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THE CANADA
EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY
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MARCH, 1894.

THE DISCIPLINE OF LIFE AND CHARACTER.

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

PART I.

WHAT is the meaning of man's life on earth? Various answers may be given to this question; but they may generally be resolved into two. From one point of view he is an animal, the highest and noblest species in the animal kingdom indeed, yet only a higher than the other kinds of animals, produced by the same process of evolution which had previously brought forth the lower types: From another point of view, which we hold to be the true one, man is a divinely originated creature, made in the image of God, having an animal nature by means of which he is connected with the world in which he lives and with the lower forms of life over which he has dominion, but also having a spiritual nature by which he is akin to God and capable of fellowship with Him.

Whichever view of man's nature we may adopt, on one point we must needs be of one mind. Man is here, that he may realize the idea of his being, of his nature. If he is merely a finer kind of animal, then his train-

ing must be directed to the development of all the parts of his constitution in the most complete and harmonious manner. If he is a creature moral, spiritual, intelligent, free, immortal, then all these elements must be taken into account in his education, and must have assigned to them a position and influence corresponding with their relation of authority or subordination. The reality of such a constitution of human nature is not here under consideration, and in truth it is hardly necessary to argue the question. The coarse materialism which made mere quantity of pleasure the supreme test of rule of life has almost passed away. There is no school of thought, requiring serious attention, which denies that there are in man higher and lower powers and functions, that certain parts of his nature are manifestly entitled to command, whilst other parts are as clearly intended to be in subjection. We are all agreed that appetite should be governed by reason, and not the reverse.

Human life is represented in two slightly different aspects. According to one view, it is a probation, according to the other it is an education or discipline. If the latter seems the deeper view, the other may sometimes furnish a useful estimate of life. In a certain sense, every hour may be said to be a probation for the hour which follows. We are always before the judgment seat. Within and above there goes forth a perpetual sentence of condemnation, acquittal, approval. But perhaps the representation of a life as a course of education or discipline furnishes us with a more perfect analogy. In probation we think of a present which looks forward to a future of trial. In education we have all the moments linked together in one continuous chain; or rather, we have life considered as one organic whole without division or separation. We are thus taught to regard our whole course on earth as a series of moments producing each other, coming out of each other, without any sharp break in the continuity of our life, whilst our fitness or unfitness for any particular position, occupation, office, or mission, will depend upon all the steps which have led us up to that moment of decision. From this point of view we find no difficulty in understanding that man's future life will be regulated by the same principles as his life on earth.

Even here we may learn that Character is not something to be regarded as almost external to the former of it, something to be contemplated and fashioned as by the hand of an artist; but rather as something to be evolved in life. We are not, of course, condemning self-examination, the value of which is inestimable; but we are pointing out a certain danger which is incurred by those who isolate character as something which has to be manufactured and established, rather than as a quality or combina-

tion of qualities which has to be produced, no doubt in accordance with rules, yet in a certain unconsciousness, and rather as the result of a course of life animated and sustained by pure and lofty aims steadily and earnestly prosecuted for their own sake.

In thinking of this process of self-discipline we are to remember that there are two factors which enter into its composition, the one voluntary, which we may be said to control, the other involuntary which is given to us apart from our own choice. It is of necessity that we should recognize the limitations under which we work out our destiny in life and character. In the first place, then, is our mere nature, our constitution of body and soul, received from our parents, over which we have no control at all in the first beginning although afterwards it may be considerably modified by actions and habit. Next comes the early training of home in which the child is little more than a passive recipient of impressions and influences; but as life progresses, the two factors become mingled, until at last the involuntary becomes more or less subordinated to the voluntary. Throughout the whole of man's life on earth there is always some mingling: liberty can never be said to be absolute; altho' man becomes freer the higher and the purer his life becomes.

In speaking of the personal discipline of life and character, we begin at the point at which men may be said to take their life into their own hands, when each one becomes, comparatively at least, his own master; when, if we believe that we are moral beings at all, we must say that a man has much in his own power, and is able largely to determine what manner of man he is to be.

Between one man and another there are, of course, manifold differences,

even as there are fundamental affinities and resemblances, and these differences will not be neglected or ignored by wise men. They will be kept in view when we have to make choice of the special work to which we intend to set our hand. But here, for the present, we are not thinking of the special and particular, but of the universal, of those characteristics which belong to all men who may be called good. In short, we are here taking up the thought of one who said: "First, be a man." One who can in any tolerable degree realize true manhood will not be likely to fail greatly in any enterprise, unless he is very unwise in his choice.

In what manner, then, shall men undertake this great enterprise of self-discipline or self-formation? We assume that, to a large extent, this is in every man's power. Granting the limitations of freedom already noted, we deny that men are mere creatures of circumstances. We must affirm that, in a certain real sense, men are free; and practically all men are substantially of this opinion, however their theories may seem to contradict it.

Two things, at least, are clear. We may choose our aim. Our leading purpose in life is our own. We may also choose our actions, and actions result in habits which constitute character. Perhaps we may offer here a definition or description of character which we may keep before us throughout our inquiry. The word itself is a Greek word, signifying a stamp; and the character of man is a kind of stamp impressed upon him. Herein we have unity in variety; and perhaps we may say that character consists of habits animated by motive, and good character of good habits animated by a good motive. Readers of Aristotle will remark the correspondence between our results and that great thinker's definition of virtue.

It will be seen, then, that the word character is here used not in the sense of reputation, but to signify the whole of a man's moral and mental disposition, to express the unity of a man's inner life. Now this character is a spiritual reality. It is not a mere expression for a set of qualities which coexist without unity or cohesion. We employ the word to designate a distinct stamp which we recognize as separating one man from another, the clearness or indistinctness of which will make the difference between what we call a man of strong character and a characterless man.

This character enters into everything that we do. It colours all our thoughts and words. It imparts a special form to all our modes of action. You see a man at work; but, if you knew him well, you knew beforehand how he would do it. You would know how he would work and how he would play. You would anticipate his judgments and his actions. It would, therefore, be impossible to exaggerate the importance of this subject; and it would be culpable to think lightly of its formation, whether in our own case, or in the case of those whom we may have it in our power to influence.

But there is one consideration which adds greatly to an estimate of the importance of the subject before us. We cannot prevent the formation of character in ourselves and others: we are, in fact, constantly contributing to its formation in ourselves, constantly influencing others and assisting in moulding their characters. Even the man who hardly believes in character, if there be such a man, is no less engaged in this work than the man who is most thoroughly convinced of its importance and habitually lives and acts under the influence of that conviction.

No less striking than the universality of character are its diversities.

Thus there are strong characters and weak characters, there are characters consistent and inconsistent, which is very nearly another name for the same thing. There are characters which we call high-principled, by which we mean lives which are under the influence of high and noble motives; and there are those which we call unprincipled, by which we mean characters

which are either under the influence of low, ignoble, or vicious motives and principles, or else those which seem to be under the guidance of no special principle at all, except that of unreflecting selfishness. In short, there are characters which we call good and other characters which we call bad.

(To be continued.)

THE TEACHING OF CIVIC DUTY.

BY JAMES BRYCE.

“SO far I have spoken of the instruction. I come now to the other and not less important side of the matter—the means of stimulating interest in public affairs and inspiring the sense of civic duty. Here we may depend, to some extent, upon the natural play of imagination and emotion so soon as the necessary basis of knowledge has been supplied. No rightly constituted mind can help feeling some pride in the constitution of his country and in her greatness, some interest in the vast issues which its representative bodies and executive authorities have to deal with. The more that knowledge can be combined with whatever tends to touch imagination and emotion, the better will the knowledge be remembered and the more powerfully will it work in forming the character. Hence the value of two kinds of reading: historical passages relating to great or striking persons or events, and pieces of poetry. The difficulties that attach to the systematic teaching of history do not attach to the reading of historical matter, whereof the more a boy reads the better. If well written historical narratives, fresh, simple, dramatic, were put into the hands of

boys from ten years onward, given to them not as task books but as books to read for their own pleasure, not only would a good deal of historical knowledge be acquired, but a taste would often be formed which would last on into manhood. Though the boy, however, ought to be tempted to read for his own pleasure much more than could be read in class, a skilful teacher will make a great use of class reading, and will, by his explanations and familiar talk over the book, be able to stimulate the intelligence of the pupil, setting him to think about what he is reading—the habit without which reading profits little to any of us.

“Next, as to poetry, which may do as much to form a patriotic temper as even the records of great deeds in history. For a country with two such histories as England and Scotland have, and for a country with a poetry even more glorious than its history, a people whose long succession of great poets no other people in the ancient or modern world can rival, it is strange that so comparatively little of our best poetry should run in a historical and patriotic channel. No poet has yet given to Britain her sixth

book of the *Aeneid*. There are some plays of Shakespeare, such as *King John* and *King Henry V.*, though these are rather above the interest of boys of thirteen; there are several sonnets of Milton and his contemporaries, not forgetting Andrew Marvell on the death of Charles I., a few stray bits out of Dryden, an ode of Addison's, and another of Gray's; there are passages in Cowper and Scott, a very few noble lyrics of Thomas Campbell, several sonnets of Wordsworth, and some splendid ballads of Tennyson, foremost among them the tremendous poem of 'The Revenge,' together with some beautiful meditative pieces, such as 'Of old sat Freedom on the Heights,' and 'Love thou thy Land.'

"This list contains many gems, but it is, after all, compared with the volume of English poetry, a short list, which even the inclusion of the works of less eminent singers, such as Wolfe's 'Burial of Sir John Moore,' Macaulay's 'Armada,' and a few of Dibdin's songs, would not greatly swell. Short as it is, however, we do not make half the use of it that we ought. Good poetry is the most pervading stimulus which literature can apply to the mind and character of the young: to carry it in memory is a perennial joy, to love it is to have received the best gift education can bestow. So as to poetry and patriotism. When it reads of a great event it dilates with the sense of what that event has wrought. When it sees the spot where some great deed was done it is roused to emulate the spirit of those who did it, and feels like Browning in the famous lines on the evening view of Cape Trafalgar and Gibraltar: 'Here and here did England help me, how can I help England? say!'

"The mention of Trafalgar reminds me of the opinion expressed by an eminent American man of letters that

England has begun to forget her heroes and grow cold in her recollection of past exploits. Forty years ago, he says, men were stirred by the name of Nelson; now, a reference to him meets with no response. Is this so? Are we really ceasing to be patriotic? Has the vaster size of the population made each man feel his share less? or has long continued peace destroyed the interest in warlike prowess? or have the leading minds begun to be merely cosmopolitan? or are we too fully occupied with social changes, too sorely distracted with the strife of labor and capital, to reverence the old ideals? So much at any rate may be said, that in England the knowledge of and interest in the national history is less than in most of the free countries. It is less than in the United States. The Republic has, to be sure, no large store of patriotic poetry, even a smaller store (of indisputable merit) than England has produced since 1776, some few poems of Whittier—the ballad of 'Barbara Frietchie,' perhaps the best—Bryant and Longfellow, with stray pieces from less familiar names. Walt Whitman has taken no hold of the people, and Lowell's Muse, dignified and morally impressive as she is, seldom soars into the region of pure poetry. But the interest of the American people in the events of the Revolutionary War and the Civil War, and even in eminent statesmen, such as Jefferson, Clay, and Webster, is far more generally diffused than any similar feeling in England, where both intelligent patriotism and historical curiosity are almost confined to the small well-educated class. Among the Non-conformists there still lingers a warm though (as it would seem) steadily cooling feeling for the Puritan heroes and divines of the Commonwealth. But with this exception the middle class, scarcely less than the agricultural

peasantry and the city artisan, care for none of these things. This is less true of the smaller nationalities within the British Isles. In Ireland the misfortunes of the country have endeared to the people names like those of Sarsfield, Wolfe Tone, Emmet, and O'Connell. Scotland has been fortunate in having two national heroes who belong to such remote times as to be fit subjects for legend, while in the seventeenth century, she produced, in the Covenanters, another set of striking figures, now, it is to be feared, beginning to be forgotten. Scotland was, moreover, favored a century ago with two great literary artists who, the one by his songs and the other by his prose romances no less than by his poetry, made her history, the history of a small, a poor, and for a long time a rude nation, glow with a light that will last for ages to come. Thus even to-day, Wallace and Bruce, Bothwell Bridge and Culloden, are more vividly present even to the peasant of Scotland than Harold (son of Godwin) or Hampden and Blake, than Agincourt or Fontenoy, or perhaps even Salamanca and the Nile, are to the average Englishman. Scenery no doubt counts for something. In a small country with striking natural features, historical events become more closely associated with the visual impressions of the ordinary citizen. There is no place in England playing the same part in English history as Surling Castle and its neighborhood play in Scotch history. Here I am reminded of Switzerland, a country whose people knew their own history better and love it more intensely than probably any other people in the world know or love theirs. The majestic mountain masses and narrow gorges of the older cantons of Switzerland have not only been one of the main causes in enabling a very small, and once a very obscure people, to conquer in-

dependence from powerful feudal lords and to maintain it ever since, except for one brief interval, in the face of the great military monarchies which surround it, but have also fostered the patriotic spirit of the natives by reminding them daily of the conflicts whereby their freedom was achieved. Like the Psalmist, they can say, 'I will lift up mine eyes unto the hills, whence cometh my aid.' Just as in little Greece and Latium, one moves about with a constant sense of tiny republics on every fortified hilltop and of armies traversing every valley, just as in little Scotland one passes on the railway from Blair Athol to Berwick-on-Tweed eleven famous battlefields, so in little Switzerland the sense of history follows and environs one at almost every step, and pervades the minds of a race specially familiar with their own annals, specially zealous in commemorating by national songs, by the celebration of anniversaries, by the statues of departed heroes, by the preservation of ancient buildings, by historical and antiquarian museums in the cantonal capitals, the deeds of valiant forefathers. These things, coupled with universal military service and the practice of self-government in local and cantonal as well as in Federal affairs, have associated patriotism with the daily exercise of civic functions in a manner unapproached elsewhere. Not otherwise an imaginative or enthusiastic people, the Swiss have not only become penetrated and pervaded by patriotism, but have learned to carry its spirit into the working of their institutions. There are some faults in the working of those institutions, but party spirit is among the least of them, and I doubt whether a system so highly democratic could prosper save in a land where the ordinary citizen has attained so strong a sense of the responsibilities which freedom lays upon him.

