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ART TEACHING

FROM A RELIGIOUS POINT OF VIEW.\*

By the REV. T. W. FYLES, (C.M., Dep. of Science and Art,) Rector  
of Nelsonville and Principal of the Missisquoi High School.

(Continued from p. 189.)

THE ROMANESQUE.

Out of this grew the *Lombard* and the *Norman*. The noblest structure remaining of the *Byzantine* or *Romanesque* period has unhappily ceased to be a Christian place of worship. It is the Mosque of St. Sophia at Constantinople. This stately building was completed by the Emperor Justinian in the 6th Century.

Byzantine Art is thoroughly symbolical. It laid hold of Roman ornament, and made it redolent of Christianity. The unmeaning wave-scroll and acanthus-leaves were changed into emblems of Glory, Eternity, Purity and Triumph. Aureoles, Circles, Lilies, and Writhing Serpents (*Runic-knots*) grew out of the foliations of Roman Art, and made them entirely suggestive. I have alluded to the cross, with its nimbi: this form was that adopted in early Byzantine architecture—a cruciform structure, with a central dome, and smaller domes at the extremities. Such is St. Mark's at Venice.

I will now ask you to carry your thoughts to the island of Great

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\* A paper read before the Teachers' Convention at St. John's, P.Q., October 26th, 1881.

Britain. The first church in Britain is said to have been built at Glastonbury, by Joseph of Arimathea, who with forty companions, (so the story runs) emigrated in the troublous times of Palestine, to what was then the new colony of the Empire. The erection was of "wattle-and-daub," *i. e.*, of interlaced osiers plastered with clay. In Tennyson's "Holy Grail" one of the characters says,—

"From our old books I know,  
That Joseph came of old to Glastonbury,  
And there the heathen Prince, Arviragus,  
Gave him an isle of marsh whereon to build.  
And there he built with wattles from the marsh  
A little lonely church in days of yore."

The oldest remaining church of the British period is that of St. Pirens-in-the-Sand. Piren was a famous missionary after whom a number of places in Cornwall are named, Piren Arworthal, Perranzabuloe, &c. The little church in which he is supposed to have ministered was discovered some years ago, and freed from the sands of the sea-shore, which had buried it for ages.

Christianity in Britain seems to have made considerable progress. Representatives of the British Church attended the great councils of Arles, Nicea, and Sardica. But it suffered grievously from the irruptions of the Northmen, savage worshippers of Thor and Woden; and at length Theon, Bishop of London, and Thaddeus, Bishop of York, gathered their flocks together, and fled into the mountain fastnesses of Wales and Cornwall. Years elapsed ere the Saxons, under a combination of influences were Christianized. Then churches arose again in the South-eastern parts of Britain.

If you were sailing along the banks of the Humber, you might see, on the southern shore, the tower of a Saxon church which has weathered the storms of eight centuries. It is that of Barton-upon-Humber, at the termination of the Roman Street, which extended from Lindum Colonia to the river. Its rude and feeble imitations of Roman art at once arrest the attention. In some Saxon structures the semi-circular heads of the small and narrow windows were cut out of a single stone. Sometimes two such heads were cut out in one stone; and between them a support, in form of a pillar, was inserted, dividing the window into two lights. Such, if I remember rightly, are the windows in the tower of Barton Church.

A few fine churches were built in England even in Saxon days;

by men who had visited Normandy, as for example, Waltham Abbey, built by Harold Godwinson; but it was not till after the Conquest that churches of any great degree of splendor arose in that land. French ecclesiastics, intruded by the Conqueror to the Anglo-Saxon sees and benefices, marked their advent, by the erection of stately church edifices in the Norman form of the Romanesque. I have, in my mind's eye, a very perfect specimen of Norman Art, the parish church of Stowe (the ancient Sidnaster) in Nottinghamshire. This church was the mother church of Lincoln Minster. William Rufus, in fear of the marauding Danes, ordered that the Bishops' Sees should be set up in *walled* cities. Accordingly Remigius moved his see from Stowe to Lincoln. The old cathedral still stands, solid and beautiful, a building in the form of a Greek cross, having a massive central tower. The doorways are round-headed, recessed—arch beyond arch diminishing, ornamented with the dog-tooth, and other ornaments.

The oldest portions of many of the English Cathedrals—Canterbury, Lincoln, Norwich, among the rest—are of the Norman period.

Norman church building is marked by—

“Massive arches, broad and round,  
That rise alternate row on row,  
On ponderous columns short and low;  
Built ere the art was known  
By pointed isle, and shafted stalk,  
The arcades of an alleys walk  
To emulate in stone.”

The intersection of round arches, in the later Norman gave rise to the pointed arch and brought in

#### THE GOTHIC.

This also has three marked periods. The *Early English*, the *Geometrical*, and the *Perpendicular*, with transition styles.

The *Early English* is marked by extreme simplicity. It is, in the Gothic, what the Doric was in the Greek—chaste and elegant. Its windows are lancet-shaped and deeply splayed. Sometimes they were arranged in twos and threes. Its mouldings are enriched with the dog-tooth ornament, and the capitals of its pillars with the trefoil. The former being an adaptation of the vesica cross, and the latter the emblem of the Trinity.

After a while the drip-stone over a group of lights suggested the compound window: and the piers gave place to mullions with tracery of Geometrical forms. Crocketed pinnacles and spires arose, and flying buttresses, supporting one part upon another. A general richness of detail characterized the second period of Gothic art, so that it is sometimes called the *Decorated*. In some later specimens of Decorated windows, the French style of tracery, the Flamboyant is introduced—its *flamelike* divisions representing perhaps the Pentecostal fires. The military monks seem to have introduced the Saracenic ogee arch, into ecclesiastical buildings about the same period.

Upon the Decorated Gothic succeeded the *Florid* or *Perpendicular*, in which the windows are built up in tiers—mullion and supermullion, separated by transoms, the vaulting of the interiors is spread with fan-tracery; and the ornamental foliations have a seaweed-like appearance. Flat roofs battlemented, and flat arches with square drip-stones, and spandrils ornamented with the Tudor rose come in, in late examples.

A Gothic church of the best period has been called by Coleridge "the petrification of our religion." The three-fold arrangements of all its parts denotes the doctrine of the Trinity. In *length* there are the Nave, the Chancel and the Sacrarium; in *width*, the three aisles; in *height*, the three tiers of arches, (1) the row separating the nave from the aisle; (2) the Triforium. (3) the Clerestory.

" Three solemn parts together twine,  
In harmony's mysterious line,  
Three solemn aisles approach the shrine  
Yet all are one."

Outside we have the three towers with their spires pointing heavenward. The grand doctrine of the Atonement is shadowed forth in the cruciform ground-plan. The long aisles in which arch beyond arch leads the eye to the altar, teach that Christians must go from strength to strength "until before the God of Gods appeareth every one of them in Zion." Wordsworth has a beautiful sonnet expressing his appreciation of the teachings of Gothic Art:—

" In my mind's eye a Temple, like a cloud,  
Slowly surmounting some invidious hill,  
Rose out of darkness: the bright Work stood still;  
And might of its own beauty have been proud,

But it was fashioned and to God was vowed  
 By virtues that diffused, in every part,  
 Spirit Divine through forms of human art:  
 Faith had her arch—her arch, when winds blew loud,  
 Into the consciousness of safety thrilled;  
 And Love her towers of dread foundation laid  
 Under the grave of things; Hope had her spire  
 Star-high, and pointing still to something higher;  
 Trembling I gazed, but heard a voice,—it said,  
 'Hell-gates are powerless phantoms where we build.'

Certainly there are peculiar feelings that steal upon one in the noble fanes erected by our Christian forefathers. The unobtrusive fitness, the unworldly grace, the eloquent symbolism of plan and ornament in all around, direct in a marvellous way the thoughts to God and Heaven. Some may undervalue such prompters and guides of the emotions? But do not the means of grace affect the emotions? And do not the emotions in turn influence the life? And, were it otherwise, are not the emotions a part of the microcosm which in its integrity is to be offered "a willing sacrifice acceptable unto God?"

I must not dwell on the peculiar excellencies of the Minsters of England,—on the richness of Ely, the grace of Salisbury, the massive strength of Durham, &c., nor particularize the marvels of Gothic Art that adorn them; such as the "Angel-Choir" of Lincoln, the oak canopy work, "all carved out of the carver's brain," of York, the pendant bosses in the ceiling of Henry the Seventh's Chapel, &c. To be appreciated such things must be seen; and once seen they can never be forgotten.

#### THE DECAY OF ART.

This, after the Florid Gothic, was very rapid. In Italy and France the *Renaissance*, the *Quincento*, and the *Louis Quatorze* styles came in succession; and before they had run their course, Art was completely separated from Religion. Decorations became simply æsthetic—a chaos of fruits and flowers, and shells and ribbons, and birds and butterflies—display, and gold, and glitter—crimping, and coquillage, and bravura, and flutter. And so the ninth life of Ornamental Art came to an end with the bizarre Rococo, the last gasp of the Louis Quatorze.

In England the declining pulsations shewed themselves in the Elizabethan form of the Renaissance; in the monstrosities of the



“Confectionary Style” of the James the First period—the most barbarous of all ages in ecclesiastical Design; and in the absurdities of the most heathenish of all ages—that of Queen Anne. Finally, the “Churchwarden Gothic” proclaimed “earth to earth” over Art’s consecrated resting-place.

The present age is one of experiment, and is as yet without a style of its own. Its best works are merely imitations; and everything is imitated, from a Greek temple supported by Caryatides to a Gothic fan. We have, it is true, what an American writer calls the “hippogriff of Art”—the modern “place of worship”—equally adapted to the requirements of a church and of a variety theatre—with ornaments signifying everything in general, and nothing in particular—and, with a variety of shams—sham wood, sham marbles, sham mouldings, sham everything. Perhaps the want of style is sufficiently expressed when we say that such a building is stylish. But, surely in this 19th Century, amongst men who are “the heirs of all the ages,” and to whom science has so widely opened the doors of her treasure-houses—when the coffers of the rich are filled with the gold of Australia, and the silver of Arizona, and when thousands of skilled workmen are ready for employment—men ought to be doing more for Art and Religion, for Humanity and God, than was ever done before!

We are not altogether without signs of a revival. The most hopeful is the appreciation by Christians of all Denominations of the fitness of Gothic buildings for church requirements. This is clearly shown in the number of such buildings erected of late years—many of them handsome structures, such as St. Andrew’s and St. Paul’s in Montreal. Even the “æsthetic craze” of the present day, seems to shew a stirring of the dry bones of buried Art; and it is possible that men and women, endowed with the organs of Form and Colour, may rise from the painting of imitation platters and satin screens, from the adorning of candlesticks and pickle-jars, and from attempts to “live up to” obsolete tea-pots—may rise, I say, clothed and in their right mind, into an appreciation of better things—into the consciousness of the possibilities of Art, to him that believeth—may drink in of the spirit of Aholiab and Bezaleel; and earnestly combining to glorify the one God and Father, may work out a twentieth century style of Art which shall bear *HOLINESS TO THE LORD* in its very fore-front, as the High Priest’s mitre did of old.

