The Home Countries" is the sub-title of this book, which forms Part I. of the manual entitled "The British Empire." A great amount of information is presented, and the careful descriptions, not only of physical features, but of industries, cities, historic ground, etc., add greatly to the value of the text-book. Numerous illustrations and several maps are given.

Practical Hints for the Teachers of Public Schools. By George Howland, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools. \$1. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—The thirteenth volume of the International Education Series is eminently a practical one, each of the chapters having already been presented to an assembly of teachers and being the outcome of observation and experience. Mr. Howland's treatment of "The School Principal," and "The School Superintendent," and "The Class Recitation," are full of good suggestions. He is a "destructive critic" in regard to "parsing," etc. Some of the general statements upon important subjects seem to be made without sufficient consideration, but on the whole the book is a valuable one for a teacher's reading.

Native Life in South India. By the Rev. Henry Rice, of Madras. (London: The Religious Tract Society.)—As different as possible from the dry information of the encyclopædia, and as interesting as only the words of a sympathetic and well-informed observer can be, this book of description of the social and religious characteristics of the

Hindus may well be considered an authority and a book that all interested in mission work should read. The last three chapters, on "Education," "Evangelistic Work" and "Have Missions Been a Failure?" may be mentioned as of marked general interest.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Philosophy: Its Relation to Life and Education. Inaugural Address by J. Mark Baldwin, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Toronto. (Toronto: The University Press.)

Heath's Modern Language Series. Hoffman's Tales from History. Edited, with notes, by H. S. Beresford-Webb, late Assistant Master at Wellington College. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.)

Pedagogical Primers. No. 1, School Management. (Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.)

Moffatt's German Course. By G. H. Williams, M.A., Assistant Master, Fekstead School. 2s. 6d. (London: Moffatt & Paige.)

Johnson's Memoir of Roger Ascham; and selections from Stanley's Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold of Rugby. With Introduction by James H. Carlisle, President of Wofford College, Spartanburg, S.C. \$1.00. (Syracuse: C. W. Bardeeu.)

The Harvard University Catalogue, 1889-1890.

A Laboratory Manual of Experimental Physics. By Albert L. Arey, C. E. With illustrations. (Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.)

*Heath's Modern Language Series. Goethe's *Sesenheim*.* Edited by Prof. Huss. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.)

Archives of the Dominion of Canada, 1889. Douglas Brymner, Archivist. (Ottawa: The Queen's Printer.)

TRUE GIFTS.

HE gives no gift who gives to me
 Things rich and rare,
 Unless within the gift he give
 Of love some share.

He gives no gift who gives to me
 Silver and gold,
 If but to make his own heart glad ;
 Such gift is cold.

He gives me gifts who, giving such,
 My wants would ease,
 Feeling most pity for my need
 In lacking these.

He gives me gifts most rich and rare
 Who gives to me,
 Out of the riches of his heart,
 True sympathy.

He gives best gifts, who, giving nought
 Of worldly store,
 Gives me his friendship, love and trust—
 I ask no more.

—*Laura Harvey, in Chambers' Journal*

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