"Some years ago, in a lonely mountain valley in the canton of Glarus, I was conversing with a peasant landowner about the Landsgemeinde (popular primary assembly) which regulates the affairs of the canton. After he had given me some details, I asked him whether it was not the fact that all citizens had the right of attending and voting in this assembly. 'It is not so much their Right,' he replied, 'as their Duty.'

"This is the spirit by which free governments live. One would like to see more of it here in London, where Parliamentary and County Council elections often bring little more than half the voters to the polls. One would like to see more of it in the United States, where in many places a large proportion of the voters take no trouble to inform themselves as to the merits of the candidates or the political issues submitted to them, but vote blindly at the bidding of their party organizations.

"This little anecdote of my Swiss friend illustrates what I mean in speaking of patriotism as the basis of the sense of civic duty. If people learn to love their country, if their vision is raised beyond the petty circle of their personal and family interests to appreciate the true width and splendour of national life, as a thing which not only embraces all of us who are now living here and grouped in a great body seeking common ends, but reaches back into the immemorial past and forward into the mysterious future, it elevates the conception of citizenship, it fills the sheath of empty words with a keen-edged sword, it helps men to rise above mere party views and to feel their exercise of voting power to be a solemn trust.

"Love thou thy land with love far brought

From out the storied Past and used
Within the Present, but transfused
Through future time by power of
thought.

"Into these feelings even the poorest citizen may now enter. Our British institutions have been widened to admit him; the practice of using the powers intrusted to him ought to form in him not only knowledge but the sense of duty itself. So, at any rate, we have all hoped, so the more sanguine have predicted. And as this feeling grows under the influence of free institutions, it becomes itself a further means of developing new and possibly better institutions, such as the needs of the time may demand. Let me take an illustration from a question which has been much discussed of late, but still remains in what may be called a fluid condition. The masses of the British people in these isles, and probably to a large extent also the masses of the people in our colonies, are still imperfectly familiar with the idea of a great English-speaking race over the world, and of all which the existence of that race imports. Till we have created more of an imperial spirit—by which I do not mean a spirit of vainglory, or aggression, or defiance—far from it—but a spirit of pride and joy in the extension of our language, our literature, our laws, and our commerce over the vast spaces of the earth and the furthest islands of the sea, with a sense of the splendid opportunities and solemn responsibilities which that extension carries with it—till we and our colonies have more of such an imperial spirit, hardly shall we be able to create the institutions that will ere long be needed if all these scattered segments of the British people are to be held together in one enduring fabric. But if sentiment ripens quickly, and we find ourselves able to create those institutions, they

will themselves develop and foster and strengthen the imperial spirit whereof I have spoken, and make it, as we trust, since it will rest even more upon moral than upon material bonds, a guarantee as well of peace as of freedom among the English-speaking races of the world.

"From these dreams of the future, I return to say a concluding word on the main theme of this address—the political aspects of the teacher's function. The teacher has charge of the future citizen at the time when he is most impressionable; the only time, it may happen, in his life when he is free enough from the pressing cares of daily employment to have leisure for thought about the functions to which the Constitution calls him, or to conceive a wish to understand the true bearing of those functions. On many, probably on most, pupils the teacher's efforts will make no great impression. But those most susceptible to the influence which stimulating teaching may exert will be those likely in the future to stir and guide their fellows, and on their guidance the beliefs and tendencies of their class will mainly depend. The dictum, Property has its duties as well as its rights, once received with surprise and even disgust, has become a commonplace. We now need to realize in the fulness of its application that other maxim, which Mazzini was never tired of enforcing, that Liberty also has its duties as well as its rights, and will begin to be in danger if it forgets them. The tie of duty to the State, though it cannot be as close as that which binds us to family and friends, ought to be just as clearly recognized to be a tie of absolute force.

"It is common to talk of ignorance as the chief peril of democracies. That it is a peril no one denies, and we are all, I hope, agreed that it has become more than ever the duty of the State to insist on a more penetrating and stimulative instruction.

"Democracy has, however, another foe not less pernicious. This is indolence. Indifference to public affairs shows itself not merely in a neglect to study them and fit one's self to give a judicious vote, but in the apathy which does not care to give a vote when the time arrives. It is a serious evil already in some countries, serious in London, very serious in Italy, serious enough in the United States, not indeed at Presidential, but at city and other local elections, for some reformer to have proposed to punish with a fine the citizen who neglects to vote, as in some old Greek city the law proclaimed penalties against the citizen who, in a sedition stood aloof, taking neither one side nor the other. For, unhappily, it is the respectable, well-meaning, easy-going citizen, as well as the merely ignorant citizen, who is apt to be listless. Those who have their private ends to serve, their axes to grind and logs to roll, are not indolent. Private interest spurs them on; and if the so-called 'good citizen' who has no desire or aim except that good government which benefits him no more than everyone else, does not bestir himself, the public funds may become the plunder, and the public interests the sport of unscrupulous adventurers. Of such evils, which have befallen some great communities, there are happily no present signs among ourselves; though it is much to be wished that here in Britain we could secure both at municipal and Parliamentary elections a much heavier vote than is usually cast. More common in all classes is that other kind of indolence which bestows so little thought upon current events and political questions that it does not try to master their real significance, to extend its knowledge, and to base its opinion upon solid grounds. We need, all of us, in all classes and ranks of society, the rich and educated perhaps even more than others, because they are looked

up to for guidance by their poorer or less educated neighbors, to be reminded that as Democracy—into which we have plunged so suddenly that some hardly yet realize what Democracy means—is, of all forms of government, that which needs the largest measure of intelligence and public spirit, so of all democracies ours is that which has been content to surround itself with the fewest checks and safeguards. The venerable Throne remains, and serves to conceal the greatness of the transformation that these twenty-five years have worked. But which among the institutions of the country could withstand any general demand proceeding from the masses of the people, or even delay the accomplishment of any purpose on which they were ardently set, seeing that they possess in the popular

House a weapon whose vote, given however hastily, can effect the most revolutionary change? I do not say this to alarm any timid mind, believing that our British masses are not set upon such changes, and are still disposed to listen to the voices of those whom they respect, to whatever class such persons may belong. The mutual good will of classes is still among the most hopeful features in our political condition. But it is well to remember that it is upon the wisdom, good sense, and self-restraint of the masses of the people that this vast and splendid edifice of British power and prosperity rests, and to feel that everything we can do to bring political knowledge and judgment within their reach is now more than ever called for.”—*The Contemporary Review*.

THE COMMERCE OF THE ARCTIC REGIONS.

BY LIEUT. FREDERICK SCHWATKA.

WHEN the United States joined a great conclave of nations—about a dozen or so—to establish meteorological stations in the polar regions, and it was turned over to the Signal Service weather department that used to issue those jaundiced looking sheets headed “For the benefit of Commerce and Agriculture,” there was the usual “guying” of newspapers as to finding any commerce on agriculture in that region to investigate, either scientifically or otherwise, and as to the propriety in general of sending army officers (Lieutenants Ray and Greeley) to look into such matters so foreign to military art. One paper merely mentioned that a cavalry officer knew how to charge, and so did most people engaged in

commerce, and here was a common ground, etc., etc.

But it is not our place to review all the witticisms called up by the subject at the time, but only that part which shows a generally prevailing idea that the Arctic is as devoid of agriculture and commerce as the moon itself, and that any jokes or jibes founded on such absence of these features could not be better supported for a display of wit.

As to agriculture but little can be said, it is true, but in regard to commerce the Arctic, in proportion to its population, holds no unenviable field, and one that will constantly increase in importance as the world's population becomes denser, and certain fields, now common to the temperate

and polar zones, become depleted in the former.

This commerce can be considered, however, in two phases, the products from the land and those from the sea, and it is the latter alone, manifold greater in importance than the other, to which I refer as undoubtedly increasing in importance as time wears along.

The true meaning of the word "Arctic" in a popular sense is not an easy one to define. While mathematically it is limited by a circle as definite as any line that can be drawn upon the earth's surface, there is a general way of disregarding this in popular parlance and speaking of the Arctic more from climatic conditions than from those imposed by mathematical ones. It does seem a little incongruous at first sight, that Labrador, hundreds of miles below the Arctic circle, with its perpetually ice-laden waters, even so as to render summer navigation difficult and dangerous, should be spoken of as "temperate," when the northern coast of Norway, as far beyond this same line, whose ports are open all winter, should be chillingly spoken of as in the frigid zone. This may make it hard to say just what is the commerce of the Arctic, but I shall leave this for each one to settle for themselves over and beyond my own opinion on the subject, and give all the necessary data for my readers to reach such individual conclusions.

It is evident that the commerce of the polar regions must and does depend largely on its furs, minerals, and fisheries, the latter predominating over the other two many times over; and in discussing these varieties I shall give no dry tabulated statistics, but only treat them from a standpoint which I think will be interesting as well as giving information on a little known subject.

The first thing which occurs to my

mind is the Kroyolite mine in Greenland, at a point on Baffin's Bay called Ivigtut, about 125 miles north of Cape Farewell. This is strictly not in the Arctic, but as the harbour is closed by icebergs and solid floe ice from half to two-thirds of the year, and the very name of Greenland is enough to lower the thermometer to freezing, very few will be warm in their advocacy of its belonging to the temperate zone. About 100 workmen are employed in these mines getting out 10,000 to 15,000 tons, about half of which goes to the mother country, Denmark, and the other half to the United States. The Pennsylvania Salt Manufacturing Company, at Philadelphia, make this product into commercial soda, they having a monopoly from the Danish government for twenty years, beginning in 1886 (when a similar lease had just expired). It is said that a royalty of twenty per cent. is paid the Danish crown for this exclusive use, and it is quite interesting to know that the United States has so large a share in the only Kroyolite mines in the world. The vessels are owned in New York, and cost a third to a half more than other vessels of the same tonnage, as they have to fight ice on the earliest and latest voyages, for these cold weather crafts sometimes make three voyages to Ivigtut, and back in one season, although two is much nearer the average. The hulls have a sheathing of three and a half inches of oak, while the bows are solid wood for a number of feet back, with an extra sheathing of boiler-plate iron over the oak. These vessels are about a half dozen in number, their captains being taken from the Scotch whalers who have seen years of service in the ice.

There are few people indeed who know that there is a regular line of sailing vessels between the United States and Greenland.

North Hudson's bay has been an

unusually rich field for the United States for over a quarter of a century, but it seems as if the sleepy old Hudson Bay Company was waking up recently and would make some efforts to monopolize this district to its own advantage hereafter. It is principally a whaling ground, although considerable trade in furs has been done with the Eskimo. We have eleven years of statistics, with about fifty voyages, that have averaged \$27,420 per voyage, an immense profit for such little 100-tonners as engage in the business. Altogether \$3,000,000 may not be outside of the amount we have been benefited by this little rag end of the Arctic.

The Hudson Bay Company has a steamer running from Hudson's straits to London direct, engaged solely in conveying fresh salmon to the London market, the ice for keeping this fish fresh being picked up anywhere from a convenient iceberg or field of pack-ice. The cargoes realize about \$20,000. Every river and rivulet of this country is swarming with salmon and trout, and this "infant" industry is bound before long to be a full grown man. The Arctic part of Hudson's Bay also furnishes an extensive fishery for porpoises, as high as 200 being caught at a single haul, they being allowed to come into an inlet that is left dry when the tides recede, their outward progress being barred by an ingenious system of trap nets across the narrow entrance.