If such a result is to be effected it must be largely owing to the teachings of those to whom is committed the task, not only of storing the memories, and forming the manners of the rising generation, but also of *moulding their tastes*. In the full consciousness of this, I commend my subject to your earnest consideration closing with the reflection which I wish to leave upon your minds:—The *sense of the need* must precede the demand, which will bring forth Hand-books of Art, Schools of Design, and other more advanced agencies towards the end in view.

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## OUTLINES OF ENGLISH LITERATURE, No. XII.

*Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio.*

BY CHAS. E. MOYSE, B.A.

**ITALY.** *The dawn: rise of the first Italian literary triumvirate, Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio.* The history of Italy is the history of feud. When Dante was born (1265) each of the great cities in the north of Italy spoke a dialect which its neighbours despised; each was the centre of a political activity essentially its own. Heart-stirring conflict called forth the energies of the first Italian literary triumvirate. Florence, Dante's birth-place, was conspicuous in the strife. To understand clearly the position of affairs, the history of the Guelf-Ghibelline factions should be studied. Their source was Germany, then imperially one with Italy. The Italian cities were mainly Guelf, the nobles Ghibelline. Dante fought on the Guelf side, (Campaldino) but when the Guelfs leagued with the Pope and endeavoured to introduce French rule into Italy, Dante changed sides, because Ghibelline meant national unity, and the removal of Italy's cancer, a thoroughly debased church, aiming at temporal power. During Dante's boyhood Florence was famous for commercial enterprise and for fine art—*Cimabue, Michael Angelo*. When Dante began literary work the troubadour element was strong; this element was blended with Neo-Platonism. Royalty and nobility all over the south and west of Europe joined the band of the troubadours, Richard I of England among them. Ladies, imbued with troubadour spirit instituted Courts of Love, which tried in Platonic fashion, every kind of love problem. These courts drew up long codes of love. Troubadour impulse expressed itself also in *Floral Games*, of which those of

Clementina Isaurè, Countess of Toulouse, are best known. Odes, sonnets, canzoni, were read; a violet wrought of gold was the prize; a poet who gained it three times earned the title Doctor. Similarly, the creation of poets-laureate was revived. Virgil, Horace, Statius, had been crowned with the laurel, when Rome was at its zenith; so the Italians copied their ancestors, and honoured Petrarch in like fashion. Frederick II of Sicily and his son Manfred "illustrious heroes," who "followed after elegance and scorned what was mean"—thus Dante writes of them—were responsible for much of this. Lastly, it is to be expected that *allegory*, arising from Neo-Platonism, had obtained fair foothold in Italy when Dante wrote.

DANTE made a dialect (Sicilian) a literary language (Italian). His Italian works, for he wrote also in Latin, are allegorical. The *Vita Nuova* or *New Life*, a poem consisting of sonnets and other troubadour forms of versification, expresses in a mystical way his love for Beatrice Portinari; Beatrice, having married another, died young. To assuage his grief, Dante "took to reading the book, not known to many students, of Boethius, wherewith, unhappy and in exile, he had comforted himself"; Dante judges that philosophy "was a thing supreme" and "imagined her in fashion like a gentle lady." The result was that he wrote his *Convito* or *Banquet* (Italian prose), wherein Beatrice symbolizes philosophy. Then follows the *Divina Commedia*, or *Divine Comedy*, called a comedy because its ending is happy. It consists of three parts, the *Inferno*, the *Purgatorio*, the *Paradiso*. In the *Inferno*, Virgil guides Dante, through Hell, whose lowest depth reaches to earth's centre. The choice of Virgil shows the emergence of the classics from the Dark Ages. In the *Purgatorio*, Dante ascends the mount of Purgatory, situated in the earth exactly opposite Hell. In the *Paradiso*, Dante visits the planets which were made to revolve around the earth, and finally reaches Heaven, where Beatrice dwells. Beatrice, personal or symbolic, runs through all Dante's work from the *Vita Nuova* to the end of the *Divine Comedy*. The *Divine Comedy* contains *allegory* of a very deep character; philosophy—Greek, Latin and Arabian. Its aim is as much political as religious; Italy, distracted with factions, and especially Florence, poor Florence, are to take warning from the fate of corrupt Popes, priests, warriors and statesmen. FRANCESCO PETRARCH, born at Arezzo, 1304, expressed in a mysti-

cal way his love for Laura, in his *Sonnets*. Laura, if a person, might have been Laurette de Noves, whom Petrarch did not marry; but Laura in Petrarch's eyes is largely symbolic. *The fame of Petrarch's sonnets established the sonnet in Europe*. A sonnet epidemic raged; the commonest people became sonneteers, and poor men become rich by reciting and discussing Petrarch. Petrarch complained of the strained allegory to which he was subjected. His favorite authors were Cicero, Virgil, Seneca, Livy; in Cicero and Seneca he found all he wanted. Petrarch could not break away from the fetters of Latin. He wrote a long epic, *Africa*, in Latin verse, commemorating the deeds of Scipio Africanus. His sonnets have quickened literature down to our times, but his *Africa* is practically unknown. He turned into Latin the tale of the Patient Griselda from the *Decameron* of his friend GIOVANNI BOCCACCIO, born 1313, at Florence—a good Greek scholar; he wrote a commentary on part of Dante's *Inferno*, and was made public lecturer on Dante's *Divine Comedy*. His writings are in Latin and Italian. Among the Italian stands his *Decameron*, *the first popular tale book in the Romance languages*. He died in 1374; when Chaucer was thirty-five years old.

*Mythology of Homer.*—On Feb. 25, Mr. Watkiss Lloyd delivered a lecture at the Royal Institution, London, upon the Mythology of Homer. He began by describing the development of Greek Mythology, by free and unrestrained use of the imagination. He then commented on the relation of the Homeric mythology to the overwhelming religious sentiment which recognises a great intelligent sympathising power, or powers, behind all forces of nature—a momentous feeling which underlies all forms of worship, and which, more especially in early ages, tended to the use of poetic forms of expression. The mythology adopted and embellished by Homer, Mr. Lloyd said, had already forfeited this simple religious character; and he cited the pious Herodotus, as a witness to the conventional religion of his time, and of its slight connection with Homer's gods and goddesses. In reference to Welcker's theory that Homer was the first to advance beyond the barbaric forms of religion, by combining the attributes of humanity with the elemental powers of nature, Mr. Lloyd demonstrated that in Hesiod and Homer we have not the first awakening germs of mythology, but the extreme ripeness, which led to a revulsion and a reaction; and a return to the ancient simple religion of Dionysius and Demeter, especially at Athens and Eleusis. This revival was heightened by the development of mysteries.—*Illustrated London News.*

## GARDINER'S INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH HISTORY.

(Continued from p. 196.)

## THE TUDOR MONARCHY.

"Henry VII gave the middle classes the protection of a firm government. No armies could be levied except in his name; parliaments were mere instruments in his hands; juries were ready to convict those whom he brought to trial. The forms, however, of the old constitution continued. In one way he made a change, viz., by extending the power of the court of Star Chamber. This became a weapon in the hands of the Tudors to strike down the oppressors.

The world had now come to the end of the Middle Ages.

"The ideals of the past were gone; the science of the medieval ages had become a laughing-stock. The medieval saints were all dead, and had left no successors. The medieval church had become either a sink of corruption, or at the best, a house of idleness. . . . Nor were other ideals readily at hand. The king was no longer a gracious lord for whom one would be ready to die, but a mere guarantee against loss, like a fire-insurance office in modern times."

A society with no ideal but self-preservation is doomed to dissolution, and a new ideal was now presented by *the Renaissance*—the intellectual and artistic reversal of the asceticism of the Middle Ages. "Men turned to human life and beauty, to human art and science." But it is never among the people who give birth to new ideas that those ideas attain to their healthiest development. Hence the superiority of Colet and More to Pulci and Machiavelli. Henry VIII was the incarnation of his age. He satisfied "his lust under the forms of marriage and his wrath under the forms of legal procedure." He broke with Rome from a purely personal motive, but justified his acts by reforming the church, though he did not purpose to go further than the purification of the old Christianity "by an admixture of intellectual criticism and moral earnestness." By placing himself at the head of this work he became more despotic than before. The spirit of the Renaissance was not a spirit of liberty, the protest of More and Fisher was made in the name of a system that was dead. What was wanted to quicken the spiritual powers into new life and to be the complement of the new learning was the ideal of *Protestantism*. This again was in antagonism with the medieval church. Man was to be made righteous by faith; the clue to his life was to be found within and not without.

"If such a religion had much in common with the new learning, it was opposed to it in many points. Like the new learning, its strength lay in the cultivation of the powers of man, not in their destruction. Like the new learning it cherished the development of intelligence and reason. But it did not, like the new learning, regard culture as an end in itself; still less did it look upon the world around as the instrument of self-indulgence. The Protestant hungered and thirsted after righteousness that he might make others better than they were before."

Owing to the different ideas of the Renaissance and Protestantism a great change passed over England in the half century that followed the battle of Bosworth. We have now a people occupied with the highest objects of thought; at the same time we are surprised by the diversity as well as by the intensity of the effort.

"There was infinite life, infinite variety of ideal, of aim, and of character, but there was no breach of continuity. There were parties of every kind, but there was a strong national life animating them all. . . . The great political idea of the age was expressed in its favourite political term—the commonwealth."

As the head of the Commonwealth was Henry taking sides neither with extreme Catholics, nor with extreme Protestants—a strong position which the government forsook in the reign of his son. For the courtiers entered into an alliance with the extreme Protestants; and while the latter introduced changes that shocked the majority of the nation, the former oppressed the poor and alienated them by converting arable land into pasture. Edward's death was a welcome riddance to the nation from "a handful of religious theorists, supported by an unprincipled band of robbers who chose to style themselves a government." The reaction of Mary's reign disgusted the nation in turn with Catholicism. The Church was laid at the feet of the pope and the State at the feet of Spain. Calais was lost and the Protestants now become an object of pity owing to the fierce persecution they had endured.

The last two reigns had shown the impossibility of governing England by means of extremists and Elizabeth took up the position of Henry VIII. This was no easy matter as the central party on which Henry had relied was scarcely any longer in existence. There were two rival systems of Catholicism and Calvinism hostile to one another. Elizabeth, therefore, without aiming at a narrow and consistent orthodoxy, took the Church into her own hands as a means of keeping the clergy in order, with

the theory that nothing was to be rejected which could not be proved false by scripture. Her strength lay in her character as representing the Commonwealth and the secular party. Elizabeth had to be on the defensive, and, in her foreign relations played off France and Spain against each other. Her difficulties were aggravated when her Catholic rival, Mary, sought refuge in England, and when Protestantism was assailed by its new foe—the *Jesuit*.

"In opposition to the self-contained religion of the Protestants, appeared a form of religion which treated the individual conscience with contempt. The extravagance of discipline appeared, as the opponent of the extravagance of individual religion."