Recently American vessels have been prospecting the valuable fishing grounds off the barren Arctic shores of Iceland, and fares of fletched halibut averaging \$15,000 to \$20,000 per voyage are becoming common, the catch being easily made and the supply apparently inexhaustible. The Danish government is not so harsh in its rules as those enforced by our Canadian cousins, and generally it is better ground than those occupied on

our banks. Says *The American Naturalist*, over two years ago: "It is evident that within a few years the American off-shore halibut grounds will be so depleted that the fresh halibut fishery on our coasts will be abandoned. We shall then derive our chief supply from the waters of Greenland and Iceland, where several vessels go each year to bring back cargoes of salt 'flitches.' Halibut will come into our market only in a smoked condition, and the species will be as unfamiliar in our fish markets as it is in those of the old world."

While speaking of Iceland I shall briefly refer to a new industry (or old one renewed); I allude to the fact that the Icelandic government have successfully attempted the growth of barley in their barren Arctic colony. It was known to have been successfully cultivated from the year 870 down to the middle of the fifteenth century, and then, for some reason, it was stopped; many of the advocates of the theory that the cold of northern climates has increased within historic times, quoting this as an argument, when an investigation showed that the more profitable cattle raising had only supplanted it. Icelandic barley matures in eighty-nine days, and as this season can be depended upon almost always on that island, it now remains with the Icelanders to avoid the famines which have devastated their land and made people think that it is slowly becoming uninhabitable. This is of considerable indirect importance as assuring food to a country with such valuable fisheries, for it is a good principle of political economy, that if a country has even only one of the great staples demanded by mankind—and certainly the fisheries are included high upon this list—and means of distributing it at reasonable rates, its future success is assured, for it can always depend on a permanent revenue to purchase such staples as

it does not produce, and even the luxuries of life. It is more than probable that the population of Iceland (and this may be said to be true also of other Arctic countries of small population) will increase in the near future instead of decrease, as has been threatened and predicted. Certainly if the Icelanders handle their own fisheries, as they should, and not leave them to the Americans and French (the latter nearly monopolize them), they would have to ask for help to do so, which is another way of expressing immigration.

The iron mines of Finland are mathematically in temperate climes, but the workmen as they blow on the tips of their fingers pronounce it emphatically Arctic in climate. The Norwegian fisheries, wholly within the Arctic, have a much milder winter climate. The latest reports from these Finnish mines show 17,000 workmen employed, being some of the most well-to-do people of that desolate region. It is not our intention to give statistics in tons and number of blast-furnaces, etc., sufficient to say the metal is of the bog iron variety, giving the very best pig iron when smelted.

There is enough known of the industries of Siberia to say that where there is a dollar in them at present, there are a thousand lying dormant and in full sight. The increase during the last fifteen years has fully equalled that of the United States, under the strenuous efforts of Russia to take advantage of such evident resources, but the master stroke of all efforts has been recently made by an Imperial decree ordering a railroad built from the terminus of the present Russian system in the Urals to Vladivostock on the Pacific shores, which, when completed, will be, by about double, the longest railroad in the world. The valuable gold mines on the heads of the tributaries of the

Amoor, and the unusually rich timber region of the Usuri, may not be Arctic exactly, but the swarming fisheries of the north-east, the rich furs of the Arctic coast with Kamchatka and the adjacent islands are all cold weather commerce. All this part of the polar world is steadily on the increase in all the element of civilization. It is from this region whence come the garments Junius Henri Browne describes as seeing at the great fair at Nijni Novgorod and worth \$2,500 to \$3,500 apiece.

The Labrador seal fisheries are essentially Arctic in risk, climatic conditions, and all others too, except being south of the north polar circle. The skins bring about a dollar each, and the animal catch has varied between such wide limits at 50,000 to 500,000 and even over. These are converted into foot-gear for mankind and harness for horses, while it has been asserted that the finer skins, probably the kitten seals, find themselves wrought up into kid gloves for the fairer sex. Twenty-five steamers, and eight to ten times as many sailing vessels, manned by a force of over 10,000 Arctic seamen, find employment here during the "season" of about three months in the summer. The fat is worth about as much more and during fruitful seasons the catch is a mine of wealth to the ports of Newfoundland; one-third going to the catchers.

I might mention the copper mines of Alten in Norway, where singularly enough, the greatest discomfort is in the excessive underground heat from which the workmen suffer. The Russian government announces valuable silver discoveries on the White sea shores; although it is known that more than 150 years ago Saxon workmen mined silver, copper and lead around the White sea.

But of all the resources known there is nothing that can compare

with the great whale fishery that seems, however, to be slowly on the decline. The seat of its greatest operations is in the Arctic ocean just north of Behring's strait, and the revenue from here is about \$1,000,000 per year, and probably from half to as much more from the other Arctic whaling grounds of the world. "Before the war," two cities, New Bedford and Nantucket, existed on this fishery, and during that struggle the Union side drew its ablest seamen from this navy of the north seas to maintain a blockade that was the wonder of the world.

With all we have said we have hardly touched a small fractional part of all that could be reviewed of the land

and sea products of the Arctic, such as the Norwegian fisheries, the Greenland products, the eider-down industry, etc., etc.; and were we to give a tithe of that which is dormant and will be utilized some day, I think it would surprise most of the people as to the possibilities of that constantly condemned country.—*Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine.*

There are fifty-one churches in Great Britain, which bear the name of this excellent man—St. Swithin—who lived in the time of King Egbert, but it is the church in the wonderful old city of London which holds this historic stone.—*Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine.*

EDUCATION VERSUS THE GOLD FEVER.

MISS ESTELLA V. SUTTON, GERMANTOWN, PA.

IN the general review of our country's history attending the recent celebrations, nothing has been the occasion of more self gratulation than our rapid development. Pages of facts and figures have been compiled as reasons for the pride that is within us. We have certainly furnished a unique chapter in the biography of nations.

We are confronted by just enough figures of a different kind, however, to preserve a wholesome humility. All phenomenal growth, be it ever so lusty, involves conditions that require constant watch care. It is just these conditions incident to our rapid progress that furnish the wise heads of the nation such a never ending list of problems to solve. The conditions change so constantly that the same problems have a habit of coming up again and again for fresh solution,

If we did not consider these things, it would seem disheartening that the country which has prided itself in its public school system should find, at the close of the nineteenth century, that popular education was the most serious question yet to be settled. What are we going to do when schools adapted to the needs of the age stand waiting to serve the youth, and they insist on going some other way?

A general moulding of popular opinion seems to be the only remedy. We see protests against the menacing conditions, in our leading magazines, from time to time; but facts show that the mass of the people remains unmoved concerning this most important question of the day.

I fear the unparalleled progress our nation has lately made so fills us with satisfaction that we think educational matters are going along pretty much

as they should. It is true, they respond well if we apply the dollar test. This country of the largest farms, the longest railroads, and the most stupendous enterprises has gone far towards bringing its educational system into proportion. The last decade records remarkable instances of public and private liberality towards that end. But underneath this tendency is a counter-current setting away from the schools and towards commercial life—a current so strong that it is already one of the gravest perils of the age.

A little survey of the country will convince any thoughtful observer that this statement is not exaggerated.

The first one who pushes himself into notice is the irrepressible boy, at once the pride and the anxiety of his national parent. Where do we find him? In offices, shops and counting rooms, on farms, in the street—everywhere but in school, where we should expect to find him. Girls are responding readily to the calls of higher education. There never was an age in which girls were so carefully trained, at so great expense, and with such a gratifying measure of success. But this boy on whose intelligence depends our country's safety has gone off to join the money-making throng and "get rich."

It is a serious comment on American life, and it comes to us not in the language of sentiment but hard facts. Look through the common schools on which we pride ourselves, and you will find boys greatly in the minority. They keep dropping out all along the way to the high school and academy, so that in these departments the masculine element is only more notably lacking.

Then, too, everyone must have noticed, during the last quarter-century, the disproportional increase in the number of girls' seminaries and colleges in comparison with similar

schools for boys. The straw indicates the tendency of the current.

This is not true of intellectual education alone. It is emphasized in Sunday schools, churches, and reform movements, where women and children form a large majority. The woman side of our civilization is important, but it is not the only one. Surely America cannot be satisfied to let her churches go on building up strength in womanhood and losing it in manhood, nor to let her schools be turned into girls' schools and her reform societies into woman's organizations. It is true, the proportions are somewhat different in our colleges. Boys outnumber girls there. But this only speaks a warning word to both sexes instead of redeeming the recreant boys. It sounds very well in our educational reports to say that 23 per cent. of our population are annually under instruction in a school of some kind. But the figures have a different look when we consider that only 6 per cent. of these pupils are taking any secondary course, the other 94 per cent. quitting school in primary or grammar department. Out of every hundred pupils, our colleges are entitled to twenty-two—and only one of these avails himself of the opportunity. And this in a country whose political structure rests on the education of all the people!

These facts mean something. They mean that the number of our voters capable of exercising the rights of citizenship would not make a flattering majority. They mean that our society must have a coarse, hungry, ignorant element that is a menace to good government, and a burden on charity. There is sufficient evidence of this element in the industrial crises through which we are passing—in the disorders that cost the state such immense sums, and afford scenes degraded enough to belong in the Dark Ages. Ignorance can be cowed into

obedience in a despotism, but in America it clamours for the reins of power.

We are not so extreme as to claim that education is the remedy for all evils, social, political, and otherwise. But it is *a* remedy, and intelligence is the medium through which all reforms must act.

There is yet another outcome of the present educational tendency which, if not so apparent as the political one, is none the less serious. I refer to the unequal education of the sexes. This is the most novel sight of the century—women labouring with their intellects and men with their hands. While our young women are comparing courses of study and arranging to continue their education as far as strength and circumstances will allow, their former playfellows (with contempt for all studies that do not bear directly on practical things) are scattered into various departments of commercial life.

These young people come together again in a few years. They really have little in common.

Miss A—is a college graduate with an all-round education. She would be at home in any age, country, or society in which you might place her. She has bright ideas on all subjects, and is bringing her life up to the highest intellectual and moral standards.

She meets Mr. B—who forsook school some ten years ago for business life. He “has a good head on him”—has made a success of life, and by this time is well on the way to independent circumstances. He reads; oh, yes, he reads the daily papers and can talk glibly of current politics and the dramatic hits of the season. But Miss A finds his ignorance amusing and cannot help feeling just a little contempt for the man who stares blankly when she mentions a new book or the latest developments

in oriental research. For all this, there is an attraction about the successful young man, and Cupid is not in the habit of limiting his archery to the range of mental affinity; so Miss A—marries her inferior, with a vague idea that they will grow to think alike after a time.

What is the result in a relationship demanding the most perfect sympathy of interest and aim? These two have been developing in different directions for years. They are now far apart and the legal bond is powerless to make them one. The dew is not off the honeymoon before one or both discover this. Some women make the best of the circumstances by giving up the part of their life which their husbands cannot share, and descending to the masculine level. Others to whom this course would be unendurable, develop a dual life, a true inner one of elevated thoughts and ideals and a more or less artificial outer one in sympathy with their husbands' tastes. The former fall short of the ideal of mutual helpfulness, and the latter sever the bond of conjugal affinity. Is it any wonder we so frequently hear the question, “Why do not more of our girls marry?” If there were no other consequences than this of the commercial tendency, it would be worth the while of parents and young men to consider the school question seriously.

So far as parents are concerned, the duty lies in the home while the boys' ideals are developing. He should be taught that every additional bit of study adds to his ability to make a success of whatever he may attempt. But, more than this, he needs to learn that besides bank accounts and material prosperity, there are desirable things not to be measured by “the golden yard-stick.”

Parents will have to be convinced of these things themselves before we can expect them to influence their

children. With all our educational literature, there are the most mistaken ideas concerning the nature and aim of education as it has been extended in the last half century to satisfy the needs of the new civilization.

It is not the ability to read and write, and perhaps keep accounts in a little office. Neither is it the training, however thorough, for some special line of work that leaves a man out of sympathy with the rest of the world. Gymnasiums and schools for physical culture are emphasizing the fact that it is not the training of the mind alone. An old Latin adage says, "It is for life and not for school that instruction is given." Preparation for life—that is what the new education means; such a development of all the powers as shall prepare for complete living.

We are coming, now-a-days, to agree with the old Greeks that "Culture consists in making of an individual not a soul, not a body, but a *man*, an all-round being who is neither a brain with an appendix of legs and arms nor a physical organism with the brains left out." I wonder how some of our so-called educated young men would look from the Greek standpoint—these calculating machines with just enough of the aforesaid appendix to keep them running; these heads to which the appendix is deemed of so small account that it gives way prematurely, and we hear of a paralytic stroke or heart failure.

In its comprehensive meaning, education only begins during school-life. Schools lay the foundation of knowledge and develop the powers to continue their education by means of books, society, and the practical experiences of life. We should utterly discard the phrase "a finished education." There is no such thing. When the graduate packs his books, takes down his pictures, and prepares to leave his alma mater he has only

well begun his education. The development, as we know it, ends only with the close of life, and how much longer it may continue is a theological surmise.

The part school plays in the process is brief but very important. Some men have, indeed, reached a high degree of culture without teachers; but they were geniuses. Books are our tools and instructors, the master-workmen who give us the foundation of the art we must use through life.

As to the limits of a good school training, that can be determined only by circumstances. A college education is advisable for every one who can avail himself of its privileges. All things considered the college-bred man is more likely to enter life well equipped than any other.

We know this is contrary to the opinion of the "practical man," who deems college graduates useless for the ordinary purposes of life. This individual is very numerous. The advocate of higher culture meets him at every turn.

We dare to think the opinion of our practical friend is not only illogical but opposed to facts. An educational census of the successful people in all departments of life would be a strong argument in favour of higher education.

Education is not the storing of knowledge in brains and strength in limbs. If this were true, the youth could leave the elementary schools with a knowledge of the traditional three R's, and continue the work alone by means of books and the storing process. All this may be done most industriously, and yet the power and usefulness of the mind be increased but little. Athletes are not made by exercise but training.

The object of the college is not, merely to fill the mind but to form it to discipline its powers, broaden the judgment, and elevate the moral tone.

When the graduate leaves school, he has to start four years behind his fellows who have been acquiring practical experience all this while. He may even find his progress slower. The most useful men are not mental acrobats. But he understands the laws of his being, hence can make the best use of himself. He knows the things he has to deal with, can master their details, arrange and classify

them, and eventually rise higher than the untrained man need ever aspire.—*Education.*

(*To be continued.*)

MORAL TRAINING.—It is generally conceded that the highest efficiency of the public school is tested by its results in moral character, and hence that its highest duty is effective moral training.—*E. E. White.*

THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SCOTLAND.

PRESENTATION OF HONORARY FELLOWSHIP TO DR. J. G. FITCH.

AT the Annual Congress of this Institute, held in Edinburgh the 4th and 5th of January, Dr. Ross, Glasgow, said that, in the unfortunate absence, through illness, of Dr. Morrison, the duty devolved upon him of presenting the honorary degree of F.E.I.S. to Dr. J. G. Fitch, H. M. Senior Inspector of English Training Colleges. The Educational Institute had power to grant degrees in education to those who were actually engaged in teaching, and who had attained a certain position in the ranks of the profession. During the last twelve or fourteen years, however, a class of individuals had arisen who had studied educational problems, but who were not themselves teachers. The problems of education were so complicated that the Institute were desirous of attracting and keeping in the profession all those who were taking a deep interest in such matters. They had, therefore, instituted the honorary degree of Fellow, which they had conferred upon a number of most distinguished teachers, such as Professor Laurie, Professor Calderwood, Dr. Bain, and others. In looking round for those to whom they

should present this honour, they felt that they might very properly cross the Scottish border, and include representatives from England. That was done for the first time last year, when they decided to present the honorary degree to Dr. Fitch. He was an educational writer from whose pen had emanated some of the most able, thoughtful, interesting, and effective works on education. They would all agree that this gentleman was one whom the Institute should delight to honour. Dr. Fitch had passed through every rank in the profession. He had laboured to make education scientific at a time when the authorities declared that there was no science of education. He had striven, year after year, to get the subject of education recognized in the Universities; and, chiefly by his means, the Universities of Cambridge and London had established a diploma of education. The time was coming when he had to retire from active service, but he would, no doubt, present to the public a great mass of material which he had gathered together during his long and earnest life. They all wished Dr. Fitch every

prosperity, and had no doubt that his old age would be characterized by activity in educational matters.

The President then presented the diploma to Dr. Fitch.

Dr. Fitch, in reply, said that it was extremely difficult for him to reply to the somewhat too generous remarks of Dr. Ross, and it would be a very ungracious thing for him to criticise his language. Although he had never had any official connection with Scotland, he was glad to be present, and he was specially pleased with their kind welcome, because, as one intimately connected with the administration of the Education Act in England, he had always looked to Scotland for a great deal of valuable guidance and suggestion. They had, in the North, the great advantage of three centuries of honourable tradition in favour of making education a matter of public concern. They had thus to deal with a community which, on the whole, had been trained to a higher sense of the blessings of mental cultivation than was common among Englishmen. In many respects, the Scottish standard of education had thus been higher than the English. In many problems which would come up for solution in the future, Scotland had tried experiments, and obtained results of high value, particularly in regard to the relation between elementary and secondary schools, and in regard to another problem which interested him still more closely—the right relation of the Universities to the professional training of teachers. In those respects, English teachers knew very well that Scotland had got far ahead of them, and that the experience so gathered would be most helpful for the guidance of English statesmen and administrators. He had always held a strong faith in the value of Teachers' associations. There was no other profession whose members were so much isolated from

each other, and who had so much to learn from one another. It had always seemed to him that an association of teachers, joined together for mutual help and conference, and to encourage sympathy among their members, had a very high and important function. He congratulated the Institute particularly on the fact that it included in its ranks teachers of all classes. He was never more struck with the value of that kind of co-operation than when he visited America. The great American Institute there went from city to city holding its conferences, enlisting among its members elementary teachers, secondary and higher teachers, college professors, University authorities, besides the official inspectors and school superintendents, and many of the most distinguished friends of education, who were all animated by a common interest and enthusiasm about the improvement of education. After the introductory meeting, which was intended to increase the sympathy of members for each other, they broke up into several sections, after the manner of the British Association at home, one discussing classical instruction, another infant instruction, and so on all through the various departments of school work. In England they had some very valuable associations, but to a great extent they were sectional, such as the Headmasters' Conference, the Endowed and Middle Class School Associations, the Private Schoolmasters' Association, the Ladies' Association, and the National Union of Teachers. They all worked to a certain extent independently of one another, and that appeared to him a disadvantage. The Teachers' Guild was the only one which sought to combine all ranks of teachers. It was sometimes said that professional unions were very apt to have the character of trades unions. He did not consider that altogether

a reproach, because trades unions had some very honourable and rightful objects in view, which teachers might wisely adopt. In so far as they encouraged the growth of the corporate spirit among the members, brought them into relations of friendliness and mutual service, protected them from unjust legislation, and sought to secure for all the workers a reasonable remuneration for their work, unions were not only valuable but perfectly legitimate, in trades and professions alike. There were, however, some usages in trades unions which it would degrade the members of a liberal profession to adopt. Some of those usages tended to lower the standard of excellence, and to bring the work of the skilled to the level of the unskilled, to discourage the enterprise and effort of the abler men, and even to regard such men as the enemies of their brethren of the craft. There were some trades in which it would seem that the union sought to evade reasonable scrutiny into the thoroughness and efficiency of the labour done; and to aim merely at securing the the maximum of pay for the minimum of work. It would be unworthy of a union representing an honourable profession to follow such precedents. The true test of the worth of such a union was: Are the professional or corporate interests which it seeks to promote identical with the public interests, with the highest interests of the scholars and their parents? If not, the union would be self-condemned. The Scottish Institute sought to elevate the profession of teaching by making its members better known to each other, and enabling them to compare experiences. One of its chief objects would be to keep before the public and before its own members a high and constantly improving ideal of what a good school ought to be and to do. A good school ought not only to be a

place of instruction, but also a place for the formation of character. It had not merely to impart knowledge, but to develop power, to cultivate taste and aspiration, and to make the scholar a good citizen and an intelligent man. Nor was it less necessary that the Institute should form for itself and for others a high and true conception of what the teacher himself should be—one who possessed a character that commanded respect, ample and accurate knowledge of what he had to teach, skill in the art of communicating it, acquaintance with the best thought and work of famous teachers, insight into character, a loving sympathy with the needs of childhood, and a genuine interest in his work. Another great function of a teachers' Institute was to enlarge the boundaries of educational science, and to add to its resources. And if this were to be done, it must be by the same processes as those which were employed in the advancement of any other science, by hard work, by observation and experiment, and by philosophical induction from the results. There was one of the less known minor works of Lord Bacon, the *New Atlantis*, which well deserved to be more generally studied, because it illustrated in a picturesque and striking form the methods by which truth was to be discovered and science advanced. He described an imaginary institution, to be founded for the express purpose of investigating the secrets of nature, and of discovering the laws which regulate the physical world. There were high towers for the observation of the heavens, deep mines for researches into the hidden things of earth, laboratories, instruments of all kinds for trying experiments as to the nature of sound and light, the properties of matter, and the laws of life. And in close connection with this college there was to be an organized body of workers: some to

perform the needful experiments and to make researches, others to record and co-ordinate the results, others to travel abroad and ascertain new facts, and others of higher rank to suggest, and direct new experiments, and, finally, three superior officers, who were to be called "interpreters of nature," and whose business it should be to raise the results of the various discoveries to greater observations, axioms, and aphorisms—in fact, to arrive at large general laws. Now something analogous to this was needed for the full development of a science of education. We required not only the strenuous and patient efforts of the teacher in the laboratory of the school, but the sympathetic onlooker or inspector to estimate and compare the results of work, the traveller who would tell us what was done in other lands, the man of affairs who knew what were the wants and feelings of parents and the public and who viewed the whole problem from outside of the school, and the thinker in his study, who would reveal to teachers the principles of their art and the true theory which underlies all practical rules. No one of these classes of workers could be dispensed with: no one of them could alone be trusted to forecast the future of public education, or to legislate for it. It was by the harmonious co-operation of all these authorities that true progress could be secured. And in the great hierarchy of such authorities room ought always to be found, not only for a Froebel, a Pestalozzi, a David Stow, or an Edward Thring, but also for a statesman like Mr. Forster, a critic like Matthew Arnold, and a philosopher like Herbert Spencer. Whether they considered teaching as an art or as a science, they were only on the threshold of it, looking forward to developments far more important than any hitherto arrived at. If education

was an art, it was a fine art, whose greatest triumphs had yet to come, and if it was a science, it was a progressive one, the principles of which had not yet been fully illustrated or discovered, about which the last word had not been spoken, or the highest truths attained. No teacher should be satisfied to go on in the traditional way, without endeavouring to discover new modes of reaching the minds of the children under his charge. The present was an auspicious moment for those engaged in the profession of teaching. At no previous period of our history had there been, on the part of the public, a keener appreciation of the difference between good teaching and bad, or a greater variety of new and important openings for the activity and enterprise of thoroughly accomplished and earnest teachers. It was an animating prospect, and he envied those who were young, and who might have a share in realizing it. "The harvest truly was plenteous. Pray ye, therefore, the Lord of the harvest, that he may send forth labourers into his harvest." It was because the Educational Institute of Scotland was adding to the number of teachers qualified by skill, self-devotion, and enthusiasm to render priceless service to the community that he was proud of being enrolled among its members, and that he predicted for it a great future of honour and public usefulness.

Professor Laurie said they could not part without expressing their thanks to Dr. Fitch for having taken the opportunity of giving them his views on education in this and other countries. He moved a vote of thanks to him for his address, which they had great pleasure in listening to.—*The Journal of Education.*

THE STATUS OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHING.

BY J. W. REDWAY, MOUNT VERNON, N. Y.

(Continued from last issue.)

WITH respect to other topics that belong to the *Heimatskunde*, or around-home study of geography, the methods of the superficialists are equally unskillful. Ritter, whom the reformer never tires of quoting, if not the father of observational methods in teaching geography, was certainly its champion. His ideas were good, and he was abreast of his times. But since the time of Ritter there has been a wonderful advance in the development of geography. In late years it has become a science far more comprehensive in its scope than any other science, that of astronomy excepted. The writers and lecturers on the pedagogics of geography as a rule, however, do not seem to be aware of this, and the great mass of them fall far behind their model. In other words they are behind the times of fifty years ago. Indeed among the host of writers on the pedagogics of geography I know of but one or two that recognize the recent advances in modern geographic science. The great majority of instructors are content to take the subject as it appears in the text-books of ten years since, basing their instruction on the facts and statements presented in such literature. As a rule, these same text-books are condemned by the reformer—not because they are inexact in statement, but because they are alleged to be faulty in their methods of presentation; judgment is passed not upon the essence, but upon the surface.

As a matter of fact, however, such criticism serves only to show the woeful lack of scholarship on the part of the critic. Text-books of geogra-

phy, especially those of a dozen years ago, are not beyond suspicion so far as accuracy of statement is concerned; indeed they are apt to be very faulty. On the other hand, in methods of presentation they are certainly superior to the average text-book on any other subject. In the February number of the *Review* I copied a few extracts from a recently published text-book. With respect to geographic value, the book possessed little worth, but in spite of its defects it was pedagogically good. The author needed nothing but proper training in the subject to make not only a clever teacher, but one of no little power.