On the other side was *the Puritan* who would have substituted for the "tyranny of an ecclesiastical monarchy" the "tyranny of an ecclesiastical democracy." In her battle with the Pope the Puritan spirit was necessary to Elizabeth, yet to concede too much to Puritans was to offend the greater part of her people. Out of these different influences Elizabeth moulded her church. The national spirit of the people was her best friend, so that:

"Gradually, in opposition to the common enemy, the religious forms which, in the beginning of the reign, had hardly any partisans at all, were adopted by the moderate men of all parties, though there were still left many who wished them to be modified."

The spirit of the Renaissance was at work "blunting the edge of religious controversy"—Protestant as in Spencer, but in the main, as in Shakespeare, neither Catholic nor Protestant, partaking neither of the asceticism of the monk, nor of the religious self-restraint of the Puritan. Under Elizabeth, England came to be "morally and intellectually the centre of European civilization," yet had she originated nothing of her own. The dominant idea of the Reformers was derived from Germany; of the Puritans, from Geneva; of the Catholics, from Rome and Spain; of Literature, from Italy. It was the blending of all these together that made England great, and her greatness culminated in Shakespeare, Hobbes and Bacon. The completion of this work of which Elizabeth was the leader, resulted in the new growth of the *power of Parliament*. At the beginning of her reign she had been a much better representative of the nation than the House of Commons, but by the end of it the central national party had grown strong and this party was best represented in the Commons.

"The cause of their weakness in the divisions of the nation was at an end.

They were strong in 1603: as the embodiment of a national desire which was not even in existence in 1558. . . . In 1485 they were but a down-trodden portion of the English people, looking out for a strong ruler to defend their cause. In 1603 they were almost identical with the nation itself, with aims and ideas of their own."

The success of Queen Elizabeth's policy had called this new power into existence.

#### THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT.

The House of Commons would now have to take a larger part in the direction of affairs than it had taken before. The supremacy of the State once admitted, liberty of speech and thought becomes a necessity, and such liberty "creates an organization higher and nobler than that which it has destroyed." Such a change, however, could not be effected without a struggle. When *James I* came to the throne, he brought with him no practical knowledge of the English character, and surrounded himself with courtiers who had little influence with the nation. While the Commons were disposed to favour the Puritans, he wished to tolerate the Catholics. He took the most unpopular step of his life when he planned a Spanish marriage for his son, to be accompanied by concessions to the Catholics. The domestic government of James was so unsatisfactory that the parliament of 1621 met with a settled distrust of the whole system, at home and abroad. They swept away the monopolies and prosecuted Lord Bacon. The failure of the foreign policy of James and Charles discredited the monarchy in the eyes of the people, and the authority which Elizabeth had possessed passed to the House of Commons when Charles was forced to assent to the *Petition of Rights*. The Commons at once began to reform the Church. If Charles had his way, the wishes of the nation would be no longer consulted in Church and State; if the Commons got their way, toleration would be at an end and Calvinism dominant. Thus a quarrel between King and Commons was inevitable and in 1629 began a period of *Government without Parliament*.

The King had now the whole nation against him. Literature, in the person of Milton, passed to the side of the opposition. Laud's ecclesiastical government caused the barrier which divided the Elizabethan Puritan from the merely Protestant churchman to be broken down, and the name of Puritan became applicable to both classes alike. The constitutional lawyers formed an



other wing of the opposition, for "like every weak government, the government of Charles was driven from sheer terror to violent measures of repression." Thus the attempt of the king to stand alone had wrought nothing but mischief. Resistance came first from Scotland, where the nation combined to thwart Charles' ecclesiastical policy. To settle the claims of the Scottish army, Parliament had to be called, and *the Long Parliament* met. First came the reform of crying abuses and punishment of Strafford. But no settlement was possible because neither Parliament nor king was supreme. Gradually as Parliament turned its attention to Church Reforms, it and the nation divided into two parties.

"What had begun as resistance to absolute government in Church and State ended in civil war, in order that it might be settled which of the contending ecclesiastical parties should prevail. Charles found himself supported by thousands who would not have fought for him for his own sake, but who had learned to value his authority as soon as it appeared that only its maintenance would preserve the Book of Common Prayer from rejection or mutilation."

The struggle of *the Civil War* was in the main a struggle between "the enfeebled spirit of the Renaissance and the spirit of Protestantism raised to its highest pitch;" and the triumph of Protestantism by the aid of the Scots threatened to bring on "a doctrinal rigidity, as complete as the ceremonial rigidity of Laud." England was saved from this by *the Independents* led by Cromwell and Milton. The army was now supreme. Exasperated by Charles' trickery, which had brought on a fresh war, they demanded his head. The resistance of Ireland and Scotland was beaten down.

"Then came the inevitable conflict with the remnant of the Long Parliament. When Cromwell drove out the handful of members who remained, all English institutions were levelled to the ground. King, Lords and Commons had vanished from the scene. The army alone remained."

(To be continued.)

*The French Government and Religious Teaching.*—The new educational law in France provides that no religious teaching, even of the most undogmatic kind, shall be given within the school buildings, but that an additional holiday shall be granted, during which religion may be taught, if the parents wish, in "un local séparé." To understand the extreme length to which matters have now gone, we must remember that the Act will apply to girls' schools, though five-sixths of all mothers in France wish their daughters to have some religious instruction.—*The Spectator.*

## THE DISCIPLINE OF THE SCHOOL.\*

BY HIRAM ORCUTT, LL.D.

*(Continued from p. 200.)*

## TEACHERS MUST HAVE POWER TO PUNISH.

7. *This brings me to consider the discipline of punishment.*—I have spoken of the power of system, law, and kindness, in their silent, but effective influence upon individuals and the school. I have spoken of the means and methods of preventing evil. I come now to the penalties to be inflicted when crime has been committed. Wholesome laws will be violated under every system of school management. The question to be settled is, should the government of the school be positive and efficient? If so, the master must have the right, disposition, and power to inflict punishment when necessary. If this right is denied or this power withheld, the government of the school is at the mercy of circumstances; it cannot be sustained. In the dispensation of penalties, professional knowledge and wise discrimination are requisite. The circumstances connected with the offence must be carefully studied and a distinction always made between wilful and unintentional wrong. The isolated act of transgression does not indicate the degree of guilt incurred nor the kind of punishment to be inflicted; the presence or absence of palliating circumstances, the motives which generated the act, the present views and feelings of the offending pupil, must *all* be taken into account. The master should never, therefore, threaten a specific punishment for anticipated offences. No two cases of transgression will be exactly alike, and hence the kind and degree of punishment should be varied as the case demands. But the good disciplinarian seldom resorts to severe punishment in the government of his school; yet he never relinquishes his right to punish as circumstances require. Nor does he regard severity, when necessary, as an evil to be deplored. It is indeed a sore evil that mortification has so endangered the life of the patient that the limb must be amputated; but it is not an evil that you have at hand surgical skill and suitable instruments to perform an operation. It is indeed a misfortune that any child or pupil has become so demoralized and reckless as to incur

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\*Reprinted from a circular issued by the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

the penalties of the law; but Solomon's rod, which has restored him to obedience and duty, is a blessing whose influence will be felt and acknowledged by the offender as long as he lives.

#### PUNISHMENT NOT THE "LAST RESORT."

Nor is severe punishment to be regarded as the "last resort." When it may be inflicted at all, it is the first resort, and the true remedy. Allow me to illustrate: A skilful physician is called to prescribe for a patient sick almost unto death. He sees, at a glance, that only one remedy will cure, and that must be administered promptly. Now the question is, shall that powerful medicine be given at once or as the "last resort," after every mild remedy has failed? If the doctor resorts to herb drinks and tonics in the case supposed, he is a quack, and his patient will die while the tender hearted simpleton is experimenting upon him. But the "calomel" is given and the patient recovers. So with punishment. It may be mild or severe; each kind is appropriate as a remedy for specific evils. But if the case is one that requires great severity, that kind of punishment must be inflicted promptly and faithfully. "Spare the rod and spoil the child," under such circumstances. Much has been said and written upon corporal punishment and moral suasion, but their appropriate use in school discipline is seldom understood, as it seems to me.

#### MORAL SUASION NOT THE REMEDY FOR REBELLION.

Moral suasion is not the remedy for bold and defiant violations of law, if we mean by that term the persuading of the culprit to return to obedience or the purchase of his allegiance by a promised reward. Rebellion should be met by stunning, crushing blows, such as will vindicate and reestablish authority and deter others from committing the same crime. Mildness is cruelty under such circumstances. All such cases demand instant and determined action. The time for conciliation is after the rebels are subjugated and the authority of the government is restored. But moral influence and kindness should attend every act of severity; never let the sun go down upon the wrath of a chastised pupil. See him alone, bring to bear upon him every moral power, treat him now with kindness and confidence, and thus restore him to duty and favor. Without the rod moral suasion might have been powerless, or, if successful, what was gained by persuasion

was lost to authority. It must never be doubtful that the master has supreme control over his little kingdom. If his authority is trifled with, it must be restored without delay, and any punishment is judicious that is necessary to this end. The system of government here recommended does not offer an angry word or blow for every offence, real or fancied. The best masters who have adopted it punish the least. And when severe punishment becomes necessary, the pupil is made to believe that a sense of duty, and not passion, nerves the arm to strike the blow. He is made to understand that it is the master's duty to command and the pupil's duty to obey. Practically, the system of government based upon authority has alone been successful; every system that has abandoned the right or lost the power to punish has proved a failure.

In punishing for falsehood, pilfering, profanity, and the like, it should be borne in mind that, while "the rod and reproof give wisdom," yet the moral treatment of such offences is *always* appropriate, either with or without severity, as the case may be. If the knowledge of an offence is confined to the offender and the teacher, it should be treated privately, for the good of the individual. But public crime must meet public punishment, that all similar cases may be reached and the school benefited. Let the folly, wickedness, and consequences of the crime be fully exposed and brought home to the conscience. And in the settlement of the question never fail to leave the way open for repentance and restitution. One example, to illustrate:

#### ILLUSTRATION.

A gold dollar had disappeared from the teacher's table while she stepped to a neighboring room. Two school girls, who were the only persons present, had disappeared. It was Saturday, and in the evening the young ladies were assembled in the public parlor for family worship. The principal, who was conducting the exercises, commenced describing the effects and consequences of having, by accident, deposited a gold dollar upon the human lungs. It would corrode and poison, produce inflammation, disease, and death, if it could not be removed. He then transferred the gold dollar from the lungs to the conscience, and portrayed the consequent guilt, remorse, anguish, and moral death resulting from such a crime, if not repented of. He presumed the young lady would

gladly restore the money and save herself from the disgrace and suffering which must follow. He told her where she could leave the dollar, and that the fact of restoring it would be proof of her penitence and would save her from exposure. In her desperation, she had already thrown the gold dollar down the register; but she did borrow the amount of her teacher, confidentially, to be paid from her spending money, and deposited it as suggested. And so the whole matter was settled, and the most satisfactory results followed. The parents of the young lady never knew that anything of the kind had occurred. This case indicates the method I would adopt in dealing with school vices.