And this brings me to the point that seems to be the chief difficulty. In order to teach geography well the teacher must first educate himself in that subject. A teacher whose stock in trade consists only of a method and a moulding board cannot hope to score brilliant success. Method and system in teaching any subject are certainly necessary to success, but successful methods of teaching can be acquired only when the teacher has a good fundamental knowledge of the subject. To lecture pupil-teachers on the best methods of teaching a subject, the fundamental principles of which they know little or nothing about, is a clear case of charlatany.

Unfortunately a great deal of this same sham work in science teaching is going on year after year. The normal schools are responsible for a great deal of it, and the various teachers' institutes and associations are full of it. It goes on right under the noses of the universities, and these

institutions, I am inclined to think, are not free from censure. Special courses for individual work—about the only ones available to the teacher—are provided in only a few of the universities, and too often the regulations hedged about these are such that the teacher cannot avail himself of them.

In the case of geography, the difficulty is even greater from the fact that not one of our American colleges or universities has a chair or a professorship of geography. The nearest approach is Harvard University, where the Assistant Professor of geology devotes almost his full time to physical geography. The excellent work of Professor Davis in this field fortunately is now well known, and what is still better, it is appreciated. Some of Professor Davis's pupils—notably, Assistant Professor Ralph Tarr of Cornell University—have already taken high rank as writers on geographic subjects.

But, although Harvard University is working alone in this field, it is probable that the supply of young men available for instructors in geographic science exceeds the demand. Moreover, the course at Harvard embraces the physiographic side of geography only; and though this is certainly the more important aspect of the science, yet the geography of commerce should not be ignored.

It is true that a great many teachers belonging to the rank and file of the calling—it is not yet a profession—are doing their utmost to better train themselves in geographic work. It is confessedly an uphill task. There is no technical school, university, or yet a normal school where the teacher can systematically fit himself, or herself, to teach geography in the common schools. Unfortunately, owing to the indifference of boards of education, and the directors of secondary private

institutions, geography is usually considered the least important part of the curriculum of study. It is not the question of *ἄριστον ὄν*, but rather, to a great extent, one of *ἐστῆ*—that most concerns the committees on courses of study. In the German schools the pupil has from four to eight years in geographic work. In the city schools of the United States, he has one or two years of instruction of questionable quality.

There are two channels through which a great improvement in geography teaching may be wrought—the normal schools and the universities. For each one of the former there is needed an instructor who has not only possessed himself of successful experience in teaching, but in addition a thorough training in physiography, cartography, and the geography of commerce. Thus provided, the normal schools might soon effect a quiet, but at the same time a radical revolution in geography teaching. The normal schools, however, are so closely wedded to their antiquated methods that a change of this kind is hardly to be expected of them.

The universities and colleges can also do much in the way of material aid without any revolutionary tactics whatever. It can be effected simply by making the entrance requirement in geography more rigid. The effect of such a policy might not be immediately felt in the elementary grades, but it would cause a lively shaking up in high and preparatory schools.

The scope of the geography of the future will not only be more comprehensive than that of to-day, but it will also differ in character. Physiography, upon the laws of which all the geography of commerce and the whole science of geology are based, is the geography of the future. All the descriptive geography now found in the better class of text-books will be needed. Its quality, moreover, may

be improved. But the geography of commerce, the end to which physiography is a means, will ever be the most practical side of the study. Because of its utilitarian aspect, it has clearly a commanding place among *Brodwissenschaft* sciences. A knowledge of this department of geography is indispensable to the commercial man, to the editor, and to the political economist. The public school pupil has a right to demand a knowledge of it, and the public school teacher ought to be well instructed in its fundamental principles; but alas! there is no source to which the teacher may go where this knowledge may be systematically acquired. Commercial geography belongs properly to the more advanced years of the school course; a knowledge of its principles, moreover, is just as essential to citizenship as a knowledge of any other department of political economy, a part of which it is.

Cartography is another department of geography to which, in the future, attention must be given. It may not be necessary to train every pupil in the science of laying off projections, editing maps, compiling maps, constructing charts, and the like; but there are some pupils who require this instruction, and the teacher should be master of the situation. Moreover, if the map be a truthful one, the physical geography of the region can be read quite as readily from its face as from the printed pages of the text. Cartography is a wonderfully fascinating study, and the untrained student little dreams of the wealth of information that may be drawn from a very ordinary map, if it be truthful.

The modern science of geography is now a sealed book, not only to the teacher, but to the great majority of university students as well. But the rank and file of teachers are beginning to pry at its lids, and this disposition I believe is the wedge that, sooner or

later, will open the way to reformation. Reformation in geography teaching is certainly needed, but it should begin with the reformer. If the teachers who compose the rank and file are once impressed with the fact that they need knowledge rather than a method, they will promptly set about acquiring it. Considering his starvation wages and his very slight hold upon his position, the average school teacher is decidedly a remarkable character. He may be a trifle narrow-minded, but he commonly has greater breadth of character than the people among whom he lives. Once impress him with the fact that he needs development and he will willingly undertake the task himself. The study of any aspect of nature tends to broaden character, but I know of nothing that will so thoroughly put one *en rapport* with the broader intellectual life as the study of physiography—the story that nature has written in the Great Stone Book.—*The Educational Review*.

ALUMINUM.—The latest application of aluminum is to visiting cards, which are described as being thin, flexible, brilliant with a metallic lustre, light, and admitting an impression of the names as distinct as it is made on paper. They can be made at a cost of about a dollar a hundred.—*The School Journal*.

NEW USES FOR ALUMINUM.—This metal is now much used in plated ware and kitchen vessels. In Germany it is used for the metal parts of the equipment of soldiers, on account of its lightness. Its alloy with the rare metal titanium, while still light, is very hard and tough. The Russians have used it for shoes for the horses of the Finnish dragoons and the animals gained perceptibly in speed. It has been used for canoes and some of the parts of bicycles.—*The School Journal*.

THE TEACHER'S EQUIPMENT FOR WORK IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

BY S. THURBER.

PREPARATION for teaching literature implies, first, an acquaintance with the subject. This means that the teacher must have read the English masterpieces, and have formed opinions about them which he can intelligently announce and which he can illustrate with apt quotation. An extensive acquaintance with literature presupposes a generous opportunity of time and a habit of unremitting application. The opportunity of time is duly provided in our school arrangements. Saturdays and vacations are not meant for idleness, but for mental refreshing and enrichment. The habit of unremitting application is the great desideratum.

The literature teacher must be a perpetual reader. It is astonishing with what rapidity one ranges through the great books when one has caught the movement and the impulse. The books you read soon begin to correlate themselves, and you feel an inspiring sense of unity coming to give character to your acquisitions, so that you become conscious of a dawning perception that English literature is an entity of itself, with perfect interdependence of parts. You come to perceive that you can properly read nothing by itself. The habitual reader finds all difficulties diminishing in the light of his increasing knowledge.

The Elizabethan literature, e. g., seems to the beginner to be almost as hard as Latin, though luckily far less dry. A resolute course in Shakespeare soon sweeps away the greatest obstacles to rapid and secure reading, and leaves you free to add author to author. No one has a true right to teach literature who still imagines that

the phrase Elizabethan literature means simply the aggregate of writings produced at a certain time. And no one who has read a good many of the Elizabethan books can dwell in this delusion. Elizabethan literature is not merely literature of a certain period, but literature of a certain character, capable of demarcation from that which went before and from that which came after. Milton shows us the Elizabethan spirit coloured with puritanism; Clarendon shows us the Elizabethan spirit coloured with obsequious loyalty. One cannot read somewhat widely in the literature of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries without perceiving at last the true note of the so-called Elizabethan period; and this perception makes all additional reading easy, and justifies the study of literary history in such works as those of Ten Brink, Taine, Saintsbury and Gosse.

For he who is to teach English literature absolutely must have more than a text-book knowledge of his subject. He must not have filled his mind with other men's opinions. These, some fine day, he may forget, as one does always with matter gathered for examination. The routine teacher of literature wants a book of criticisms. These you may find him giving out as lessons and hearing recited, justifying himself, if he is nevertheless peculiarly bright, by reference to Mr. Harris' dictum about all knowledge being contained in books and the consequent necessity of ever teaching from a book. But not to enter here any further into the subject of methods of teaching, it is to be insisted on that the teacher is profes-

sionally untrained whose knowledge was chiefly got at second hand. The text-book of criticisms and estimates conveys no knowledge. To be able to repeat an utterance about Dryden's services to English prose is not to know anything about Dryden's services to English prose. Only he who has sampled Dryden and the prose of his predecessors and his successors knows what a change in prose style that great poet inaugurated.

The text-book opiate has worked in the pedagogic mind, and genuine enterprise seems asleep. One teacher fancies he must attend some lectures and get new ideas. Another procures a little book and reads a few paragraphs about authors. The lecture and the text-book are simple delusions. The number of persons capable of producing both is now very great. This indirect, or second hand, knowledge of literary works is a sterile possession, incapable of breeding more knowledge. Only he is a fecund teacher who genuinely knows that which he professes to know—that is, who knows directly and without meditation. Only he is possessed of seminal power as a teacher of literature who has read in his own time and with his own eyes and his own understanding. It is possible to hear committed matter repeated and to conduct examinations in memorized dicta of books and lectures. But how can a teacher speak with inspiration and encouragement about a writer, a poem, a play, unless his knowledge is at first hand, and he has himself known the thrill of sympathy?

Pre-eminently the teacher of literature must be a constant reader of the great books. It will not suffice to have read certain masterpieces and then to rest content with that achievement. The teacher must be always reading. His task has no end. If he is to give advice about reading, his own reading must be more than a

memory. He must ever remain in touch with the sources of literary delight.

Of modern criticisms and expositions of the older authors the teacher will know how to make wise and fruitful use when he has to some extent himself commanded the field which they profess to explore. You are prepared to read such a book as Jusserand's *Theatre in England* only when you have read a number of old plays. To read Beljame's essays on the Eighteenth Century in English Literature you have no right at all until you have read well into Dryden, Addison and Pope. The current magazines abound in expository criticisms of the older writers. With these criticisms you have no concern unless you also have come into contact with the older writers whom the modern essayists profess to elucidate. There is a certain amount of really important modern writing devoted to the older literature. It is not right to recommend that good modern critical work be neglected. To see how our acutest contemporaries look upon the venerable names is naturally most interesting. It must be remembered, however, that the time to peruse modern writing about ancient writers is only when one has earned the right to this luxury by reading the ancient writers themselves.

Reading is usually considered a pastime by those accustomed to read only current fiction. Often enough we read merely to beguile the time. But the intending teacher of literature must make his reading a serious study, and devote to it such laborious evenings as the zealous microscopist devotes to his instrument. The reader of a modern novel may read in bed. He who makes his reading a study must put himself in a posture of work. He must be ever ready to lift up great dictionaries and encyclopædias, turn the leaves of many books, search for

related matters, meditate on difficulties. Above all, he must keep his pen going, and must accumulate his own queries, his own commentaries. Whether you keep a cash account or not, you must, as a student of literature, keep a literary diary. To-day you begin *Hudibras*, and find out how to pronounce the name; you have to look up such and such references and allusions; being fresh from *Comus*, you are shocked by this dreadful immorality and irreverence; you consider wherein consists the peculiar metric effect of *Hudibras*; you seek to write down the reason why its movement is so queer as compared with that of *L'Allegro* or that of the *Lady of the Lake*; you note the vulgarity of the diction; you recognize and excerpt passages of wit and wisdom. In this way you treat much that you read—all, in fact, that is of great fame in literary history. By perpetually giving free rein to your curiosity you enlarge your knowledge. Moreover, it is only by satisfying curiosity that the curious habit is to be kept active. Simply to put difficulties by and to read on with indolent acquiescence in vagueness of knowledge is to dally with stupidity as with a friend. Cultivate and nurse the habit of curiosity. Cultivate no less the habit of noting down in writing your queries and your discoveries. To put your doubt or your surmise into English good and clear enough to convey your meaning to another person, though you have no intention of taking a partner in your researches, is to make more precise to yourself the boundaries of your knowledge. Reading that is not pure recreation, but is largely study and comparison, inevitably suggests excursions in many directions. The results of these episodic additions to your main task you must record, or run the risk of losing in the medley of miscellaneous shreds and patches of information with which your baggage

becomes cluttered as you travel on, and which finally becomes non-existent to you for practical purposes because you have no idea where the particular items are to be found. You must read as if you had ultimately to prepare lectures, adorning them with apt quotation. For though you will hardly be likely, as a secondary teacher, to be called upon actually to lecture before public bodies on themes of literature, you will find it comforting to be able to appreciate the deliverances of those who have popular platforms at their command; and, what is much more important, you will find that ability to lecture is none too great a power to be possessed by a teacher who has conceived an ambition to make the recitation in literature a genuine incentive to literary study. Of course you will not read lectures in your classes. Leave that to the professors. But the fulness of mind that would qualify you to write lectures you must use in the "seminary" method, provoking questions and answering them in such ways as to keep curiosity alive.—*The School Review.*

(*To be continued.*)

That man is little to be envied whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warm among the ruins of Iona.—*Dr. Johnson.*

The great power plant at Niagara Falls, which has been in the course of construction for more than three years, was given its first practical test on Thursday, January 25, when the water from the hydraulic canal was admitted to the wheel pit of the Niagara Falls Paper Company's mill, and pouring down the great penstocks set in motion the mammoth turbines and thence passed through the big tunnel out under the city to the river below the city, more than a mile away.—*Electrical World.*

NOTES FOR TEACHERS.

THINGS THAT DON'T COUNT.—Our lives were not intended to be thus! Busy they should be—full of many interests and many obligations, reaching out in many directions, touching many lives. But this breathless rush and crushing load, this unrest and dissatisfaction are no part of what our lives were intended to be. They are the result of filling a large part of our time with things “that don't count.” Think over to-day's work candidly and critically, and see what might profitably have been dispensed with.

So the best and the wisest of our craft need to examine rigidly, pitilessly all their methods and practices. Let us scan the day's work as keenly as if some one else did it. Let us ask ourselves sharply, Why do I do that? Why do I pursue this plan? Where do I waste time and strength? What can I profitably dispense with? What things do I do simply because I have always done them? What things do I do simply because I hear other people are doing them? What reasons could I give for some of my methods and usages if I were asked for my reasons?

After this cross-examination of ourselves we shall feel with the preacher like devoutly praying to be saved from spending “our time and strength, our heart-beats and brain-throbs ‘on things that don't count.’”—*C. G. T., in Intelligence.*

INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION.—The teacher has to do, in reality, primarily with methods, examinations, results, etc., only in so far as these are means to an end, that end being the development of human nature. The teacher is, or should be, first, last, and always, a developer. If he sees no further than methods as

set before him by others; if he assumes that the one method will suit all his pupils equally well; if he believes that there is any one invariably best method, he will become after all but a sort of machine. The educator is concerned with human nature, and must endeavour to study it in as broad a way as possible.

But equally important is the study of the individual, and it is the neglect of this that constitutes perhaps the greatest danger of modern education. We adapt our methods to human nature as we conceive of it, but is the individual as much considered as he was? The tendency of the age is to aggregation of men, to concerted action, to adaptation of methods to the masses, to the average man or boy or girl, while John Smith and Eliza Brown are apt to be regarded as simply units and nothing more. If I were asked to state what I considered the greatest evil threatening education or actually existing in education, if not in our entire civilization to-day, I should reply that in my opinion it was just what I have referred to—not recognizing the individual as such in the masses.

But our schools, like our other institutions, are a reflection of our general state of human progress; and while we have much to be thankful for, I must, with President Eliot, of Harvard University, consider that our school education is still in no small degree a failure, partly because we have not grasped the purpose of education and partly because we do not recognize that men are more than methods after all—that John Smith is more than simply a human unit; that what suits him would not equally well suit Tom Jones.—*Prof. Wesley Mills, in the Popular Science Monthly.*

PUBLIC OPINION.

NERVOUSNESS: THE NATIONAL DISEASE OF AMERICA.—Dr. S. Weir Mitchell considers it proved beyond any dispute that nervousness is the characteristic malady of the American nation, growing upon them in a frightfully accelerated ratio every year, and threatening them with disasters at no distant date which the mind shrinks from contemplating. The number of deaths from this cause is already appalling, and is steadily and rapidly increasing. In some of the busy-centers the tables of mortality show that the proportion of nerve deaths has multiplied more than twenty times in the last forty years, and that now the nerve deaths number more than one-fourth of all the deaths recorded. What is most shocking in these returns, this fearful loss of life occurs mainly among young people of both sexes.

What is the cause of this? Dr. Mitchell is clearly of opinion that the first and most potent cause is the climate. Dr. Mitchell says the operation of climatic conditions in relation to health in this country is utterly mysterious. White races are affected more than colored. The Anglo Saxon Americans are the greatest sufferers from the national disease, and especially those in the higher walks of life. Females are more under the influence of this terrible scourge than males, and town dwellers than country folk. The prevalence of the more serious nervous diseases is shown to be in almost exact proportion to the congestion of population.

Americans are not responsible for the climate. But they are responsible, almost criminally responsible, for aggravations of the effects of the climate by their habits of life, which multiply the number of victims tenfold, and must, in the long run, degrade

and attenuate the race. The two most formidable enemies of the national health are the Dollar Devil and the School Fiend. The former attacks particularly males, the latter females; but both sexes are more or less exposed to the malign influence of both evils. There is a popular goody-goody notion that late hours, fashionable styles of dress, prolonged dancing, and all the other follies of gay society, are the main cause of nervous wreck among women. But the truth is, that the leisure, pleasure-seeking class are comparatively free from nervous disease. The flower of American womanhood is wilted by over culture before it comes fully into bloom. The long hours, the multiplicity of studies, the number of teachers—each striving to get the utmost out of the pupils—the craving rivalry to be well-graded, the all-devouring ambition to command a means of living, the hurried or neglected meals, the want of exercise and the fatal irregularity that it entails, the gnawing worry that murders sleep—it is these, and these alone, that condemn tens of thousands of American women to a life of misery and uselessness, before they have ceased to be children. It is a tremendous saying, from one speaking with authority, that as much domestic unhappiness is caused in America by nervousness among women as by dram-drinking among men. Yet such is Dr. Weir Mitchell's verdict. He holds that every girl ought to be examined as to her nervous temperament when about to go to school, and at frequent intervals afterward; that leisure, exercise and wholesome meals ought to be insisted upon; and that studies ought to be compulsorily diminished, or discontinued altogether, the moment the

well-known signs of over-strain appear. If girls are maintained in normal nervous condition until they are seventeen, they may study almost as hard as they please afterward without imperiling their woman's life. But let there be no mistake about it. Overwork and unnatural worry from eight or nine to seventeen mean ruin and wretchedness from seventeen till early death.

As for the Dollar Devil, its power is manifested in that widespread complaint which physicians call cerebral exhaustion. The American male stands the racket of the schools much better than the female. He takes more exercise, and he has not the troubles of puberty to contend against. But he meets his fate very shortly afterward. He goes to business far too young, and he straightway consumes his vital energy till nothing is left but dust and ashes.—*McClure's Magazine for February*.

SANITARY NEGLIGENCE.—The following table, according to Secretary Carter, of the Maryland Board of Health (as reported by the *Scientific American*), shows the mortality of the following cities:—

	Population.	Death-rate per 1,000.
London.....	5,849,104	19.11
Paris.....	2,424,705	23.61
New York.....	1,801,739	26.47
Berlin.....	1,669,124	20.58
Chicago.....	1,458,000	18.93
Vienna.....	1,435,931	25.07
Philadelphia.....	1,115,562	21.95
Brussels.....	488,188	17.86
Boston.....	487,397	23.88
Baltimore.....	455,427	21.10
Dublin.....	349,594	27.05
New Orleans.....	254,000	28.72
Edinburgh.....	267,000	19.22
Christiania, Norway	156,500	17.75

There is no more accurate gauge of the state of civilization actually attained by cities than their comparative mortality tables. It is the precise

indication of the success of science and of civilization. In a general way, subject to inconsiderable exceptions and modifications, the higher the death-rate the greater the social and governmental sins of selfishness and recklessness, the greater the indifference to the hygienic conditions of life.

The most striking fact that appears in the table is the healthfulness of London as compared with other great cities, Chicago excepted. With a population twice as great as that of Paris, and three times as great as that of New York, her death rate is wonderfully less than that of either. There is no reason except a disgraceful reason why New York allows a death rate of 7.36 higher than that of London.—*Philadelphia Medical News*.

FEWER CHILDREN IN A ROOM.—

It is obvious that the young woman with fifty-six pupils before her is attempting what no mortal can perform. I suppose it is practicable for one young woman to hear the lesson out of one book of all of fifty children before her during the hours of the school session, and keep a certain amount of watch over the children who are not reciting their lessons, providing the grading is almost perfect, and we are going to be satisfied with "uniform" results. But the new teaching is of quite a different character. It requires alertness, vitality, and sympathetic enthusiasm. It is exhausting. *Virtuë* goes out of the teacher at every moment. What is the possible remedy? To double the number of teachers would not be too much; for twenty-five or thirty pupils are quite enough for one teacher to grapple with. The individual requires teaching in these days, and no teaching is good which does not awaken interest in the pupils.—*President Eliot*.

GEOGRAPHY.

ENDURANCE UNDER EXTREME TEMPERATURES.—Some interesting facts have been collected bearing on the extremes of heat and cold supported by white men. In the mountains of Central Asia a well-known traveller endured a temperature of 40 degrees Fahr. below zero, with a piercing north wind, under which the camels and horses perished. Captain Dawson, at Fort Rae (latitude 60 degrees 30 north), registered a cold of 88 degrees below zero in April, 1892. Lieutenant Peary and his wife suffered no great inconvenience from temperatures reaching 58 degrees below zero. Lieutenant Schwatka found 71 degrees below zero, and lived through it in Esquimau fashion, sleeping in igloes, or snow huts, wearing reindeer skins, without underclothing, and eating raw meat and blubber. When M. Buveyrer was in the Tourareg region of Central Africa he experienced a heat of 150 degrees. The range of temperature which can be supported by the white man is thus very great, being certainly over 230 degrees Fahr. Travelers in the arctic regions say the physical effects of cold there are about as follows: 15 degrees above, unpleasantly warm; zero, mild; 10 degrees below, bracing; 20 degrees below, sharp, but not severely cold; 30 degrees below, very cold; 40 degrees below, intensely cold; 60 degrees below, a struggle for life.—*Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine.*

 THE MOTE.

ON one fair autumn morn the sun-beams smote
 Through creviced inlets on my darkened room,
 And in their rays the sudden-silvered mote

Flashed out, and quickly lost itself
 in gloom;

Fit emblem this of all our human
 path;

From dark it passeth into dark again,
 Such fleeting course it is our spirit
 hath,

So pass between two darks the lives
 of men.

Yet as the mote, unseen, floats ever on,
 And yieldeth not its substance into
 nought,

So of our mind, when outward form
 is gone

It loseth not the essence which it
 brought.

And as the mote that floats in view-
 less ways

Shines with a brilliance that is not
 its own,

So does our living soul reflect the rays
 Of one great Life that is to us un-
 known.

And more must come when souls re-
 cross the Dark,

And wake again in splendours
 whence they came;

When life no longer, here, a slender
 spark,

But there, unquenched, beholds the
 central Flame

From whence have come all longings
 for the Truth,

And all desires for fuller life of love,
 For life unbroken--some undying
 youth—

That sees—and needs not to be-
 lieve, or prove.

—From "*The Burdens of Belief, and other
 Poems,*" by the Duke of Argyll, K.G., K.T.

DISCUSSION.

TO THE EDITOR :

DEAR SIR,—There appears to be a rapidly spreading interest in the teaching of French and German conversation in the High Schools, if I may judge by the number of enquiries I have received, usually accompanied by requests for information regarding methods and useful manuals for the teacher.

With your permission, I should like to insert in THE MONTHLY a few words in reply to these enquiries, so that whatever information I am able to give may be found in a form easily accessible to all who care to see it.

The most of what I shall say will apply to French, and only incidentally to German, for which I had rather leave some one else to speak.

We shall begin with pronunciation, which is the very first essential, and yet is so difficult, in French especially, that, for my own part, I can as yet find no end to the learning of it. The best aids are those recently prepared by Passy and Beyer, which now, by a simple system of phonetic symbols, differing not very materially from those given in the H. S. French Grammar, enable the learner to make sure of attaining a fairly correct pronunciation; but only upon one condition, that he really can produce the sounds denoted by each phonetic character—not so simple a matter as most teachers suppose. Every teacher should have the *Elementarbuch des Gesprochenen Französisch*, by Franz Beyer and Paul Passy, published at Göttingen, by Otto Schulze, 1893, and its companion volume, the *Ergänzungsheft* zu Beyer-Passy, by Franz Beyer (same publisher). These books are intended for Germans, but they suit us equally well, and the *Ergänzungsheft* gives the same text in ordinary type, followed by some thirty pages of explanations.