#### STUDY A DISCIPLINE.

8. *The discipline of study may next be considered.*—Study is mental gymnastics, systematic thinking, and the end in view is development and culture. One great object of the school is to induce and direct this mental exercise. Study is of the first importance, and hence must have the first attention of every practical teacher. In the organization, classification, management and government of his school his chief aim is to secure systematic thinking. To this end he arranges certain hours of the day to be especially devoted to study. No unnecessary interruptions are allowed. In the selection of studies and the arrangement of classes he has regard to the capacity and standing of each pupil, so that he may work easily and successfully. He requires a regular hour to be devoted to each study and recitation, that order and system may everywhere prevail. He enforces rigid discipline, that the school room may be quiet, and, most important of all, he inspires his pupils with an enthusiasm that creates a love for the duties of the school and earnestness in study. He teaches his pupils how to study. He shows them that it is not the number of hours spent with books in hand, but close application, that secures thorough discipline and good lessons, and that self-application is the only condition of sound learning. Hence he will not allow them to seek assistance from each other nor often from the teacher. And the wise teacher instructs his pupils to study thoughts and subjects, instead of words and books. Thus correct habits of study are formed and the foundation is laid for successful training at every future stage of education.

Study is the exercise of acquiring, and the only means of, men-

tal culture; mind is developed through its agency, and power of self control and self direction gained.

#### RECITATION AND DISCIPLINE.

9. *The discipline of recitation comes next in order.*—Recitation is the exercise of expression, and, like study, belongs wholly to the scholar. Study and recitation are the principal means of gaining mental power and practical ability. Both are indispensable to the end in view, if not equally important. Recitation has some incidental advantages of its own.

#### RECITATION INDISPENSABLE.

If properly conducted, it induces study. Few lessons would be learned in any school if no recitations were required or if it was understood beforehand that the hour of recitation was to be occupied by the teacher in lecturing or asking questions. Again, recitation gives distinctness and vividness to acquired knowledge. No lesson is fully learned until it is recited. It follows, therefore, that every pupil must recite at every recitation or suffer a loss.

#### SMALL CLASSES DESIRABLE.

Classes should never be so large as not to allow this thorough personal drill. That teacher who claims ability to educate classes numbering from fifty to seventy-five is either a novice or a quack. Such teaching is a fruitful source of indolence and superficial scholarship. Recitation in concert is equally objectionable. This may occasionally be profitable for recreation and improvement, when the whole school can engage in it; but class recitation in concert, as a habit, creates disorder, prevents quiet study, destroys self reliance, affords a hiding place for the idle and reckless, and removes the strongest motive for self application.

(To be continued.)

### THE NEW EDUCATION CODE IN ENGLAND.

#### WITH A SUMMARY OF OPINION THEREON.

By far the most important event in the contemporary educational world of Great Britain is the New Education Code lately submitted by Mr. Mundella to the Imperial Parliament. Some account of this important measure, as well as of the criticism it has called forth, is, we feel, due to our readers, more especially, as

amongst us, too, the laws regulating Education are being subjected to revision. The original code was drawn up by Robert Lowe (now Lord Sherbrooke), but as each year came round the Education Department and the Legislature made alterations introducing fresh complications. The present code is an attempt to reduce the vast and "almost unintelligible mass of rules of which former codes have been made up" into something like order, and at the same time to change them for the better. In proposing these changes, the Government has made a laudable endeavour to meet the wishes of the body of teachers, who are to be guided by the code, and amongst whom the subject has been under discussion for the last year and more. In framing the code Mr. Mundella has consequently had the benefit of numerous suggestions poured in upon him from different quarters.

The subjects of instruction for which grants may be made are divided into obligatory and optional subjects. The *obligatory subjects*, hereafter to be called "the elementary subjects" (Schedules I and III), are reading, writing, arithmetic and, for girls in day schools, needlework. The *optional subjects* are subdivided into two classes.

(1) Those *taken by classes* throughout the school, which are hereafter to be called "class subjects" (Schedule II), are singing, English, geography, elementary science, and history.

(2) Those *taken by individual children* in the upper classes of the school, hereafter to be called "specific subjects" (Schedule IV), are algebra, Euclid and mensuration, mechanics, chemistry, physics, animal physiology, botany, principles of agriculture, Latin, French and domestic economy.

Perhaps the scope of elementary education, as the term is now understood, will be best understood by the contents of the Seventh Standard. Each child who passes in this standard, must be able to read a passage from some standard author, to write a theme or letter, and to calculate averages, percentages, discounts, and stocks. The class must be able to recite 150 lines from a standard author, and be able to explain the words and allusions; to analyse sentences, and to know prefixes and terminations. If it is examined in geography, it must know about the ocean, the currents and tides, the general arrangement of the planetary system, and the phases of the moon. If elementary science is taken, the examination will deal with animal or plant life, together with the chemical

and physical principles involved in one of the chief English industries, including agriculture and the construction of the commoner instruments and the simpler forms of industrial machinery. "Up to this point," writes the *Saturday Review*, "we have no fault to find with the schedules. But when we come to our old enemy, the Fourth, the objection we formerly urged against it seem to be as valid as ever. The twelve alternative specific subjects, in any two of which individual scholars may be presented, would be excellent as part of a system of secondary education. But they have no place in a system of elementary education." This objection is based on the fact that elementary education alone should be supported by the community as a whole, and that the subjects here specified are only appropriate to a school which retains its scholars to the age of sixteen or seventeen; whereas few remain beyond the age of thirteen. Money is to be paid for teaching what cannot be taught. "From the tyranny of the Fourth Schedule there seems to be no prospect of escape. We ought perhaps to esteem ourselves fortunate that it does not as yet include either Greek, Sanscrit, or Comparative Philology."

A change is effected in the method by which the grant from the Government is to be calculated—the possible maximum remaining unaltered. The average attendance of the year will form the basis of the whole grant, but this is modified to bring about the result "that good schools will be able to earn more than they do now, and that bad schools will earn less. This will be insured chiefly by the rule that the scholars presented for examination must be the whole number on the school books, and not only those who have made a full number of attendances. The percentage of failures will thus be increased in every case, and the worse the school and the more irregular the attendance, the more numerous the failures will become. It is claimed, also, on behalf of the new system, that it admits of greater flexibility and a more exact adaptation to the merits of each case. The grant for reading, writing, and arithmetic will obviously fix itself by an easy, self-working rule, and it will be possible, as it is intended it should be, that a school in which the teaching is sound and the general intelligence good should earn a higher grant on a lower percentage of passes in reading, writing, and arithmetic than a school can in which the actual bare passes are more numerous, but the teaching and general intelligence are of a lower order."



Such is the summary of the *Times*; but this provision is differently viewed by the *Schoolmaster*, the professed organ of the teaching body. "We want less instruction more thoroughly imparted, and with more regard to the capacities of our pupils, than is at present given in our schools. We fear that both with respect to the quantity and the thoroughness with which the work is performed more will be demanded in the future; and we feel sure that the attempt to exact more than can fairly be demanded will injure both teacher and scholar." And again with special regard to the financial aspect of the question, the *Schoolmaster*, sees little upon which the teaching body can congratulate themselves. "Mr. Mundella stated the intention of the framers of the Code to be to secure for the fair school about as much as it could earn at present, for the good school rather more, and for the bad school rather less." Practically, however, the result will be a decrease of the grant, even in the case of a "good" school. "The loss is about equal to one shilling per head, and if the school were marked as 'fair' it would, of course, amount to two shillings per head. This is, we fear, what may be expected by schools generally. . . . There is no doubt but that the State has got the best of the bargain. It is to receive greater value at a less cost than formerly. It is in the happy position of a purchaser who is able to fix the price he will pay for the article he needs." In taking this view of the question the *Schoolmaster* is supported by the important judgment of the *Athenæum*, while the *Spectator* expresses itself as favorable to this branch of the reform.

A further change in the scheme is the endeavour to lighten the positive work of the teachers. Each certified teacher will count as providing for the instruction of sixty, and not of the eighty, children. Thus, while by this means and by the employment of pupil-teachers, the regular teachers' work will be lessened, relief comes from another side, which will come home to Canadian teachers. "One of the changes," writes the *Spectator*, "least likely to be noted by the public in the new Code, but most likely to be noted gratefully by the teacher, is the relief it gives to him in relation to the amount of mechanical registering which is inflicted on him by the old system. The teacher, under the Code to be superseded, instead of having almost all his hours of leisure at his own disposal, for refreshing his mind and for recovering his intellectual spring by study for the sake of study, and not for the sake of teaching, is at

present too often compelled to employ leisure time in filling up laborious registers of detail connected with the children's exemptions and fees. From this incubus of schedules teachers are to be partially relieved."

Further, a somewhat larger scope is given to the discretion of the teachers in classifying the children, and in choosing the subjects of instruction for them—a concession which the *Schoolmaster* fears will be, as a general rule, nugatory owing to interference of its sworn foe—the Inspector. The *Spectator*, however, is more sanguine of the benefits of this provision. Further points to be noticed in the Code are that, while teachers of standing are made eligible for sub-inspectorships, and so will in time, though the Code does not provide for this, attain to the crowning honour of inspectorship; the entrance to the teaching profession is made easier by means of pupil teaching and university graduation. Again a special concession is made to teachers holding first-class certificates. These, under the new regulations, will not need to be endorsed every year by the School Inspector.

In its general results the new code has met with approval. "With the single exception of the Fourth Schedule," says the *Saturday Review*, "it is certainly an improvement on the Code now in force. Additional encouragement is given to good schools, while bad schools will be poorer than before; and there can be no object in keeping bad schools going when the fact of their existence is the principal obstacle to the success of good ones." The one great object of Mr. Mundella has been to secure greater intelligence in the teaching of elementary subjects, and the *Schoolmaster* admits "that, intelligently administered, the Code will probably produce this result." But then comes in the standing exception—the School Inspector. "It is too much to hope that the nature of the Inspectors now employed will change with the issue of a changed Code." If the competent will have more scope for good, those unfit for the position will have further licence of mischief. The grave responsibility thus imposed upon those holding these important posts is fully recognized by the *Times* and the *Spectator*, the latter even suggesting a further reform of this special branch of the service. "All this drift of change necessarily implies, of course, a very great increase in the delicacy and discrimination of the task confided to the Inspectors, and it is easy to see that a reorganization of the system of inspection must

be taken in hand; as the logical consequence of the changes made by the new Code. It is no small thing to have to pass an opinion on the intelligence elicited by teachers, and on the originality of their methods of teaching; and not only to pass an opinion, but to pass an opinion that will make all the difference, as well to the prosperity of the individual school, as to the career of the teachers whose labours are estimated by the inspector." As things are at present, the increased power given into the hands of H. M. Inspectors is the main drawback to the benefits promised by the increased elasticity that has been introduced into the system.

R. W. B.

### UNIVERSITY REFORM AT OXFORD.

Oxford is perhaps more typically than the sister Universities, Cambridge and Dublin, an old-world university. It has been undergoing reform at the hands of a commission, the results of which have only lately been given to the public. Perhaps a slight sketch of the chief reforms will be interesting to our readers, as indicating the direction in which liberalism in Education is moving in Great Britain.