The price of the first is 2½ marks, (bound, 3 marks), and of the second 1 mark (bound 1½ marks). The French given is that of *every day*, and it contains more than one surprise for the foreigner, not only in pronunciation, but also in the use of tenses, and the like. In connection with these books there may be mentioned two others which are cheap and contain valuable information: 1. *Le Français parlé*, by Paul Passy. 3rd ed. Leipzig: Reissland. 1892. 1m. 80 (bound, 2m.). It contains selections of various sorts, with phonetic transcriptions on the opposite page; 2. *Les Sons du Français, leur formation, leur combinaison, leur représentation*. 3rd. ed. 1892. Paris: Firmin-Didot. 1fr. 50.

A very remarkable book is *Les Parlers parisiens*, by Koschwitz. 1893. Paris: H. Welter. 4fr. 50; but it is almost too minute to help the beginner.

I should very much like to see every Modern Languages teacher in Canada a subscriber to the excellent little review, *Le Maître phonétique*, published monthly by M. Paul Passy. Anyone may become a *membre adhérent* of the Association phonétique des professeurs de langues vivantes by sending in his name to M. Passy. The annual fee is sixty cents, and the *Maître Phonétique* is sent free to all members. I shall be happy to send M. Passy the names of all who wish to take this most useful little journal. It contains specimens of German as well as French. For German an excellent little book is *German Pronunciation: Practice and Theory*, by W. Vietor. Leipzig: Reissland. 2m.

For purposes of conversation in the schoolroom (I am speaking of works for the teacher's private use in preparing his lessons), the chief requisite is a good collection of materials,

accompanied by conversational exercises based upon them. The first of these is provided by the *Elementarbuch* already mentioned. Among English books I know none on the whole richer in suggestiveness or fuller of material than the books by Alfred G. Havet, published by Simpkin, Marshall & Co., London. *The Complete French Class-Book* (price 6s. 6d.) is a work of above 400 pages, closely printed, followed by a concise dictionary of nearly 100 pages more. It is really a grammar, with a wonderful amount and variety of practical exercises arranged in a variety of ways, nearly 100 pages of which is a reading book, with conversations based on the extracts. *Le Livre du Maître* (same price) serves as a key to all the various kinds of exercises in the *Class-Book*, and contains much additional material. The 3rd, *French Studies*, is quite independent of the other two, and can be used alone with great profit. It contains 124 conversations, each followed by an "instantaneous exercise" on the same matter, and then a bit of practical French reading on every-day subjects, with a conversation upon this latter. It is eminently practical from beginning to end.

Another good book, more in harmony with new methods, is that called *French Dialogues*, by Joh. Storm (University of Christiania), and adapted to English schools by G. Macdonald. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892. Price 4s. 6d. This one contains nothing but conversational sentences, and gives in foot notes much information nowhere else accessible about what is and is not said now in Paris. Among the small books I ought to mention *Phrases de Tous les Jours*, by Felix Franke. Leipzig: Reisland. 60 pp. om 80, which contains conversations on various topics, with the phonetic transcription on the opposite page. The *Ergonzungsheft*

to this book (same author, publisher and price) is the key in German, which has useful foot-notes, and serves also as a guide to conversational German.

I cannot help saying, in conclusion, that while all these books are of use, they can never prove much more than broken reeds to the teacher who has not lived at all among French people. For him the language is not yet a living possession, however much he may learn by rote from books; and he is really not competent to teach what must be a living language if it is worth meddling with at all. In the meantime something can be done while he is preparing the way for his visit to a French community, and the books above mentioned are the best aids I know.

I shall be very happy to submit all these works, as well as specimen numbers of the *Maître Phonétique*, to the inspection of the teachers who may attend the Easter meeting of the Modern Languages Association.

Yours Truly,

JOHN HOME CAMERON.

University College.

TO THE EDITOR :

MY DEAR SIR,—

I send the following extract from the "Times" in the hope that it may lead to discussion, if not in your valuable columns, at least in the classes of some of your readers.

Yours respectfully,

IMPERIALIST.

Extract from the *Times*, Feb. 13, 1894.

To Englishmen of sluggish imagination no more wholesome discipline can be commended than an occasional glance at the proceedings of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. No more picturesque tribunal exists upon this earth than this assemblage of staid lawyers met together in a dull room in Whitehall to tender their

“humble advice” to Her Majesty. Perhaps the fact is best realized at a distance, for, although the Court has its own quaint observances, it must be owned that the sittings are not particularly impressive to the eye. But the most casual acquaintance with the history of the Privy Council fills the mind with memories dating back to the dawn of our national story, whilst the records of its routine business comprise minute discussions on the religions and the superstitions, the laws, institutions, domestic habits, manners, customs, and antiquities of scores of different races and tribes, with civilizations ranging from primitive savagery to complicated systems elaborated by generations of saints and sages and sanctioned by immemorial time. The evolution which has resulted in making this particular development of the council of Plantagenet kings the supreme arbiter of questions of canon law such as Popes and Synods would have disputed about in the days of Becket; of questions of the old French laws transplanted across the Atlantic under the

proudest of the Bourbons; of the Roman law which the Dutch took with them to the Cape; of the most venerable and sacred of the holy books of the Hindus; and of the teachings of the Prophet to scores of millions of the devout adherents of Brahmanism and of Islam is, indeed, a process to wonder at. The Judicial Committee is the legal heart and head of the British Empire. The Queen in council is the Cæsar to whom all the subjects of that Empire, from the hill tribes of the Himalayas to the Red Indians beyond the Rocky Mountains, from mighty potentates contending for the succession to a principality to poor fishermen claiming the right to gather bait, may appeal. Men come to her from the uttermost ends of the earth for justice, and tell the innermost history of their private lives before her appointed tribunal.

Hyde Park, London, contains 400 acres; Central Park, New York, 862 acres; Phoenix Park, Dublin, 1,760 acres.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

The decision of the Senate of the University of Toronto, to adhere for another year to the plan of having examinations for honours and scholarships at matriculation at various centres, does not commend itself to the judgment of those who are most familiar with the conduct of examinations. It seems to us, taking all things into consideration, that it would be cheaper to pay the railway fares of such candidates to Toronto than to pay all the expenses involved in sending competent examiners to all the centres required to ac-

commodate the candidates all over the country. We feel certain that the decision arrived at will not give satisfaction either to the candidates or to those interested in them.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

For months past a keen discussion has been carried on in the School Board of London, England, on this subject. Great attention was given to the discussion in the city and over England.

Many members of the Board held that the parents of the children attending these schools had the right to be assured that the teachers of their children were men and women who held not only not anti-Christian or non-Christian views but that they held Christian principles and views, or else that they should not be teachers.

The result of the controversy is given in the following resolution, passed, according to *School Guardian*, by a large majority of the Board. For the information and instruction of the teachers of the city of London, the resolution was put in the form of a circular and sent to each member of the staff.

"In forwarding to you a copy of the rules of the Board having reference to Bible instruction and religious observances, I am directed to ask your thoughtful consideration of the following suggestions, in the hope that they may be useful for your guidance and direction: The Bible is your text-book, from which it has always been the desire of the Board that you should give such explanations in the Christian religion and morality as are suited to the capacities of children of various ages attending the schools of the Board. Such explanations and instruction should, of course, be based on the conception of human nature which the Bible presents—viz, that a man is a responsible being with distinct and definite duties to God, to himself, and to his fellow-man. Understanding child nature as you do, you will of course, adapt your teaching to the various motives by which children are influenced; the object and purpose of all education being the formation of habits, mental, moral, and religious. And it is important to this end that the character of the children committed to their care should be studied individually, so as to correct the defects and en-

courage and stimulate the good points in each. The lessons adapted to an infants' school are not the same as those which are suitable to children of a more advanced age, and there are subjects essentially connected with the well-being and happiness of the individual on which the greatest caution has to be observed; but instruction in morality should not shirk the consideration of the relations of man to all the conditions of his being, and the Bible lesson affords you opportunities of so discussing these questions with the elder children as to impress them with the paramount importance of being pure, sincere, and upright in their life. The Board have never intended their teachers to diverge from the presentation of the Christian religion which is revealed in the Bible. While following the syllabus which is sent to you yearly, you are at liberty to refer to other parts of the Bible by which the principles of the Christian religion may be elucidated and enforced. But in the course of the lessons, as opportunity occurs, you will impress upon the children the relation in which they stand to God the Father as their Creator, to God the Son as their Redeemer, and to God the Holy Ghost as their Sanctifier. The Board cannot approve of any teaching which denies either the Divine or the human nature of the Lord Jesus Christ, or which leaves on the minds of the children any other impression than that they are bound to trust and serve Him as their God and Lord. A question having been raised as to whether, under the head of Religious Observances, the Board permit the use of hymns, concluding with the Doxology or prayers other than the Lord's Prayer, I am directed to inform you that no restriction is placed upon your liberty of choice in this respect. These suggestions are made by the Board in no spirit of distrust

or want of confidence in your good intentions to make the Bible lesson as useful as possible, but in order to avoid any misconception which may exist as to the meaning and intention of the Board's rules with reference to a portion of their work upon which they lay the greatest stress. If there are those among you who cannot conscientiously impart Bible instruction in this spirit, means will be taken, without prejudice to their position under the Board, to release them from the duty of giving the Bible lesson."

CONVENTION.

On Tuesday, Easter week, the Convention of the Ontario Educational Association will be held. The Convention will continue for three days. The educators of this Province, we feel sure, will avail themselves of this opportunity of seeing each other and forwarding the best interests of education.

THE REPORT.

We have already referred to the appointment of duties of the Committee of Ten. The report of this committee is now published and includes also the reports of each of the ten conferences which the original called to its aid in the performance of its duties. The report is a pamphlet of more than 200 pages of closely printed matter.

We venture the assertion that this report will produce a most important effect on the studies of schools, both elementary and secondary, in all English-speaking countries.

There are so many of the numerous recommendations of the committee with which we cordially agree, that we have space to refer only to those to which we take exception.

We do not agree fully with the recommendation made by the Conference on Mathematics to give less time to

arithmetic and more to algebra, even in the public schools. We acknowledge that not long since too much attention was given to arithmetic and problems set for solution which required the help of algebraic symbols. But that time is past and we should take care not to go to the other extreme and have too little attention given to the study of arithmetic. The teacher has, in arithmetic, a branch of study affording a training for practical and intellectual purposes which no other branch can supply. All will agree that the criticism on the teaching of geography is correct, either less time or better results should be secured in this branch of study. We say let us have better results, our geography should take more and more the character of physiography, and history and geography should be taught together. But when the Latin Conference suggests that the study of Latin should be begun three to five years sooner than it is now begun, and when the Greek Conference desires the same for Greek, and the Modern Language Conference desires the same for French and German, can the reader help remembering that these recommendations come from men the majority of whom are specialists in these branches?

The Conference on History recommends that the systematic study of this subject be begun at ten, mythology taking a large part of the first two years, and that American History (or English in our case) be relegated to the last year of the High School course.

Such a recommendation reveals the unbalanced specialist. Equally unsound is the advice to begin the study of chemistry before that of physics. We close as we began, by expressing our high appreciation of the general report and the valuable work done by the conferences. The pamphlet will serve as a book of reference for many days to come.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

MAGAZINES.

The March issue of the *Atlantic* is remarkable for its rich variety in subjects, the themes varying from "The Saphic Secret," by Maurice Thompson, to "Is the Musical Idea Masculine?" by Edith Brower. An article of special interest to educators is "Reform of Secondary Education in the United States." Mrs. Wiggin has a short New England story entitled "The Fore-Room Rug." There is also a poem by Archibald Lampman "The City of the End of Things."

The *Popular Science Monthly* for February contains two articles on the late Prof. Tyndall—one an account of his lecturing tour in the United States, the other an estimate of the man and his work, in the Editor's Table. Prof. Windle has an interesting description of the laboratory of Johns Hopkins University in Jamaica. "Where Bananas Grow" is an interesting article by James E. Humphrey.

Scribner's Magazine for March devotes a considerable part of its space to fiction. William Henry Bishop contributes the first installment of a four-part story "A Pound of Cure." "John March, Southerner," by Mr. Cable, is continued, and Mr. Hibbard gives one of his short, delightfully written stories, "The Summer Intimacy." One of the most important and enjoyable departments of this magazine is "The Point of View," which is rarely the last to be read if it is the last in position.

Those who had the pleasure of reading "The House of the Wolf" will not be surprised at the success of the new writer, Stanly Weygman. "Under the Red Robe," one of his stories, is at present running in the *Illustrated London News*. There is a

picture and a sketch of the late R. M. Ballantyne. "Sketches at a Pig-Sticking Hupt in Morocco" is an enjoyable page of funny pictures.

The issue of March 3rd, *Littell's Living Age*, is particularly rich in poetry. "Old Edinburgh Inns" is an enjoyable article from the *Gentleman's Magazine*. There is also among articles to be specially mentioned "The Letters of Sir Walter Scott, Blackwood's."