The University, as distinct from the colleges that compose it, is by no means a wealthy body, and the Commission's first endeavours have been to increase its revenues. This they have done by mulcting the colleges in proportion to their income. Part of the money thus gained is to be devoted to the extension of the Professorial staff: eight new professorships and two readerships will be founded. There will be Chairs of Classical archæology, English, the Romance languages, comparative anatomy, applied mechanics, and pure mathematics; and second Chairs of ancient history and physics. Under the new Statutes, the salaries of the majority of the Professors will be about £900 a year, while the remainder will receive from £400 to £500. These incomes will not, to any material extent, depend upon fees. The function of the Professors is to be teaching, rather than research. Those paid on the higher scale will have to lecture in every term, to give forty-two lectures in the year, and to help students attending the lectures by advice, informal instruction, or examination. Any neglect of duty will be noted by the Board of Visitation. The order and subjects of the Professors' lectures will be in some degree determined by one of Four Boards of Faculty, consisting of all the professors and readers

in the several subjects of theology, law, arts, and natural science, together with representatives of College teachers in the same field. These Boards will also, unless the opposition of the University is successful, have a share in the appointment of Examiners. It is of course unnecessary to say that, at Oxford and Cambridge, the teaching and examining bodies are kept distinct.

Besides these changes in the University, properly so called, a new code of Statutes has been drawn up for the colleges composing it. The number of what have been called "Idle Fellowships" will be limited; they will only be held for seven years, and their income will not exceed £200 a year. These ordinary fellowships may also be awarded, with or without examination, to any person engaged in literary, scientific, or art work which he undertakes to prosecute in the College or University, or under their direction elsewhere. The remaining fellowships will either be annexed to Professorships, or held as tutorial fellowships. The tenure of these last will be for a longer term than that of ordinary fellowships, and it will be renewable. The obligation to take Holy Orders as a qualification for a fellowship will only be retained in connection with the specific purpose of providing for the performance of the chapel services, and for religious teaching in the College. It does not appear to what proportion of fellowships this condition will be applicable. The Headship of every College, except Christ Church and Pembroke, will be open to laymen and clergymen equally. Otherwise, no great change is made in the constitution of the office. Scholarships will, as now, be obtained by competition, but no scholarships will exceed £80 a year in value, and the limit of age up to which they can be attained will be nineteen. A certain proportion both of fellowships and scholarships will be given for proficiency in mathematics, natural science, and history. A new provision will be made, in the shape of senior scholarships, at some three or four Colleges; for those men who have passed the examinations for the B.A. degree.

Such is a bare outline of some of the most important changes. The comment of the London *Spectator*, from which our account has been drawn is as follows: "Oxford, as the Commissioners have remodelled it, will in its main lines be the Oxford that it was before they took the work in hand. That is, necessarily, a result which will be regarded with different eyes, according to the value the spectator is disposed to set upon the order of things which has, on the whole, been maintained."

## MCGILL UNIVERSITY.

May 2nd.

## CONVOCAATION IN ARTS AND APPLIED SCIENCE.

After preliminary forms, the degree and honour list in the FACULTY OF ARTS was read. The following had passed for the degree of B. A. :

*In Honors (Alphabetically arranged.)*

First Rank—Hague, Henry J.; Lafleur, Henri A.; Morin, Joseph L.; Rielle, Norman T.; Rogers, John H.; Smith, Arthur W.; Trenholme, Chas. W.

Second Rank—Gregor, Leigh R.; Willians, George.

*Ordinary (In order of Merit.)*

Class I—Ami, Henry M.

Class II—McKillop, Peter C.; Thomas, Francis W. G.; Martin, Alfred W.; Mackay, Daniel and Stirling, Robert, equal; Stewart, Robert; Barron, Thomas J.

Class III—Walker, George H.; Cockfield, Henry.

In the graduating class the following obtained *Special honors*:

B. A. Honors in Classics—Hague, Henry J.—First Rank Honors and Henry Chapman Gold Medal.

B. A. Honors in Natural Science—Lafleur, Henri A.—First Rank Honors and Logan Gold Medal; Trenholme, Charles W.—First Rank Honors; Smith, Arthur W.—First Rank Honors.

B. A. Honors in Mental and Moral Philosophy.—Rogers, John H.—First Rank Honors and Prince of Wales Gold Medal; Willians, George—Second Rank Honors; Gregor, Leigh R.—Second Rank Honors.

B. A. Honors in English Language, Literature and History—Rielle, Norman T.—First Rank Honors and Shakespeare Gold Medal.

B. A. Honors in Modern Languages and Literature, with History—Morin, Joseph L.—First Rank Honors and Lorne Gold Medal.

In the FACULTY OF APPLIED SCIENCE the following is the list of the graduating class with honors:

Civil Engineering—Advanced Course—Frederick Miller. Ordinary Course (in order of merit)—Philip Lawrence Foster, Thomas Daniel Green, John James Collins, Thomas Drummond.

Mining Engineering—Albert Peter Low.

Practical Chemistry—Jeffrey Hale Burland.

Frederick Miller—Lorne Medal. Certificates of Merit in all the subjects.

Thomas Daniel Green—Scott Exhibition.

Alfred Peter Low—First Rank Honors in Natural Science.

Jeffrey Hale Burland—Second Rank Honors in Natural Science. Certificate of Merit in Practical Chemistry.

The valedictorians for the year were Norman Rielle in Arts and Jeffrey H. Burland in Applied Science. Their addresses were followed by an address from PROFESSOR JOHNSON in which he suggested that further encouragement should be given by the government to higher education on the lines of the Johns Hopkins University of Baltimore, and the reforms lately carried out in this direction by the Royal Commissioners of Oxford University, and in Ireland by the foundation of the Royal University. Studentships should be awarded by competitive examination, open to all graduates of Canadian Universities, to be given for proficiency in Literature and Science. These would enable Canadian graduates to finish their studies elsewhere, and would prove a great encouragement to the work of higher education. By way of suggestion, Professor Johnson proposed that thirty studentships of \$1000 per annum, tenable for seven years should be opened to competition. These, with prizes for the best of the unsuccessful competitors and the cost of the examination would come to about \$40,000 a year. That some such stimulus as this was necessary, was the opinion of the speaker, judging from an experience of a quarter of a century: "Comparing the state of education in Canada at the beginning of that period and now at the end, and comparing it again with that of other countries, the conclusion that I am inclined to come to is simply this: that, whatever may be thought of any absolute progress, yet relatively Canada is being left behind by the rapid progress of other countries in the higher education and in the highest education. I make no reference here, observe, to ordinary school education. Something ought to be done to remedy this. What I have suggested is one method or one step."

The degree of D.C.L. was then conferred upon Hon. J. S. C. Wurtele, M.P.P., Provincial Treasurer, late Professor of Law in the University; that of M.A. upon Mr. F. McN. Dewey, B. A.

Two handsome volumes were presented to the winner of the New Shakespeare Society's prize, Mr. Leigh R. Gregor.

PRINCIPAL DAWSON then concluded the proceedings by addressing the Convocation as follows;—

MR. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN, OF CONVOCATION:—The degrees granted at the close of the present session are less numerous than in some previous years, being 75 in all the Faculties. The number of students, without reckoning those in affiliated colleges and schools, has been 374, derived from nearly all the provinces of the Dominion. The session has been on the whole an uneventful one, but has been remarkable for the high standard of attainment of the students in Arts, as shown by the examinations. It has been marked by one event saddening to us all, the death of one of the most promising young men in our youngest faculty, that of Applied Science. The subjects which perhaps best deserve notice in this annual resumé are—the changes in the curriculum, the erection of the Peter Redpath Museum and the efforts to increase the endowments of the University.

The attention of the Corporation of the University and of the Faculty of Arts has been directed during the year to proposed changes in the course of study for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. These changes, so far as agreed to, after the full discussion to which they have been subjected, appear in the announcement of the Faculty of Arts now on the table for distribution. Their tendency is not to diminish the work or range of study necessary for the degree, but to allow more scope than heretofore in the senior years for choice on the part of students. In the First and Second years the course of study is fixed as formerly, and admits of no options; but in the third and fourth years it is purposed to make only one of the classical languages imperative, and to reduce the imperative part of the course in Mathematical Physics, thus allowing those students who so desire to substitute other branches of study. At the same time somewhat greater facilities are given for honour studies, especially in the fourth year. The precise effect of these changes remains to be proved by experience, but it is believed that they are in accordance with the spirit of the age, and that they will render the course more attractive and practically useful without diminishing its educational value.

The University has reason to congratulate itself on the approaching completion of the Peter Redpath Museum, which, it is hoped, will be opened on occasion of the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Montreal in August next. It will, for the first time in this country, furnish the means requisite for the comprehensive study of the Natural History Sciences, and when more fully supplied with teachers, will, it is hoped, place this University in the first position in this respect. It may be said that this museum, which is in truth a College of Natural Science, places its department in advance of others in the University. This may be admitted, in so far at least as external appliances are concerned; but in the case of an institution dependent for its growth on private benefactions, we must be prepared to advance step by step rather than to advance every department equally. Mr. Redpath has shown what can be done for other departments of educational work by other benefactors who may desire to push them forward to an equal extent. There is, in short, no department of the work of the University that in one way

or another could not profitably employ for its expansion an amount of money equal to that invested in the new museum.

I have much pleasure in stating that the new Museum will enable the University to extend the benefits of one part at least of its instruction to women, in a fuller manner than heretofore. Through the Ladies' Educational Association, the instructions of our professors, and the use of our apparatus and specimens, have already been made available to some extent in this way, and we have established for the benefit of women the certificate of Senior Associate in Arts; but next Session we hope to have in connection with the Association a class of ladies in the new museum, where they may have advantages not previously enjoyed in the study of Natural History. We hope in this way to show what may be done when we have similar enlarged building accommodation and means of instruction in other departments.

The remainder of the address was occupied with a statement of the results of the appeal recently made to the citizens of Montreal for the increased endowment of the University. The result of these had been such as to avert the risk of serious deficiency in annual income, but not as yet such as to warrant any increased expenditure in the work of education. To enable such progress to be made as is demanded by the requirements of the times, much larger endowments would be required. Confidence was expressed that these would be obtained in due time, and that the example set by so many liberal benefactors in the past would be followed in the future.

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#### LADIES' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

On May 8th, the eleventh annual meeting of the Ladies' Educational Association was held in the Synod Hall, the Rev. Principal MacVicar presiding.

The report submitted by Mrs. Redpath and Mercer, contained letters from the different lecturers of the year. The session opened with a course of lectures on the "Theory of Music and Introduction to Harmony," given by Prof. Couture. The attendance was good, and of the 21 students who came up for examination, 6 took a first, 9 a second, and 6 a third class. Of those that attended Prof. J. C. Murray's course on "Logic," 33 candidates appeared for examination, out of which 15 were placed in the first class, attaining an average of over 80 per cent. of the maximum marks. Professor Johnson's lectures on "Light" were illustrated by the apparatus of the McGill University: of 19 candidates who sent in papers, 9 were placed



in the first class, 8 in the second, and 2 in the third. For the examination upon Professor Campbell's Lectures upon the "Early History of America," 22 ladies presented themselves, 12 appearing in the first class, 4 in the second, and 6 in the third. For the session of 1881-2 the names of 68 students were entered, of which number 48 came up for examination, and 93 certificates were granted: first class, 42; second class, 30; 3rd class, 21.

Two prizes were offered to the "regular students, who, having passed creditably in the subjects of Examination before Christmas, shall take the highest marks in the first class, in the written examinations, in one of the subjects at the end of the Session." Ten ladies competed for the prizes, out of whom Miss Florence Ferrier won the prizes for "Light" and "Early American History." Certificates for a three years consecutive course of the Association lectures were given to Misses I. Papineau, H. Sutherland and M. Earle.

Financially the position of the Association was not so satisfactory as it was last session. The members' list has decreased and the committee has been compelled to exhaust last years' balance of \$248.81 and to draw on the reserve fund. The expenditure had been \$1,176.40; receipts from members, \$728; students tickets, interest, &c., \$129.82; drawn from the reserve fund, \$72, leaving a balance of \$2.23.

For the next session the following courses have been determined upon. Dr. Dawson will lecture upon "Invertebrate Animals;" Professor Moyse upon "English Literature during the Elizabethan Era;" Professor Campbell upon "Mexico, Peru, and the Spanish Main," and Dr. Buller upon the "External Senses." Possibly, too, Professor Couture will give a course upon "Harmony." The students of Dr. Dawson's course will have the privilege of studying at separate hours in the Peter Redpath Museum, and a further advantage is offered to members by a Library of Reference in charge of Mrs. Hill, of Phillip's Square.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

Patroness—Her Royal Highness the Princess Louise. Vice-Patroness—Mrs. Molson. President—Mrs. Redpath. Vice-Presidents—Mrs. Dawson, Mrs. Greenshields. Honorary Secretary—Mrs. Mercer. Secretary—Miss Gairdner. Honorary Treasurer—Mr. John Molson. Executive Committee—Mrs. Fraser, Mrs. Tiffin, Miss Lunn, Mrs. Lewis, Miss Redpath.

## MAX MULLER ON FOLK-LORE.

Few subjects are intrinsically of greater interest or have made greater progress within the last decade, than the study of Folk-Lore. A quarterly review, devoted to this subject, has been lately started in Sicily. To the first number Professor Max Müller has addressed a letter, from which the following is an extract:—

“To collect popular stories is either a most difficult or a most easy task. Everybody who finds nothing better to do thinks he is able at least to write down the stories which his nurse has told him. But this, you know, is a great mistake. First of all, not every story that an old woman may tell deserves to be written down and printed. There is a peculiar earthy flavour about the genuine home-grown, or, if I may say so, autochthonic *Märchen*—something like the flavour of the dark-red wild strawberry—which we must learn to appreciate before we can tell whether a story is old or new, genuine or made-up; whether it comes, in fact, from the forest or from the hot-house. This is a matter of taste; but, as tasters of wine or tea will tell you, even taste can be acquired.

“Secondly, the same story should, whenever that is possible, be collected from different sources and in different localities, and the elements that are common to all versions should be carefully distinguished from those that are peculiar to one or more only.

“Thirdly, each collector should acquaint himself with the results already obtained in the classification of stories, in order to see and to say at once to what cluster each new story belongs. Hahn's classification of ancient myths, imperfect as it is, may give you an example of what ought to be done in order to arrive at a classification of modern myths. Here your archives might render very great service.

“Fourthly, wherever it is possible the story ought to be given in the *ipsissima verba* of the story-teller. This will be a safeguard against that dishonesty in the collection of stories from which we have suffered so much. It is quite true that a collector who trims and embellishes a story ought to be whipped; while a man who invents a story and publishes it as genuine ought to be shot. But, until such a Draconic law is carried into effect, your insisting on having in all cases the *ipsissima verba* will be a great protection.

against swindlers. Besides, it will have the advantage of making your journal not only an archive for stories, but also a treasure for the students of dialects. The study of dialects, I feel certain, is full of promise; and I still hold as strongly as ever that, in order to know what language is, we must study it in its dialects, which alone represent the real natural life of language. Only here again moderation is essential, as also is the practice of that art which is the secret of all true art and of all true knowledge—viz., *the art of distinguishing what is really important from what is unimportant*. Without that art, collectors of dialects and collectors of stories may fill whole libraries with their volumes; but real knowledge—the knowledge that gives us clear ideas, and strengthens and sharpens the mind for new work—will be impeded rather than advanced.

“The really essential points on which a scientific study of popular stories can, and ought to, throw light are not many. What we want to know is:

“(1) Whether these stories exist in many places, and are, therefore, a natural product of the human mind in its growth from savagery to culture.

“(2) Whether we can trace their history from modern to ancient times, and follow up their migration from East to West.

“(3) Whether we can understand their origin or *raison d'être* by discovering their first formation in the mythopoetic stratum of human language and human thought.

“These are the three momentous questions; everything else is curious only, unless it serves directly or indirectly to throw light on them. To be able to suppress what is merely curious in order to make room for what is really important seems to me the test of the true scholar in every field of research. To do this requires great self-denial on the part of a student, and even greater firmness on the part of an editor of such a journal as you contemplate.”

## COMPARATIVE CLASSIFICATION OF THE CASES IN LATIN AND GREEK.

### A NOTE FOR TEACHERS.

A table such as the following will be of little value to mere beginners. The time has not yet come for them to attempt a scientific study of language, and it will be sufficient for them to connect the English symbols that they find in grammars with the

cases. But more advanced pupils should have some clear ideas in their minds of the cases and their uses, and to them this table may be made useful. They can proceed from this to the further classification of the meanings of each individual case:

LATIN.		GREEK.
Nominative.	Subject of Sentence;	Nominative.
Genitive.	Adjectival . . . <i>qualifies Nouns.</i>	Genitive.
Dative.	Indirect Object of verb.	Dative.
Accusative.	Direct object of verb.	Accusative.
do.	Motion TO.	do.
do.	Time HOW LONG (i.e. <i>Extension in Time.</i> )	do.
Ablative.	Adverbial . . . <i>qualifies Verbs.</i>	
do.	Motion FROM.	Genitive.
do.	Agent and Instrument.	Dative, or Genitive with Preposition.
do.	Time WHEN (i.e. <i>Point of Time.</i> )	Genitive and Dative.
do.	Rest AT	Dative.
Locative.	do.	Locative.

### THE SCHOOLS OF THE WORLD.

The Bureau of Statistics, Washington, D. C., has issued the following interesting statement regarding the schools of the different countries compiled from the latest official returns:—

	Elementary schools.	Pupils.	Government expenditure
United States contains.....	189,000	9,720,000	\$81,719,000
Austria.....	15,000	2,135,000	6,500,000
Brazil.....	5,900	182,500	11,600,000
Bavaria.....	7,200	841,000	4,000,000
Belgium.....	5,700	688,000	2,467,000
British India.....	15,000	616,000	6,626,000
England and Wales.....	18,000	3,896,000	13,749,000
France.....	74,000	4,949,000	22,000,000
Germany.....	80,000	7,200,000	Unknown
Hungary.....	15,000	1,560,000	2,300,000
Ireland.....	7,500	1,932,000	2,677,000
Italy.....	48,000	2,058,000	6,000,000
Japan.....	25,000	2,163,000	1,181,000
Mexico.....	8,110	349,000	Unknown
The Netherlands.....	3,800	541,000	2,500,000
Ontario.....	5,100	514,000	2,889,000
Portugal.....	4,500	198,000	5,000,000
Prussia.....	36,000	4,816,000	10,000,000
Russia.....	28,000	1,203,000	9,000,000
Scotland.....	3,500	534,000	1,736,000
Sweden.....	8,800	598,000	2,500,000
Spain.....	28,000	1,400,000	Unknown
Victoria.....	2,300	250,000	2,844,000
Wurtemberg.....	3,900	275,000	2,000,000
Turkey.....	2,100	40,000	1,500,000

## BOOK NOTICES.

Dr. Hickok's *Empirical Psychology*\* is undoubtedly a remarkable work, in many senses of the term. To begin with, the style is elaborately obscure. What possible meaning for instance can be attached to the following sentence that begins a paragraph upon Sentiency (p. 105): "This is the original need in the spontaneity that beyond an instinctive rule it take (*sic*) on a sentient sway, and elevate (*sic*) itself in a new kingdom to the sovereignty of sense-consciousness." Next, as to the matter of the book, it is an attempt to deduce a system of theology from the facts of psychology. "It has been a special design," we read in the Preface to the Revised Edition, "to make this edition a ready and helpful introduction to a *spiritual philosophy* by which universal human experience shall become a complete systematic science." What Dr. Hickok means by "universal human experience" may be gathered from the following analysis of the work. First of all, the subject is divided into three parts,—the Intellect, the Susceptibility and the Will. The Intellect is resolved into the Sense, the Understanding and the Reason; the Susceptibility is separately considered as the Sentient, the Psychical and the Rational Susceptibility; and the Will is similarly treated. The work ignores almost everything that has been done in Psychology hitherto, draws distinctions where Scientific Psychologists see none, and assumes as facts of experience what are merely the results of association. It may be fairly called "empirical" for it is utterly unscientific.

Dr. Hudson's short *Discourse on Daniel Webster*† is well worth reading. It will enable the lover of truth to learn the case that the great orator's partisans have to set against the indictments of the Devil's advocate. Dr. Hudson begins by showing that Webster was the one imperial intellect of the American nation, one of the world's great men, and one of the world's great orators, the other worthies being Demosthenes, Cicero, Chrysostom, Bossuet, Chatham and Burke. After a short account of Webster's great qualities of mind and heart, we come to the consideration of his chief faults and these Dr. Hudson considers to be Webster's over-anxiety to become President of the United States and his carelessness in money matters. His great service to the nation was his defence of the Union against Nullification, and against Peaceable Secession. He was thus at once the great Expounder and the great Defender of the American Constitution. The differ-

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\**Empirical Psychology or the Science of Mind, from Experience*; by Laurens P. Hickok, D.D., LL.D. Revised with the co-operation of Julius H. Seelye, D.D., LL.D., President of Amherst College. (Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston.)

† A Discourse delivered on the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Daniel Webster, Jan. 18, 1882, by the Rev. Henry N. Hudson, LL.D. (Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston.)

ent points of view from which the career of Webster may be regarded will be seen by comparing what Dr. Hudson has to say with the following comment upon his celebrated 7th of March speech: "Bluntly but truthfully put," writes the *New York Nation*, "his last public act was that of a political gambler, whose ambition to be President, long insensibly wasting his moral fibre, at last sapped the professional conscience of the 'Expounder of the Constitution,' and led him to give his sanction to an act not more shocking to the humanity of the 'New North,' than it was objectionable to any one who judged it from a purely legal and constitutional standpoint. We may be surprised and grieved that so great a man could 'give himself away;' but the motive was sufficient, and our history is full of instances of self-abasement and mortification caused by the Presidential mania." Dr. Hudson on the other hand challenges "anybody to prove, that Webster ever did anything wrong, or anything mean, that he ever swerved a hair from his honest convictions of duty, in order to gain the office of President; and in reference to the 7th of March speech writes: "I have read that speech a great many times, and I do not know of a single word in it that I would have otherwise than it is. I think it every way just such a speech as should have been made at that time by a great man, who had a great Union to save, and a great civil war to avert."