It would be hard to find a serial equal in interest and attractiveness to "Perlycross," running at present in *Macmillan's Magazine*. It is by that genial writer, R. D. Blackmore. "An Oxford Idyll" is an amusing short story with another view of the American girl than that usually presented. Other important articles are "Lords and Commons" and "The Story of the Inscriptions."

Clark Russell has a short story entitled "A Tale of a Plot" in the *Youth's Companion* of March 8th. There is also an excellent Indian story "Wah-Pe-Ta, the Cripple." One is so used to agreeing entirely with the able editors of this most excellent paper for young people that it is quite a shock to find that we cannot see any desirability in sub-titles introduced scattered among the paragraphs of a story.

"Helen Keller," the blind and deaf phenomenon, is the subject of an article in the February number of *Education*. There is an able paper on "Beowulf," by Fanny A. Comstock. The usual departments are well conducted and helpful.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

We have received from Messrs. Macmillan & Co. (London and New York), through the Copp, Clark Co., Toronto, another volume of the excellent English Classics Series, and a beautiful edition of the Seventh Book of Thucydides, edited by Mr. E. C. Marchant, M.A., of Peterhouse. The former volume is "The Satires of Dryden," which is edited with memoir, introduction and notes by J. Churton Collins. We need hardly say that the editor's task has been discharged in a thoroughly satisfactory manner. The volume is not excelled by any other of this series.

Mr. Marchant's edition of Thucydides' seventh book is a model of what such a book ought to be. The introduction and notes are just what is needed, and the indexes, etc., add much to the value of the book.

Another book from the same publisher is an abridged edition of Charles Kingsley's "Westward Ho!" intended for supplementary reading in schools. Few books are better for this purpose. This is a capital edition, beautifully printed and bound, and sufficiently annotated.

Messrs. Copp, Clark & Co. have added to their Classical Text-Book Series, "Cæsar's Bellum Gallicum," Books V., VI. Edited by Mr. John Henderson, M.A., and Mr. E. W. Hagarty, B.A. This is an exceedingly complete and convenient edition, containing a "Life of Cæsar" and notes on military matters, etc., a synopsis of Books I.-IV., a number of carefully prepared exercises, subject headings, full notes on the text, vocabularies, maps, etc. It is intended, of course, for the use of classes in our High Schools, and will be found very suitable for this purpose.

The American Humane Education Society (Boston) has issued a sequel to the well-known tale, "Black Beauty."

It is entitled "The Strike at Shane's" (price, ten cents), and is an interesting story.

"Burg Neideck," by Riehl, has just been issued by Messrs. Ginn & Co., Boston. The editor, Prof. Wilson of Iowa University, has added a good introduction and notes.

We notice with pleasure that Part 27 of the illustrated edition of "Green's Short History of the English People" has appeared from the press of Messrs. Macmillan & Co. Portraits of Admirals Blake, Tromp and De Ruyter and of Cardinal Richelieu, also a number of satirical Dutch prints depicting "Cromwell's Expulsion of the Parliament," etc., are among the illustrations.

A good elementary text-book on botany has just been published by Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co. (Boston) in the Science Text-Book Series. It is entitled "Guide to the Study of Plants," and is the work of Professor Spalding of Michigan University. The method of the book is natural and interesting.

Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co. have also published a new edition of "Scheffel's Ekkehard," abridged for the use of schools and colleges. The editor is Prof. Wenckebach of Wellesley.

An interesting French Reader has been prepared from the works of Alphonse Daudet, by Mr. Freeborn of the Boston Latin School (Boston: Ginn & Co.)

Messrs. Silver, Burdett & Co. (Boston) have sent us a copy of a "First Book in Algebra," by Mr. Boyden of the Boston Normal School. The work ends with quadratic equations, and is intended for the use of pupils in American Grammar Schools. Great attention is given to elementary operations. ♣

SCHOOL WORK.

EXAMINATION PAPERS

QUESTIONS ON CÆSAR. BOOK IV.

CHAPTERS 19-24.

BY H. J. STRANG, B.A.

I. Translate into good idiomatic English Chapter 19, *Quod ubi*——rescidit.

1. Parse *quod, satis, profectum*.
2. Conjugate *ulcisceretur, consumptis, rescidit*.
3. *Deceur et octo*. What other ways of expressing 18 in Latin?
4. *Ubi*. If *quum* were used instead, what change would it make in *comperit*?
5. *Comperit*. How does this verb differ from *aperio* in inflection?

II. Translate Chapter 21, *Interim consilio*——renuntiat.

1. Construction of *domum, quem, magni, quantum, mari*.
2. *Polliceantur obsides dare*. What peculiarity in the syntax?
3. Account for the mood of *possit, nuntiet, auderet, and perspexisset*, respectively.
4. *Auderet*. Conjugate. What kind of verb? Name and conjugate others of the same kind.
5. *Revertitur*. What peculiarity in the inflection of this verb?

III. Translate :

1. *Huc aciedebant octodecim naves quae vento tenebantur quominus in eundem portum pervenire possent.*
2. *Adeo montibus augustis mare continebatur ut ex locis superioribus in litus telum adjiçi posset.*
3. *Militibus autem simul et de navibus desiliendum et in fluctibus erat consistendum.*

IV. 1. What reason does Cæsar give for invading Britain?

2. Express the points of the compass in the accusative case in Latin.

3. What compounds of *eo* are transitive?

4. Exemplify three ways in which Latin nouns may be formed from supines.

5. Compare *novissimis, maturae, maxime, ulterior*.

6. Conjugate *attigit, consuerunt, contractis, oppressis*.

7. What construction follows *libero, imperitus, idoneus, utor, praeter*?

8. When is *dum* followed by the indicative and when by the subjunctive?

9. Give the Latin names for the usual arms of a legionary soldier.

10. If a relative refers to antecedents of different genders, give rules for its gender.

V. Give idiomatic Latin for :

1. The arrival of our legions will inspire fear in this tribe.

2. This will be of great advantage to our men.

3. They returned to the camp after breaking down the bridge, and setting fire to all the boats.

4. For these reasons we have not been able to ascertain what tribes inhabit this island.

5. We shall have to send scouts into their territories to ascertain all these facts before we set out for Britain.

6. To embark, to disembark, to weigh anchor, to send messengers in all directions, to show them what he wanted done, to return home as soon as possible.

EXERCISES IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY H. J. STRANG, B.A.

For Primary and Junior Leaving Candidates

I. Tell the grammatical value and relation of the phrase "to do that" in the following sentences :

1 It will take some time to do that.

The best time to do that is in the morning.

3 His object was evidently to do that.

4 To do that we shall require a large room.

5 I fear you will not be able to do that.

- 6 He even offered to do that.
- 7 The proposal to do that came from him.
- 8 You were not sent here to do that.
- 9 He appeared to do that.
- 10 I don't care to do that.
- 11 They seemed determined to do that.
- 12 I shall make it a point to do that.
- 13 I have known them to do that.
- 14 We did not agree to do that.
- 15 He may take it into his head to do that.
- 16 They have often been seen to do that.
- 17 I have no alternative but to do that.
- 18 He will be certain to do that.
- 19 He knows better than to do that.
- 20 It would be as easy to make another as to do that.

II. Write sentences using the verbs *turn*, *collect*, *appear*, *grow*, *prove*, first as transitive verbs, then as intransitive verbs.

III. Write sentences using the verbs *appear*, *grow*, *prove*, first as verbs of complete predication, then of verbs of incomplete predication.

IV. Mention three ways in which verbs that are usually intransitive may be made transitive, and group the following examples according to your classification: He died a glorious death. He marched his men into the town. They soon overran the town. He runs the engine in the factory. They agreed to run the race over again. A little boy was run over by a sleigh. I laughed him out of it. You will only be laughed at.

Passages for analysis and parsing:

1. As one that museth where broad sunshine
laves
The lawn by some cathedral, thro' the door
Hearing the holy organ rolling waves
Of sound on roof and floor

Within; and anthem sung, is charmed and
tied
To where he stands,—so stood I, when
that flow
Of music left the lips of her that died
To save her father's vow;

The daughter of the warrior Gileadite,
A maiden pure; as when she went along
From Mizpah's towered gate with welcome
light,
With timbrel and with song.

2. So shape chased shape as swift as, when
to land
Bluster the winds and tides the self-same
way,
Crisp foam-flakes send along the level sand,
Torn from the fringe of spray.

I started once, or seemed to start in pain,
Resolved on noble things, and strove to
speak,
As when a great thought strikes along the
brain,
And flushes all the cheek.

—Tennyson's "Dream of Fair Women."

"THE LADY OF THE LAKE."

1. What relation has the introduction of each Canto to the remaining portions?
2. Give the "argument" of the poem.
3. Sketch the plot of the poem.
4. In what metre is the main body of the poem written, and with what variations? What is the motive of these variations?
5. Quote a passage showing Scott's power in description of still life, and also of action.
6. By what devices does Scott heighten the description of a clansman's fealty to his chief?
7. Quote a description of the harper, and also of the character of Roderick Dhu.
8. On the principle that the function of poetry is to give pleasure, how does Scott reconcile us to the defeat and death of the brave Roderick?
9. By what means does Scott, in Canto II., stanza xxxi., heighten the description of Ellen's "desperate" situation?
10. What rhetorical principles are exemplified in the description of the combat? Give a full answer.
11. Give a rhetorical analysis of stanzas xi., and xii., Canto I.
12. Give the meaning of the following (Canto I., introduction): *witch-elm*, *envious*, *according pause*, *crested*; stanza i., *danced*; stanza ii., *tainted gale*; stanza iv., *shrewdly*, *burst*; stanza vii., *embossed*, *strained*, *quarry*; stanza x., *humbled crest*; stanza xiii., *claims to be*; stanza xv., *churchman*, *bower*; stanza xviii., *sportive toil*, *airy*; stanza xx., *silent horn*; stanza xxi., *forward*;

stanza xxvi., native pillars; stanza xxviii., took the word; stanza xxxi., dewing; stanza xxxiii., his soul he interchanged.

HIGH SCHOOL READER (Page 246).

TO HELEN.

1. What is the aim of the poet in this poem?

2. Point out instances of the quality of style called the picturesque, and show how this quality is ancillary to the effect produced by the periphrasis in lines 2-4.

3. For what are lines 2-4 a periphrasis? What is the effect of the periphrasis?

NOTE.—“A figure of language is a distinguished mode of speech which expresses a thought, mostly *with some additional idea*, and *always* more to the purpose of a writer or speaker than would be ordinary language and which *naturally results from a state of mind suited to itself.*”

4. What is the effect of the repetition in line 5?

5. For what is line 6 a periphrasis? Show the superiority of the periphrasis to ordinary expression.

6. What are the “darker, sadder duties of the wife”?

7. What relation have lines 9-12 to any preceding word or phrase?

8. How is clearness promoted in lines 8-12, and what other end does the amplification subserve?

9. Point out and explain the figures of speech in lines 11 and 12.

10. What use is made of contrast? Give a specific answer.

11. Suggest any improvement in line 6 by which the contrast would be made sharper.

12. What is the meaning of “light” in line 7? and say whether “darker, sadder” in line 8 overlap each other; or is sadder an unfigured explanation of “darker”?

13. Comment on “not unwelcome” (line 13), this (line 10) and these (line 12).

14. Explain the meaning of lines 15, 16.

SYNONYMS (Selected).

TIRED, FATIGUED, JADED, WEARIED.—A tired man is “fatigued” when he simply feels *the need of rest* from labour or exertion (physical or mental); he is “jaded” when this feeling manifests itself in *inability to continue* under exertion at the same strain, or shows its presence by *deteriorated work*. In “weariness” there is *distaste* implied—an inclination to cease from the exertion altogether or to give it over in despair.

ILLUSTRATE, EXEMPLIFY.—“Illustrate” is the general name for *throwing light* upon a subject, and includes analogies, parallel cases and the like. “Exemplify” is to throw light upon *by adducing a specimen or sample*.

HEAR, LISTEN, HEARKEN, HARK, ATTEND.—“Listening” is a passive, “hearkening” an active attitude. We “listen” in order to *take in*; we “hearken” with a view to *acting or obeying*. Thus we say, “The congregation *listened* for a whole hour with the utmost attention;” but, “the preacher warned, threatened and exhorted, but no one *hearkened*.” “Hark” is simply a *call* to hear. To “attend” is, properly, to *fix or concentrate the mind* upon a thing, and is opposed to *listlessness*. When applied to hearing, it means to *try to grasp the meaning* of the words heard.

N. ROBERTSON.

Richmond Hill, Feb. 10, '94

First, I thought, almost despairing,
This must crush my spirit now;
Yet I bore it, and am bearing—
Only do not ask me how.

Kindness draws out the better part of every nature—disarming resistance, dissipating angry passions, and melting the hardest heart.—*Samuel Smiles*.

Three-fourths of the whole mischief in women's lives arises from their accepting themselves from the rules of training considered needful for men.—*Florence Nightingale*.