The *Sight Test* published by Messrs Ginn, Heath & Co. will be found a valuable addition to the apparatus of our Public Schools. "Near-sight (Myopia)," run the Directions printed upon the back of the *Sight Test*, "is never present at birth, but is always acquired. It generally begins during the earlier years of school-life, and steadily increases. If treated when it first appears it can ordinarily be arrested, sometimes entirely removed." However this may be, it is certainly desirable that the sight of children should be periodically tested and that precautions should be taken in individual cases to prevent the evil from being aggravated. The card before us gives a series of lines printed in different types, the highest of which should be read by a healthy normal eye at five metres (16 feet 3 inches).

### RECENT EVENTS.

*The Annual Convention.*—The nineteenth Annual Convention of the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of the Province of Québec will be held in Sherbrooke during the first week of July. The Executive Committee will be glad to receive from Teachers and others interested in education any suggestions, which may promote the success of the Convention and enhance its usefulness. Besides the usual reduction on the railway lines and at the hotels, it is proposed to organize cheap trips from Sherbrooke to different places of interest, and particularly to Saratoga, to allow all

members of the Convention to attend the great National Convention of American Teachers, which is to be held at that place during the second week of July.

*Royal Canadian Readers.*—We are glad to hear that the Canada Publishing Company has decided on issuing a new set of Readers. Each volume of the series will be carefully prepared by individual members of a syndicate and the whole revised by the body collectively, while it will be subject to the general supervision of a competent Editor. We have seen some of the plates, the workmanship of which is truly admirable. A distinctively national character will be given to the books by the use made where possible of passages from Canadian authors, and of illustrations by Canadian artists.

*Protestant Secretaryship of Public Instruction.*—All interested in Protestant Education will have heard with pleasure of the Rev. E. I. Rexford's appointment to the vacant post. Mr. Rexford's services to education, his extensive knowledge of the practical working of the system not only in Montreal but in the country parts, and his previous record, combine to make the appointment one of the happiest that has lately been made. His connection with the city schools will, we believe, be continued to the end of the scholastic year. By his removal Montreal receives a serious loss, but the province a great gain.

*Montreal Teachers' Association.*—The election of officers for the ensuing year resulted as follows:—

President—Dr. McGregor.

Vice-Presidents—Mrs. Fuller, Misses Carmichael and Francis, and Mr. F. W. Hicks.

Secretary—Miss Willan.

Treasurer—Mr. C. A. Humphrey.

Council—Dr. S. P. Robins, Messrs. Arthy, Haight, Rowell, Misses Clarke, Peebles and Sloan.

The following resolution in reference to the Rev. E. I. Rexford's recent appointment as Secretary to the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instructions was carried unanimously:

“That this Association has learned with great pleasure the action of the Government in appointing the Rev. E. I. Rexford, M.A., to the position of Secretary to the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, and recognizes in this wise and happy selection the desire to meet the views and requirements of the Protestant teachers of the Province.

“Be it also resolved,—That while congratulating the President upon his appointment to this influential and honorable position, the Association desires to record its sense of the obligations under which it rests to him for the zeal and efficiency which have char-

acterized his efforts, as a member and an officer, during the past twelve years, and its sense of the great loss it will sustain in his removal from Montreal."

*Barnjum's Gymnasium.*—On Friday evening, April 28th, the annual closing exercises of Mr. Barnjum's classes for young ladies and children were attended by a large number of ladies and gentlemen. Mr. Barnjum gave a short address upon the importance of physical education, quoting from Herbert Spencer in support of his argument. The exercises consisted of various evolutions at the "double," bar bells, dumb bells, free gymnastics, Indian clubs, and marching; the latter consisting of a number of pretty movements having for their object the development of the lower limbs. The pupils who particularly distinguished themselves were as follows: *Junior Class*—Misses Jessie White, Helen Robertson, Mary McDonald, Lucy Hutchins, Mary Law, Florence Millar, Mabel Hunter, Nichols, Holden, Evelyn Donnelly and Tyre.—*Senior Class*.—Misses Tiny and Kate Wilson, V. Alexander, Stafford, E. Ross, Mabel Evans, Taylor, Francis, Privett, Archibald, Geraldine Brock, Slesser, Annie White, G. Grafton, Trivolet, Gould and Beers.

*McGill Graduates' Society.*—The McGill College Graduates' Society held its annual meeting, on May 1, in the Natural History Society's rooms, Dr. Osler the President in the chair. The nomination of Officers for the ensuing year resulted as follows: President, J. S. McLennan; Vice-Presidents, J. S. Hall, C. H. McLeod; Dr. W. Molson; Secretary, W. McLennan; Treasurer, H. H. Lyman; Non-resident Councillors—Rev. E. Taylor and G. G. Stuart, Quebec; Browne Chamberlain and Dr Grant, Ottawa; Dr. Stewart, Brucefield, Ont.; Charles Gibb Abbotsford; Resident Councillors.—Dr. R. N. McDonnell, A. McLoun, J. R. Dougall, F. W. Kelley, Rev. E. I. Rexford and G. H. Chandler. Their annual dinner took place at the Windsor Hotel on May 2. About one hundred and thirty guests sat down, and the chair was occupied by Dr. Osler.

*Protestant Board of School Commissioners.*—The regular monthly meeting was held on Thursday afternoon, May 11th. The Honorary Treasurer submitted the statement of accounts for April, showing the total floating indebtedness of the Board to be \$17,000. Reports of attendance in all the schools of the Board showed a total enrolment for April of 3,513 pupils, the average daily attendance in the Common, Senior and High schools being upward of 93 per cent. The Committee on examinations reported all the examinations in the Common and Senior schools completed, and the returns in course of tabulation. The annual oral examination of the Preparatory High School was appointed for the 23rd, inst., of the High School for girls for the 25th, and of the High School for boys for the 30th. Miss Marion O'Grady was appointed assistant



teacher in the Point St. Charles School. An emergency meeting of the Board was summoned on Monday, 27th, to consider the educational crisis resulting from the failure of legislation in respect of the school tax of Montreal, and was attended by every member of the Board now in the country. After a close and careful reconsideration of the probable income of the Board for the ensuing year, it became evident that the present scale of expenditure cannot be maintained. It seemed impossible so to reduce the salaries of teachers, or to increase school fees, as to establish equilibrium of income and expenditure. It was therefore resolved to bring the matter under the notice of the parents of the pupils of the schools in a suitable manner, and to ask them to determine whether or not any schools shall be closed, and, if so, what schools, or to devise such practical action as may issue in keeping the schools open. To make it possible to follow such course as may be indicated by the public will, it was necessary for the Board to disembarass itself of all existing engagements. Accordingly the Secretary was instructed to give immediate notice to all concerned, that all appointments under the Board terminate on the 31st of August next, and that the Board will not hold itself bound to renew any one of them.

*Natural History Society, Montreal.*—At the annual general meeting of the above society, held May 18th, the following officers were elected:—President, Principal Dawson, LL.D., F.R.S. Vice-Presidents, Rev. Dr. DeSola, Mr. J. H. Joseph, Prof. P. J. Darcy, Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, Major H. Latour, Rev. Canon Baldwin, Dr. Hingston, Prof. B. J. Harrington, and Mr. D. A. P. Watt; Recording Secretary, Prof. F. W. Hicks, M.A.; Corresponding Secretary, Dr. J. Baker-Edwards; Treasurer, Mr. G. L. Marler; Cabinet-Keeper and Librarian, Mr. William Muir; Council, Messrs. Thos. Craig, J. T. Donald, J. Bemrose, Dr. Osler, M. H. Brisette, John S. Shearer, G. Sumner and J. H. R. Molson; Library Committee, Messrs. A. Muir, J. Bemrose, J. S. Shearer and J. T. Donald; Editor of *Canadian Naturalist*, Mr. J. T. Donald.

*Oscar Wilde's Lecture.*—On Monday, May 15th, Oscar Wilde delivered the first of his long expected lectures in Montreal to a crowded and patient audience. Those who went to see the lion of the season were of course satisfied, but he had nothing to tell us that we had not heard before. The lecture as a whole was rambling and disconnected; the details, as for instance in regard to the tendrils of flowers, untrue to nature. His remarks upon education, though insisting on truths often forgotten, were only what Ruskin had said before.

*Art Association of Montreal.*—A meeting of the Art Association was held on May 19, in the Art Gallery, Mr. J. S. McLennan being announced to read a paper on "Etching." The paper was an

interesting one, treating of the rise and growth of etching, its value and importance as an art, and dealing generally with the historical and technical points.

### EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS.

*Meeting of School Superintendents at Washington, D. C.*—This important section of the National Education Association met at Washington during the month of March. Superintendents were present from far and near, from Alaska and from Georgia, nearly all the states of the Union being represented. The absorbing topic was the question of securing from Congress an appropriation for the establishment of elementary schools in the several States, to be distributed on the basis of illiteracy. This measure received the unanimous indorsement of the educators present from all sections of the country, and a committee was chosen to aid in preparing and perfecting a bill which should secure to the several States such aid as will accomplish the desired object. Many other questions of interest were discussed; but perhaps none had more direct bearing upon the problem of education in Canada than a practical paper which was read upon "City Systems"—an important subject, as one-fifth of the population of the States is comprised in Cities containing 8,000 inhabitants and upwards. The principal weakness noticed was the lack of permanency in the teaching profession owing to causes similar to those in Canada. It was recommended that at least half the teachers should be men; that the text-books and stationery should be furnished free to the pupils; that means of coercion should be adopted to secure attendance; that kindergartens, as well as evening high schools, should be provided everywhere. Some of these improvements had been adopted in different localities but they ought to be generalised. A full account of the meeting will be found in the *Journal of Education* (March 30.)

*"The Schoolmaster" on the dress of school children.*—Mr. Mundell will perhaps see his way to the embodiment of some sumptuary regulations in his New Code. It would be well to lay down what may be worn by the pupils and teachers of elementary schools in the way of dress and ornaments. We should then have no such cases as those which have recently occupied the attention of the Horsham School Board and the magistrate at Hammersmith Police-court. In the former case the son of a local butcher was sent home because he came to school wearing a blue smock, and in the latter case a girl was refused admission to a school because she had been sent with her hair in curl-papers, and the mistress thought if she allowed curl-papers the children might attend in finery. There seems to have been some reason for the master refusing to take the boy in the blue smock, since the garment in question was said to be so greasy that it attracted the derisive

notice of the other scholars, but we find nothing of the sort stated of the curl-papers, and are at a loss to understand the action of the mistress in question. She has a right to insist upon children being sent clean and tidy to school, and may use her moral suasion to induce them to adopt what she may consider the most becoming way of dressing their hair. But to object to curl-paper on the ground that it was her duty to discourage finery was taking far too much upon herself. Teachers have no right to interfere with the way in which parents may choose to dress their children, unless it can be shown that it involves a real hindrance to school work. If they think the children are dressed with bad taste, let them do their best to improve their taste, but to refuse admission to school on any such ground would probably lead to a loss of grant.

*Intellectual Progress as tested by Encyclopedias.*—Sufficient is now before the public to enable it to judge of the character of the ninth edition of this national work. If it would be unjust to compare Prof. Baynes to Diderot, and his coadjutors to the Encyclopedists of the most influential 'Encyclopédie' the world has yet seen, it must be granted that the new edition shows as a great revolution in thought. The old analysis first systematically expounded in the 'Encyclopédie' has given way to the new historical school, which has conquered all down the line. It is curious to reflect how few are the names to which can be traced back the influences which have made these volumes what they are: Mr. Darwin, Sir W. Thomson, Prof. Stubbs, Sir H. S. Maine, Mr. Hutchinson Stirling, Mr. Spencer, Prof. M. Müller, and Mr. Matthew Arnold almost sum up the "seminal" influences at work in England during the past quarter of a century in science, history, law, philosophy, philology, and literary criticism. Except in physics, the whole movement may be summed up in one word—*développement*. We now seek to know not so much what a thing is as how it came to be. This tone of thought is predominant in the 'Encyclopædia,' and at times leads to a neglect of the facts in the search after their history.—*The Athenæum*.

*The Schoolmaster.*—Why are we never quite at our ease in the presence of a schoolmaster?—because we are conscious that he is not quite at ease in ours. He is awkward, and out of place in the society of his equals. He comes like Gulliver from among his little people, and he cannot fit the stature of his understanding to yours. He cannot meet you on the square. He wants a point given him, like an indifferent whist-player. He is so used to teaching, that he wants to be teaching you. One of these professors, upon my complaining that these little sketches of mine were anything but methodical, and that I was unable to make them otherwise, kindly offered to instruct me in the method by which young gentlemen in his seminary were taught to compose English

themes. The jests of a schoolmaster are coarse or thin. They do not tell out of school. He is under the restraint of a formal or didactic hypocrisy in company, as a clergyman is under a moral one. He can no more let his intellect loose in society than the other can his inclinations. He is forlorn among his coevals; his juniors cannot be his friends.—*Charles Lamb*.

*Competitive Examination.*—The system of appointment by competitive examination is now so firmly established that it would be idle to seek to abolish it, even if any one seriously wished to return to the old practice; but it does not seem at all impossible to modify and temper its practical working, so as greatly to diminish the dangers which its continuance involves. No better employment could be found for the reflections of a far-seeing statesman; and to such we may recommend the emphatic utterances of Professor Huxley, following on those of other weighty authorities. "The educational abomination of desolation of the present day, is the stimulation of young people to work at high pressure by incessant competitive examinations." "The vigor and freshness which should have been stored up for the purposes of the hard struggle for existence in practical life, have been washed out of them by precocious mental debauchery, by book-gluttony and lesson-bibbing."—*The Spectator*.

*Reform at Cambridge.*—The Cambridge Board of Modern and Medieval Languages have drawn up a scheme for a new special examination for the ordinary B.A. degree, of which English language and literature, with either French or German language and literature, should be the subjects. It is suggested that this is but a reasonable extension of the local and other examinations held under university sanction, and will be a step towards recognizing the increasing amount of study of modern language in public schools. Meanwhile an influential syndicate has been appointed to consider the whole question of ordinary degree examinations, and those preliminary to honours or to commencing residence in the university. This is but a pendant to the thorough revision of the Cambridge Tripos scheme which has recently been carried out.—*The Athenæum*.

## SCIENTIFIC DEPARTMENT.

WRITTEN LANGUAGE OF THE MOUND BUILDERS—ASSINIBOINE AND RED RIVER WATERS—FORESTRY IN AMERICA—THE WELLS COMET—JUMBO—NEW MILK TEST—ACTION OF ELECTRIC LIGHT ON VEGETATION.

In a previous number of the RECORD attention was called to the fact that the Davenport Academy of Science was in possession of the only known remains of the written language of the Mound Builders. Knowing the great value of language in determining the affinities of a people, it was hoped that if this Davenport tablet could be deciphered it would throw much light on the origin of the early dwellers in our Western land. The last number of *The American Antiquarian* contains a paper by Rev. Professor Campbell of the Pres-

byterian College of this city on "Proposed Reading of the Davenport Tablet." With the aid of very plain diagrams the Professor removes every doubt as to the fact of a close resemblance—in some instances amounting to identity,—existing between the characters used by the ancient Hittites of Western Asia in their inscriptions and those employed by the Aztecs of Mexico and the "mound-builders" of the northern and middle States. Another discovery of no small significance is that of a marked resemblance between these ancient alphabets and that now in use among the natives of the Korean peninsula. These remarkable discoveries will undoubtedly, as the learned discoverer says, serve to "link the old world with the new, destroy many ethnological theories, and prove a stepping-stone to a truer science of the past in this continent."

Much has been written concerning the water used for drinking purposes in the North-West, and several analyses of the waters of the Assiniboine and Red rivers have been published, but none of the analyses are of recent date. The writer has just completed an examination of samples of water from these two streams, with the following results, expressed in grains per imperial gallon of 70,000 grains.

	Assiniboine	Red River.
Total solids.....	52.92000	29.540000
Chlorine.....	1.17600	2.546000
Free Ammonia.....	} .00322	{ .002170
Albumenoid Ammonia....		
Hardness.....	37.50000	25.900000

It will thus be seen that the water of the Red River is much better suited for domestic purposes than that of the Assiniboine. The amount of Chlorine in the former is large, but is undoubtedly due to the fact that water from various salt springs finds its way into this river and cannot therefore be regarded as an injurious ingredient. In this connection it may be interesting to submit the mean composition of the Loch Katrine water (one of the finest in the world) for the year ending March 1st, 1882. The results are expressed, as before, in grains per imperial gallon:—

Total Solids.....	2.1000
Chlorine.....	.4310
Free Ammonia.....	none.
Albumenoid Ammonia.....	.0019
Hardness.....	.6930

Forestry has long been regarded as a matter of importance by the various peoples of the old world, but it is only of late that America has turned her attention to that subject. We are therefore glad to record that the National Forestry Congress held its first meeting in Cincinnati on the 25th ult., and continued in session five days, during which time a large number of most interesting papers were read and discussed. Canada was represented by four delegates, who were very cordially received, and invited to participate in the deliberations. In order that Canadians might be induced to participate more freely in the doings of this Congress, it was resolved to change the name to the American Forestry Congress, and that the next meeting be held in Montreal, on the 21st and 22nd days of next August, two days before the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. Among the papers read and discussed at the Cincinnati meeting were the following written by Canadian authors: "The Pine Woods of Canada," by James Little, of Montreal; "Distribution of Canadian Trees," by A. T. Drummond, of Montreal; "Why should we plant Trees," by Dr. A. Eby, of Sebringville, Ont.; "Forest Insects," by Prof. Wm. Saunders, of London. The four following papers were prepared by Prof. Wm. Brown, of Guelph: "Forests and Rainfall in Ontario," "Lessons from Australia and Scotland," "Suggestions regarding Government Assistance," "Suggestions respecting a Text-book on Forestry."

On the 18th March last a new comet, called the Wells Comet after its discoverer, was first observed. This interesting comet has been for some time visible to the naked eye, and now its tail can be distinctly seen. On the evening of June 4th, and a few nights afterwards, the whole of the body may be seen to best advantage. On June 19th, this comet's perihelion will occur—when it is nearest to the Sun, but even then its distance from the Sun will be very great, 5,000,000 miles or so. After its perihelion it will fade away until by the end of the year it will be beyond the range of the strongest instrument.

Jumbo, the celebrated elephant, has of late received more attention, and excited greater interest, than any of the burning questions of the day, the Irish troubles and Oscar Wilde not excepted. Even the Scientists have been interested in this remarkable animal, that in some respects resembles the ordinary African elephant, whilst in others differing from that type as well as from their Asiatic congeners. When seen in profile he presents an appearance not unlike some of the sketches of the mastodon given in works on the Fauna of pre-historic ages. Professor Doremus, of New York, is said to favor the theory that Jumbo is of mastodonic lineage, and many other scientists are reported to entertain similar views. Whether he is a lingering specimen of the monsters of the miocene or pliocene periods, or not, the fact remains that Jumbo is the largest beast now known to be in captivity, and it is doubtful if a larger animal walks the earth.

The following account of a newly invented milk-test, from a German paper devoted to chemistry in its relations to agriculture, deserves to be placed on record. This instrument, the "pio-scope" consists of a disc of black vulcanized caoutchouc, having in its middle a very flat, circular depression. A few drops of the milk in question, well mixed, are placed in the hollow and covered with the second part of the apparatus,—a plate of glass painted with six shades of colour radiating out from a small uncoloured circular spot in the middle. The colours range from white grey to deep bluish grey. The layer of milk is seen through the uncoloured spot in the centre, and its colour can thus be compared with the radiating colours, and its quality is judged according to the colour with which it coincides. Thus the whitest colour stands for cream, the next for very rich milk; then follow in succession—normal, inferior, poor, and very poor.

It has frequently been stated that the rays of the electric light were favorable to vegetation, and it was hinted that this light might in the future be used as a means for hastening the maturity of plants. From *Les Mondes* we learn that investigations on this point have recently been made at the Palace of Industry. It was found that the naked rays were injurious to plants, but after passing through glass globes, they ceased to have any hurtful action upon plants, but their efficacy was not great. Nocturnal illuminations is not fatal to plants, but there is no proof that it is beneficial.

J. T. D.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

### FRENCH TEACHING.

To the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

SIR,—I have read with pleasure and interest the memoranda of Dr. Robins to the teachers of French in the Protestant schools of Montreal; they are good, and the fact of associating names with things is a happy idea. But it is not to commend Dr. Robins' papers that I write to you, but to make one or two remarks. To teachers of French in Senior classes Dr. Robins says: "One special difficulty in your part of the work is the order of the pronouns before

the verb. I think if the subjoined scheme be made familiar, it will help pupils to understand and remember this point."

The table is then given. Almost every French grammar gives that table ; but when I come to that place with my classes, I substitute the following rules which are simpler to remember, as I think, and certainly give more for pupils to understand:—

1. The pronouns used objectively precede the verb.
2. When they are of different persons, the pronouns of the *first* or *second* persons precede those of the 3rd.
3. When both pronouns of the 3rd person, the *direct object* comes before the *indirect*.
4. When *y* and *en* occur in the same sentence, *y* precedes *en*.

*Note.*—*Se* used as an indirect object forms an exception to (3), as it takes the precedence of the direct regimen.

In the Imperative, the direct objects *le, la, les* precede the indirect objects *moi, toi, lui, nous, vous, leur*. *Y* and *en* come last, except when the direct objects *moi, toi, le, la*, are used with the indirect object *y*, in which case *y* takes the precedence ; as *envoyez-y-moi, promènes-y-toi, menez-y-le*.

This last exception will correct a mistake in Dr. Robins' last table, for the pronouns do not always follow each other as stated there. With Dr. Robins, I will say "these" rules "should be illustrated by many examples."

As to his scheme of the terminations of verbs, my experience would be against multiplying the divisions of the conjugations into nine different endings. I think very few pupils would be able to make the effort to retain them in their memory for any length of time. Nor do I think the scheme easier or simpler—quite the contrary—than the old division of four different, regular, conjugations, ending in *er, ir, oir, re*, with their paradigms, or models, and their regular verbs after.

P. J. DAREY, M.A.

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